# THE HOSTING OF MAJOR SPORTS EVENTS IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES: WHAT CAN KENYA LEARN FROM SOUTH AFRICA?

BY

Doreen Anyango Odhiambo

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment for the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the University of Central Lancashire

**SEPTEMBER 2015** 

# STUDENT'S DECLARATION

# Concurrent registration for two or more academic awards

I declare that while registered as a candidate for the research degree, I have not been a registered candidate or enrolled student for another award of the University or other academic or professional institution.

# Material submitted for another award

I declare that no material contained in the thesis has been used in any other submission for an academic award and is solely my own work.

Signature of Candidate

Type of Award

School

# ABSTRACT

Developed countries have dominated the hosting of major sports events for many decades, however recent years have witnessed cities and nations from 'developing countries' bidding to stage and actually hosting these events. This thesis examines the growing interest of developing countries in hosting major sports events.

There were three main objectives. First, to outline the relationship between African countries and the global sports system (GSS), with a specific focus on Kenya and South Africa. Second, to critically assess the understandings of key actors and agencies in Kenya with respect to the possibilities and challenges of hosting major sports events, in comparison with actors and agencies in South Africa. Third, to investigate the knowledge transfer process with respect to the hosting of major sports events, using Kenya as an example.

The thesis adopted a critical realist theoretical framework to examine the structures and agencies of the GSS in order to understand the relationship between it and actors and agencies of sports events in Africa. The thesis argues that, though countries like Kenya may aspire to host one of the major sports events, the actual reality of hosting these events depends on many external factors which are out of their control.

The research methodology used in the thesis involved a two-stage qualitative approach through the analysing of archival data and conducting of expert interviews. The researcher reviewed past literature (on sports mega-events, sports policy issues, policy learning and transfer and the history of sport in Kenya) and constructed semi-structured interview guides.

The thesis concludes that the structure of the GSS and global sports organizations are not favourable to and are often prohibitive to developing countries in terms of enabling these countries to compete equally with developed countries in hosting sports events, competing in international sports events, and taking part in decision making at the international level. This is contrary to these organizations' claims to adhere to the values of equality for all their members.

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

STUDENT'S DECLARATIONi
ABSTRACTii
TABLE OF CONTENTS iii
LIST OF FIGURES
LIST OF TABLES viii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONSix
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT
Chapter 11
INTRODUCTION1
Introduction1
Aim and Objectives of the study5
Rationale of the study5
The use of South Africa in the study7
Structure of the Thesis9
Chapter 211
SPORTS EVENTS AND DEVELOPMENT11
Introduction11
Sports Events11
Classification of International Sports Events13
The Global Sports System18
Bidding for major sports events20
Why are countries competing to host major international sporting events?21
Sports Events and Social Development

Conclusion	
Chapter 3	
THEORIES OF SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT AND SPORT	
Introduction	
Development	
Development Theories	
Conclusion	56
Chapter 4	62
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	62
Introduction	62
Research Paradigm	62
Research Approach	67
Research Design	71
Data Analysis	
Personal Reflections	85
Limitations and Challenges	
Conclusion	
Chapter 5	90
KENYA, SPORT AND HOSTING EVENTS	90
Introduction	90
A brief history of Kenya	91
Post-Colonial Kenya	96
Sport in Kenya	
Sports Administration in Kenya	
Kenyan Sports Policy	
Challenges of Sport in Kenya	

Conclusion111
Chapter 6114
LEARNING FROM SOUTH AFRICA114
Introduction114
Sport in South Africa
The Relationship between African Countries and the Global Sports System122
The understanding of the key actors and agencies in South Africa with respect to the possibilities and challenges of hosting major sports events
Knowledge transfer process with respect to hosting of major sports events
Conclusion
Chapter 7
KENYA AND THE POSSIBILITIES OF HOSTING INTERNATIONAL SPORTS EVENTS
Introduction150
The Relationship between Kenya and the Global Sports System150
The understanding of the key actors and agencies in Kenya with respect to the possibilities
and challenges of hosting major sports events163
The major challenges hindering the hosting of major sports events in Kenya167
Possibilities of hosting major sports in Kenya185
Conclusion
Chapter 8
CONCLUSION195
Introduction195
Thesis Overview
Mapping the Challenges and Opportunities of the Global Sports System
Contribution of the thesis
REFERENCES

APPENDIX A	
APPENDIX B	
APPENDIX C	
APPENDIX D	
APPENDIX E	

# LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1: The Morphogenetic sequence of the relationship between structure and a	agency
(Source: Archer, 1995)	9
Figure 2.1: Bloomfield's Recreational Pyramid (Source: Bloomfield, 1973:49).	12
Figure 3.1: Theoretical Framework	58
Figure 4.1: The Morphogenetic Sequence of the relationship between structure and a	igency.
(Source: Adapted from Archer, 1995	66
Figure 5.1: Map of Kenya - Source - www.afdb.org (African Development Bank Webs	ite) 92
Figure 5.2: Development of Sports in Kenya - Source adapted from Rostow (1960).	101
Figure 5.3: Key Agencies and Actors of Sports in Kenya- Source adapted from the 2013	Kenya
Sport Law	104
Figure 8.1: The Morphogenetic Sequence of the Relationship between Structure and A	Agency
in the Global Sports System (GSS) (Adapted from Archer, 1995)	199

# LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1: The Thesis Stages of Data Collection Process    7	1
Table 4.2 Kenyan Interview Participants and their Pseudonym Codes       7	8
Table 4.3: South African and International Event Consultant Interview Participants and the	ir
Pseudonym Codes	0
Table 4.4: Basic Coding System for the Kenyan Participants         8	34
Table 4.5: Basic Coding System for the South African Participants	\$4
Table 7.1: Education levels of the Kenyan Sports Officials         17	'7

# LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

- AAG All African Games
- AASA Arab and African Sports Association
- AFCON African Cup of Nations
- AfriCOG African Centre for Open Governance
- AFC Asia Football Confederation
- BRIC Brazil, Russia, India and China
- CAN African Cup of Nations
- CATHSSETA Culture, Arts, Tourism, Hospitality and Sport Sector Education and Training

Authority

- CECAFA Council of East and Central Africa Football Association
- CGF Commonwealth Games Federation
- CHAN African Championship of Nations
- CONCACAF Confederation of North, Central American and Caribbean Association

Football.

CONMEBOL - Confederation of South American Football

- CSR Corporate Social Responsibility
- DCMS Department of Culture, Media and Sport
- DT Dependency Theory

- FKF Football Kenya Federation
- FIFA Federation Internationale de Football Association
- GDP Gross Domestic product
- GNI/n Gross National Income per capita
- HDI Human Development Index
- IAAF International Amateur Athletics Federation
- IBEAC Imperial British East Africa Company
- ICC International Criminal Court
- IHRB Institute for Human Right and Business
- IF International Federation
- IOC International Olympic Committee
- KHF Kenya Handball Federation
- KNBS Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
- KNPC Kenya National Paralympic Committee
- KNSC Kenya National Sports Council
- KNSP Kenya National Sports Policy
- LOC Local Organising Committee
- MDG Millennium Development Goals
- MINTS- Mexico, Indonesia, Nigeria, Turkey and South Korea
- MOSR Ministry of Sports and Recreation

# MT – Modernization Theory

- MYSA Mathare Youth Sports Association
- NEPAD New Partnerships for Development
- NOCK National Olympic Committee of Kenya
- ODA Overseas Development Assistance
- OECD Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
- PCT Post-Colonial Theory
- PDP Post-Graduate Development Programme
- PPP Purchasing Power Parity
- SAFA South Africa Football Association
- SAP Structural Adjustment Programmes
- SASCOC South Africa Sports Confederation of Olympic Committees
- SFD Sports for Development
- SRSA Sports and Recreation South Africa
- UEFA Union of European Football Association
- UNDP United Nations Development Programme

# ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

My deepest appreciation and prayers of gratitude goes to almighty God for abiding with and giving me the strength and courage to go through the doctoral program.

There are several people who provided me with support, guidance, and friendship throughout the course of this programme. I would like to specifically thank the following:

My Director of Studies, Professor John Horne and the other supervisory team members - Dr Susan Minten and Dr Jessica Macbeth for their endless commitment and in providing me with guidance and support throughout the research period. My supervisory team supported me in a positive and cheerful manner right to the end and never grew tired of being my critical friends and reading my drafts.

Dr Maurice Khayota who always encouraged me to consider applying for a PhD degree programme and thank the University of Central Lancashire for offering me a PhD scholarship. I also extend my gratitude to the Ministry of Sports, Kenya for granting me study leave to undertake the course.

Many thanks goes to all the participants in the study – Ministry of Sports and Sports Federations officials (Kenya and South Africa), who gave their valuable time to share their experiences and thoughts. Without their knowledge and expertise this research would not have been possible.

All the past and current PhD students who I met along the way – Sadie, Usha, Saqware, Emma, Sam, Asitik, Bupe, Hamis, Rozina, Hamid, Rachael, Masha – and assisted or supported me in their unique manner.

Lastly, I wish to thank my mother and my sisters – Josephine and Mildred for their prayers, support, and encouragement. I would not have finished this without all your help. I love you all very much.

#### Chapter 1

#### INTRODUCTION

# Introduction

Since the late 1950s and early 1960s when most countries in Africa gained independence from their respective colonial governments, they have been participating in major sports events held in other continents (the Americas, Europe and Asia) and it was only recently in 2010 that a country in Africa, South Africa, hosted one such event, the 2010 FIFA Men's Football World Cup. This was a first for Africa; however, other major sports events like the Commonwealth and Olympic Games have never been hosted in Africa. Abuja bid to host the 2014 Commonwealth Games and lost to Glasgow, while Cape Town and Cairo also bid to host the Olympic Games in 2004 and 2008 respectively and lost. Rio de Janeiro in Brazil will be hosting the Olympics in 2016, which will be the first Olympics in South America and it is hoped that with their success, an African country will be able to host an Olympics in 2024 (Mehaffey, 2012).

In the past three decades, there has been a rising demand to host major sports events, including the Olympic Games and the FIFA Men's Football World Cup Finals, by cities and countries who are competing vigorously for the right to host these events and now their national governments have also joined in to support them (Grix, 2012; Barclay, 2009; Cornelissen and Swart, 2006). According to Roche (2000: 1), mega-events are best understood as 'large scale cultural (including commercial and sporting) events, which have a dramatic character, mass popular appeal and international significance'. Two central features of contemporary mega-events are; firstly, that they are deemed to have significant consequences for the host city, region or nation in which they occur, and secondly, they will attract considerable media coverage (Horne and Manzenreiter, 2006). The 'legacies' – whether social, cultural, environmental, political, economic or sporting – are the greatest attraction but also form part of the 'known unknowns', of sports mega-events (Horne, 2007), especially for developing economies (Black and van der Westhuizen, 2004). Sports events have different classification and this is be explained in details in chapter 2.

Though there has been an increase in a number of developing countries hosting major and mega sports events since the 1988 Seoul Olympics, there is still a distinctive lack of analysis of the

bidding and hosting processes of these events in the context of the developing world (Cornelissen, 2007; 2004a; Swart and Bob, 2004). This is particularly the case in Africa, where in recent years numerous countries (e.g. Egypt, Morocco, Nigeria and South Africa) have sought to host major sport events (Cornelissen, 2004a).

This thesis explores the reasons why many developing countries, especially African countries, are not hosting major sports events and the possibilities for these countries to host such events. The developed countries have mostly hosted these events and it is only recently that developing countries have been able to host them. However, the bidding process has been an impeding and tedious process for these countries and even if they succeed in the bidding stage, they always have to prove that they can successfully host these events (Bolsmann 2010, Cornelissen 2004a; 2004b).

The various reasons why most developing countries have not been successful in hosting these events has always been expected to be lack of funds and sports infrastructure (Matheson and Baade, 2004; Cornelissen and Swart, 2006) but there are other important yet silent factors that have always been overlooked and should not be ignored. The competitions to host major sports events also occur on an unequal basis and this worsens the case for the developing countries especially African countries who are placed at the lower position by the global sports bodies (Cornelissen, 2004b). Cornelissen (2004a; 2004b) further added that it is never acknowledged that developing countries are discriminated against when it comes to bidding for international sports events. It is for this reason that during the bidding for both the 2006 and 2010 FIFA World Cup, the African countries in their bid continued to use the 'African discourse' in framing their bids (Black, 2007; Swart and Bob, 2004). Postcolonial discourse highlights the fact that colonial ties between developed and developing countries have significantly shaped and will always affect the way in which the developing countries are perceived and treated by the developed countries (Cornelissen, 2004b). Cornelissen (2004b) further added that this extends through into the continued negative positioning of the developing world in the international system. The relationship between the African countries and the global sports system has been one where the former has to demand and threaten the latter before it gets what it is entitled to (Darby, 2002; 2005). The relationship between the African continent and those of the Western world, especially Europe constituents, has not been good due to the unequal treatment of the African countries and the African countries feeling of being discriminated against by the developed countries, and in sport it is mostly evident in football (Darby, 2002;

2003). Darby (2002) further added that during the first 50 years of FIFA, the relationship between the game's national associations, intercontinental confederations and the world body had long been characterized by conflict, inequality and at times open hostility and this was more conspicuous between the relationship of FIFA's European and African constituents.

Every international sports federation has their own requirements for hosting their respective sports events. The highly prestigious events – FIFA World Cup and the Olympics, are held every four years and have requirements that are well known by their affiliates and national governments. Most countries that are interested in hosting these events are capable of meeting the requirements but that does not guarantee them winning the right to host them. Winning of the rights to host major sports events depends on other extra things that a contesting city and nation offers in terms of the values and objectives of these global sports bodies (Brighenti et al, 2005, Westerbeek et al, 2002). Apart from the normal hosting requirements by the events owners, cities and nations also go out of their way to provide other incentives to lure the events holders to give them the opportunity to host their events. For instance, India offered to cater for the travel and training expenses of all the participants' and officials of the 2010 Delhi Commonwealth Games (Mishra et al, 2010). This thesis thus sought to establish if some of the reasons hindering developing countries including Kenya from hosting these events is due to these countries not understanding the hosting requirements and how to go about the bidding process.

The hosting of major sports events involves several parties and they all have specific roles to play in the eventual organization of the event (Schatzmann, 2014). The international federations including FIFA and IOC are the events owners who are the decision makers about who hosts their events. They are responsible for operational functions, exploitation of rights of their events and financing in some cases (IOC, 2013; FIFA, 2014). The national federations are the hosts of the sports events in their respective countries and the link (agents) between the international sports federation and their national government. The organisation of major sport events also involves the participation of millions as participants, spectators, technical officials, and sponsors. The global sports system is thus composed of a wide range of actors with a set of complementary agendas, and the actors include the transnational corporations, international sports federations and other sports lobby groups, and host authorities, and policy – makers from different levels of governance. It is this group interest that determines the processes by which the major sports take shape and the longer- term consequences such events bear for the

wider society (Cornelissen, 2007). The politics and 'back stage dealings' played by these actors also determines who gets to host these events depending on what either group will gain (Horne and Manzenreiter, 2002; Cornelissen, 2004b; Swart and Bob, 2004).

In addition to the FIFA Football World Cup hosted in 2010, the African continent only hosts the quadrennial All African Games (AAG), which is held under the aegis of the Olympic Movement, and the African Cup of Nations, a continental football tournament held biennially (Cornelissen 2004b). In fact, most African countries have always had challenges hosting these events, where some have had to withdraw from hosting them due to lack of funds or inadequate infrastructure (Andreff, 2006; Cornelissen 2004b). For instance, Zambia had to bow out from hosting the 2011 All African Games due to funding challenges and Mozambique stepped in to host the games (Anon, 2008). South Africa is the only country in the continent that has been more active with respect to hosting major sports events, although several other African countries have also sought to host such events. Continentally, the African Cup of Nations is the largest and most widely publicized international event; it has been hosted by more than 16 African states since its conception though there are countries that have hosted it more than once (Cornelissen, 2004b).

Debate continues about the capability of developing countries to host major sports events given many of the socio-economic challenges developing countries face and the cost and infrastructural requirements generally related to both bidding for and hosting of the same (Pillay and Bass, 2008; Pillay et al, 2009). Most developing countries need new facilities in order to host the events, as opposed to the developed countries that have these facilities in place and the events can be a risky and irrational development plan for developing countries (Bray, 2011; Matheson and Baade, 2004). Likewise Cornelissen (2004a) advised that developing countries should adopt a gradualist approach to such events aiming for so called 'second-order' events or lower ranked events such as the Rugby World Cup, Cricket World Cup or continental single events and progressively advance to larger events. It is against this setting that this thesis seeks to examine the possibilities and challenges associated with the hosting of major sports events in developing countries in Africa, with a specific focus on Kenya.

### Aim and Objectives of the study

The overall aim of this thesis is to examine the possibilities and challenges associated with hosting or staging major sports events in developing countries in Africa, with a specific focus on Kenya. This thesis explores the proposition that Kenya needs to draw from the experiences of South Africa if it aspires to host major sports event.

The specific objectives of the thesis are; First, to outline the relationship between African countries and the global sports system, with a specific focus on Kenya and South Africa, through a critical analysis of how major sports events fit within the global sports system and the relationship between the global sports system and actors and agencies in national sports bodies in Kenya and South Africa. Second, to critically assess the understandings of key actors and agencies in Kenya with respect to the possibilities and challenges of hosting major sports events, in comparison with actors and agencies in South Africa. This will be realised through interviewing the key actors of sport in both Kenya and South Africa, and identifying their relationships with the key agencies in their respective governments. Third, to investigate the knowledge transfer process with respect to the hosting of major sports events, by examining how and where key sports actors in Kenya and South Africa seek to obtain information about bidding and hosting of major sports events

# **Rationale of the study**

The main justification for the thesis is that the Kenyan and South African governments are in the process of signing an agreement to co-operate in the field of sport and recreation and that this thesis is rooted specifically in making sense of this agreement vis-a-vis major sports events. The thesis also aimed to extend previous studies on the hosting of major sports events in developing countries and investigate the possibilities and challenges of hosting major sports events in Kenya. As mentioned earlier, many major sports events have been hosted in industrialised and developed countries, consequently, much research and many studies on their process and impacts have been based on these countries (Cornelissen, 2004a). With the growing interest by developing countries to join in the competition for hosting these events, it has become necessary that the processes, experiences, impacts and challenges of hosting these events by these countries are examined, an issue that is largely limited or absent to date. Most of the studies have attempted to host these events though they have been unsuccessful.

This thesis provides a novel contribution to the growing body of major sports events in developing countries by examining Kenya in comparison to South Africa with regards to hosting of major sports events with the implications being potentially relevant to other African and developing countries. Consequently, in order to lay the basis for developing a framework for hosting major sports events in Kenya, the study has to examine the challenges facing sports and hosting of major sports events in developing countries including Africa, due to limited research on these areas (Cornelissen, 2004b). Previous research as has already been cited into hosting of major sports events focussed almost exclusively on developed countries. The little that has been done in Africa focuses mainly on South Africa. This implies an incomplete picture of how countries in Africa, have been competing to host international sporting events. The second most important contribution of this study is that it provides a critical assessment of the key actors and agencies in both Kenya and South Africa with respect to the possibilities and challenges of hosting major sports events. The thesis also examines the challenges that countries in Africa face as they bid to host major sports events. To the best knowledge of the researcher, no prior study on the hosting of major sports events in specific countries of Africa apart from South Africa is available. Another crucial contribution to this study is the examination of the relationship of African national sports federations with the global sports system. This is important for assessing the way bids are awarded and to evaluate the reasons why most African countries and other developing countries have not been successful in winning bids to host major sports events. Finally, but not least, an important contribution to this study is the examination of the knowledge transfer process suitable for developing countries in Africa. While there have been studies on the impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa, this will be the first of its kind using South Africa to gather some positive experience that can be shared with other developing countries in Africa who aspire to host major sports events in the near future. This shows that knowledge transfer and developing countries working together and learning from each other are very crucial in changing the global system.

Kenya was chosen foremost because the researcher is from Kenya and has also been a sports administrator in the Ministry of Sports; this therefore enables relatively easy accessibility to key actors of sports and of archival documents and information with regards to sports and major sports events in the country. Due to her position as an insider researcher, she would also be able to verify the information given due to her experience and knowledge about sports in the country. Secondly, the country is an important sporting nation that came to limelight due to its prominence in middle and long distance athletics hence its importance on sports in Africa. Therefore in some sports, primarily athletics, Kenya is regarded as one of the dominant sporting nations and an example to other African and developing countries. Thirdly, according to 2013 World Bank report, the country is ranked 24th out of the 48 researched countries in the African continent, with an average per capita income of US\$ 840 and therefore this makes it possibly an economic average developing country as it is neither amongst the richest or the poorest. Fourthly, the country's high altitude training centres for endurance training is recognised worldwide and most international athletes who want to excel in track and field come to the country to use it, therefore an example to other African countries. Lastly, the country has aspirations of hosting major sports events as was proclaimed by the former Prime Minister of the country, Raila Odinga, during the 2012 London Olympics that the country was hoping to host the 2024 Olympics (Anon, 2012) so this gives the justification of establishing why they are not managing to do so.

#### The use of South Africa in the study

South Africa has been used for comparative purposes in this thesis mainly because the country and Kenya currently share bilateral relations and are in the final stages of updating the agreement to areas including sports, where both countries are to collaborate and share in their strengths. It is expected that the agreement will be in force by the end of 2015. In the area of sports, the two countries are to co-operate in the following areas: training and competition of athletes and teams; training and attachment of coaches; exchange of programmes and visits by sport science personnel and in the development of sport science; training, exchange and attachment programmes in areas of coach education, curriculum development, sport education, sport management and facility development and management; the exchange in technology, infrastructure and programmes in the development of information and research in the field of sport; and any other field and subjects deemed fit and necessary. This agreement could be very beneficial to Kenya in terms of bidding and hosting of major sports events since South Africa has a fully functional division of major events that also coordinates and manages government's support services for hosting identified major events in country (SRSA, 2013). It can help Kenya in setting up such a division, training and exchange programmes for the personnel of the division, and the requirements needed for the division to be functional. So what else would Kenya and other developing countries learn from South Africa apart from the experience earlier mentioned? Three things stand out. Firstly, it is the only country in Africa that has been successful in hosting major sports events and has positively used these events in various ways.

For example, after the apartheid era, the 1995 Rugby World Cup was used to bring its people together and forge a common national identity. More recently, the 2006 FIFA World Cup bid was externally used to showcase the country's peaceful democratic transition and to pacify international concerns over possible political instability in the post-Mandela era, while the (successful) 2010 FIFA World Cup bid was used to campaign for the country's re-integration into the world sports system after being excluded for the better part of the twentieth century (Cornelissen, 2004a; Cornelissen 2010).

Secondly, South Africa is also the only country that has a well-developed policy regarding the hosting of international sporting events in Africa and a clearly defined system and structures for hosting these events. The country has a division within the Ministry of Sports and Recreation that coordinates and manages governmental support services for hosting identified major international sporting events and also markets the country as a sought-after sports tourist destination by hosting hospitality centres at identified major international sporting events (SRSA, 2013). Thirdly, it has been instructive to use South Africa as a comparative case in terms of outlining the relationship between other African countries and the global sports system since the country has successfully hosted a number of major sports events and has more interactions with the GSS, hence it would be in a better position to give their opinion on the GSS.

### **Structure of the Thesis**

The thesis is organised as follows. Chapter 2 critically reviews major sports events and distinguishes between the different orders (categories) of major sports. The chapter discusses the global sports system and examines why countries vigorously compete to host these events. The chapter thereafter examines the linkage between sports events and development. Chapter 3 examines the meaning of development and analyses different theories of social development. The chapter thereafter examines the linkage of these theories with sports events. The focus of chapter 4 is the research design process of the thesis. The research philosophy adopted is critical realist, which is explained using Archer's (1995) model (Figure 1.1 below) on the relationship between structure and agency to discuss the relationship between the Global Sports System (Structure) and the African countries (Agents).

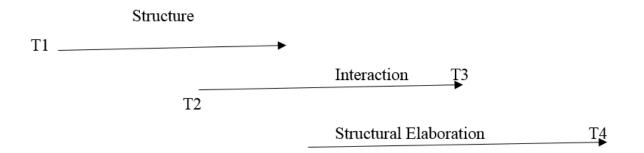


Figure 1.1: The Morphogenetic sequence of the relationship between structure and agency (Source: Archer, 1995)

The GSS has pre-existing structures that have developed over time and have created constraints and controls over the developing countries. These structures (T1) are the rules of the GSS, their organizational culture, their perception of the developing countries and how they treat these countries. These countries that are agents of the GSS when it comes to development of sports in their respective countries including hosting of major sports events, have to find ways of overcoming the structures that are manageable (prohibitive requirements of hosting major sports events). They also have to find ways of negotiating with the GSS on those that are not manageable (discriminative treatment and negative perception of the developing countries). Through the interaction process (T2), they can either succeed or fail. Achieving the desired outcome (T3) does not always come easily due to the resistance of the dominant group. Sometimes the interaction process does not also achieve all the desired outcome. If the interaction process is effective, then the transformation of the existent structures and other new social possibilities will take place before the structural elaboration stage (T4).

The chapter also provides a detailed explanation of the data collection process that took place and data analysis process. The research methodology conducted for this thesis involves a twostage qualitative approach, which consists of two similar phases. The first phase of stage one involves analysis of archival data, collection of secondary data and literature review, while the second phase of stage one consists of expert interviews. Stage two followed on from the analysis of stage one data, enabling clarification of the initial findings of stage one and the collection of further primary data through semi-structured interviews. This chapter also reports on the limitations and challenges faced during the research process.

Chapter 5 focusses on the case of Kenya to examine the capability of developing countries with regards to hosting international major sport events. The research process involved examining among other things; the socio-economic status of the country, investment in sports activities (sport and other related infrastructure, equipment, grass roots sport, elite sport, and training), experience in hosting of international sports events (benefits and challenges faced), and earnings from sports (events, taxes from sports earnings). The chapter also discusses the history of Kenya from the pre-colonial and the colonial times and how the country developed until it got its independence to its current status. More importantly, the history of sports from the pre-colonial times is discussed and how they developed through to the present. Sport in the country has been beneficial in terms of international recognition and economic rewards; being a source of livelihood for several people, and developing some urban centres and most notably Eldoret town (Lebo, 2007). Sport has also helped in solving conflicts amongst Kenyans especially during the infamous 2007/8 post-election violence in the country (Rintaugu, et al, 2008).

The original findings of this thesis are presented in two chapters (6 and 7) based on the documentation analysis and interviews conducted in Kenya - Ministry of Sports, Kenya and the Kenyan Sports Federations - and South Africa - South African Ministry of Sport, SAFA and SASCOC. Lastly, chapter 8, the conclusion, outlines the findings of the thesis, its limitations, recommendations and future research areas.

# Chapter 2

# SPORTS EVENTS AND DEVELOPMENT

# Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a detailed critical review of major sports events and their various classifications. This is followed by an exploration of the global sports system, how the global sports system works and the bidding for major sports events. The chapter thereafter follows by the examination of why countries compete to host major sports events and concludes with consideration of how sports events are used for development.

# **Sports Events**

Getz (2008:42) describes sports events as 'the actual games or meets during which sport activity occurs'. Similarly, Bowdin et al (2006) described sports events as events where sporting prowess is tested through competition and added that it was the most enduring of human activities. Sport is practised from the grass roots level in an amateur form to elite level of national and international competitions and international professional club level. This therefore brings in the interest of the public and media that grants them the accommodation under the label of major, hallmark and mega-events (Bowdin et al, 2011; Gellweiler, 2011). The public interest in any sport event depends on its size and stature. The bigger sports events involve a large number of participating countries and competitors, which attracts commercial and media interest due to the opportunity of business that they offer (Roche, 2000; Horne and Manzenreiter, 2006). Figure 2.1 below shows the levels of sports participation from the community level to the international level. More details of various sports events and their features are discussed later in the chapter.

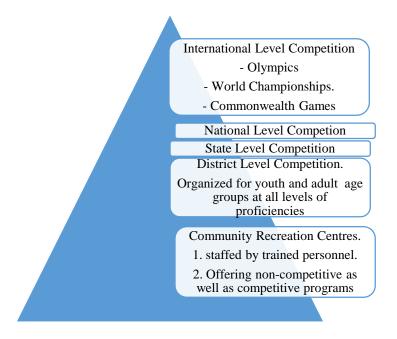


Figure 2.1: Bloomfield's Recreational Pyramid (Source: Bloomfield, 1973:49).

The above model shows how sport competitions are classified from community level to district, then to state level and thereafter to national and finally to international level such as the Olympic Games which have been classified as sports mega-events (Getz, 2008). At the top of the diagram is the international level of sports competitions (Olympics, World Championships, and Commonwealth Games); this is where most qualified national elite competitors represent their countries. The Olympics, Commonwealth Games and most World Championships require athletes to have certain qualifying records in order to compete in those championships. A national championship is where the winners at the regional level compete. Competitive sports do start from community, school and local sport and culminate in elite sport, which includes national sport leagues, national championships and international sports events (Stewart et al, 2004). Stewart et al (2004) also add that it is at the community recreation centres, schools and local sports clubs that are normally the starting point where amateurs learn how to play a particular sport.

Events can be termed as special when they describe specific rituals, presentations, performances or celebrations that are consciously planned and created to mark special occasions and/or to achieve particular social, cultural or corporate goals and objectives (Bowdin et al, 2006). Getz (2005:4) defined special events as 'a one-time event outside an organization's normal routines or outside participants' normal daily lives'. Getz (2005) further

stresses that the principle applying to all special events is that they are temporal and unique stemming from the combination of management programme, setting and people. This means that every event is very different from the other and their management depends on the type of event, time and the people involved, hence, the approach used in organizing the event will not be the same as the next. There are several types of special events but this study will be limited to sports events.

Sports events can be classified further according to frequency and location. In this respect, there are the tennis championships or the London Marathon that takes place at Wimbledon and London respectively every year or the Union of European Football Associations (UEFA) Champions League that is staged annually throughout Europe. There are also other events such as the FIFA World Cup, the Commonwealth Games and the Olympic Games that take place every four years in a different country, highlighting the sense of uniqueness. These events are also one-time and unique as different countries host them at any given time and it takes a very long time for a country to host it again. Hence the uniqueness of most of these events as different countries blend in their cultures to the events. For instance, London first hosted the Olympics in 1908, the next time it hosted the event again was in 1948 and it took the city another 64 years to host its third Olympics in 2012. Additionally, sport events can be distinguished as multi-site and single-site (Cornelissen, 2004a). Cornelissen (2004a) explains that the former refers to sports gatherings that involve more than one location in a country or a number of countries and gives examples of events such as the Cricket, Rugby and Football World Cups, while the Commonwealth and Olympic Games are examples of a single siteevent, which are usually linked to one city or urban region. The following section will explore the classification of these international sports events.

#### **Classification of International Sports Events**

Tens of thousands of sports events take place yearly all over the world from local community or school tournaments to the largest international sports events such as, FIFA Men's Football World Cup and the Summer Olympics and Paralympic Games. Thus this study will concentrate on international sports events that are classified under different categories. According to Cornelissen (2004a: 40) international sports events can be differentiated by their 'size, scope and appeal'. Cornelissen (2004a) goes on to categorize them as follows: First order events are prestigious and have global interest and scope and their examples are the Olympic and Paralympic Games, and the FIFA Football World Cup. The second order events are also

international in nature though the extent and level of participation is less. Examples include the Commonwealth Games, Rugby and Cricket World Cups. Third order- events involve several countries, but are much more limited in global interest and scope. Their examples include regional or continental tournaments such as the Africa Cup of Nations, All African Games, Pan American Games, American Cup or the Asia Games. The Hockey World Cup can be included in this category as it has a much smaller media coverage and participation. The following sub - section will start defining several sports events and examining their features and thereafter examine various classifications of sport events.

### Sports Mega-events

There are several classifications of international sports events, though, most scholars and researchers have different names for the highest order where some call it sports mega-events (Horne and Manzenreiter, 2006; Roche, 2000; Cornelissen 2004a; DCMS /SU, 2002; New Zealand Major Events, 2012) and others major sports events (Parent and Swan, 2013; Getz, 2005; Gratton, et al, 2000; Mules and Faulkner, 1996; Jago and Shaw, 1998), they all agree that the highest or the top most group consist of the Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup.

Sports mega-events are the largest sports events which target the global market and the Summer Olympic and Paralympic Games and the FIFA Men's World Cup are the best examples. According to Horne and Manzenreiter (2006:2), the most used definition of sports mega-events is that of Roche (2000:1) that describes sports mega-events as 'large scale cultural (including commercial and sporting) events, which have a dramatic character, mass popular appeal and international significance'. Roche (2000) noted that mega-events are multi-national, cosmopolitan, supranational and global. Similarly Roberts (2004) distinguishes that certain sport events can be termed as 'mega' when they are discontinuous, special, international and simply big in composition. He explains that mega-events have the capability to convey promotional communications to billions of people. In addition, Cornelissen (2008) refers to sports mega-event as short term, one off or recurring international sport competitions hosted on a rotational basis by different cities or nations, which are of such scale, level of media coverage and spectatorship that they may be regarded as global affairs. Both Roberts' and Cornelissen's definitions are sports specific and recognize the duration of the events but Cornelissen's definition goes further to show that different cities and nations host these events meaning that the locations of these events keep changing and no country has the monopoly of continually hosting these events. Barget and Gouguet's (2007) characterisation of sports megaevent is able to give a clearer picture of what exactly is a 'sports mega-event', since it is able to give an estimation of the number of participants that the event should have; a minimum of a billion viewers globally as total audience and a minimum of 30 countries broadcasting the events as opposed to the above definitions. Getz (1997:6) goes further to give an estimation of what can be quantified as sports mega-events by noting that 'their volume should exceed 1 million visits, their capital cost should be at least \$500 million and their reputation should be that of a 'must see' event'.

From the above definitions, we can pick out the following as the features of sports mega-events: they are international in nature, attract a huge number of delegations and international media, and provide benefits and legacies to the host region (Parent and Swan, 2013). Similarly, Hall (1997), recognised that mega-events are events targeted at the international market, attract large delegations in terms of attendance, large public financial involvement, political effects, large extent of television coverage, construction of facilities, and impact on economic and social atmosphere of the host community. Correspondingly, Horne et al (2012) noted the following dominant characteristics of sports mega-events: large scale; dramatic character; mass popular appeal; global media attention; international significance; and they produce significant consequences for the host (Horne and Manzenreiter, 2006; Tomlinson and Young, 2006). It is in sports mega-events that there are activities other than sporting included in the program like cultural events and festivals (Getz, 1997). For instance, events like the World Cup, Commonwealth and Olympic Games have opening and closing ceremonies where the host city showcase their national culture and other activities associated with the country. This is done to distinguish these events especially the Olympic Games as they are more than the excitement of a sport event but a festival of celebration.

In sum, sports mega-events are short-term, recurring large scale sporting events that have mass popular appeal and large media coverage and require huge sums of public and private funds to host them and are expected to have a major impact on the hosting community or region in terms of benefits and legacies. The main characteristic is that for a short time during these sporting events, they are the centre of media attention (Curi et al, 2011). This indicates how important the events are that everything else internationally 'stops' and it is these events (mainly the Olympics and FIFA World Cup) that captures the headlines and attention globally. Thus, their organization involves the collective effort and collaboration of international non-governmental

organizations (such as the IOC or FIFA) and national governments and their associated bodies including other actors like sponsors, and volunteers for its successful organization.

### Hallmark events

These are events that are normally identified with a town, city or region that hosts them. Allen et al (2002) described hallmark sports events as events that recur in a particular place and therefore the location and the event become inseparable. These are events that are repeatedly organised frequently in one location and hence identified with that city or region. Examples include the annual Wimbledon Tennis Championships, the London Marathon, and Grand Prix Formula One in Monaco. Getz (2005) also defined hallmark events as events that hold such significance of tradition, attractiveness, quality or publicity to the host venue, community, or destination. Ritchie (1984) described hallmark events as major one-time or recurring events of limited duration, developed primarily to enhance the awareness, appeal and profitability of a tourism destination in the short and/or long term. Such events rely on their uniqueness, status, or timely significance to create interest and attract attention (Ritchie, 1984:2). This explains the importance such events (London Marathon, Wimbledon Tennis Championship, and Football Association Cup Finals) bring to a city or region that hosts them annually, especially when the event is associated with the place and the traditions associated with the events. These events are able to differentiate (brand) themselves in a way that they can be able to attract and retain participants and sports tourists to their events. In addition, Getz (2008) explained that hallmark events cannot exist independently of their host community. Parent and Swan (2013) noted that these events are entrenched within a community and have in turn added to themselves an advantage of being staged annually within that particular community and hence instilled tradition and quality. Looking at the above definitions and examples, we can deduce that hallmark sports events are mostly single sports events and hosted annually in a particular location (tied to) and have certain features like an international profile, permanent location, regularly hosted, tradition and quality associated with them; for example, strawberries and cream and competitors' white attires are the traditions associated with the Wimbledon Tennis Championship.

#### Major Sports Events

Emery (2002) defined major sports events as sports events that receive national and international media coverage as a result of the calibre of competition and attract a minimum of 1000 spectators. According to Emery, these events range from annual single sport competitions to the cyclical multi-sport, national and international competitions like the World Cups, European Championships, Olympic and Commonwealth Games. On the other hand, Masterman (2004) defined major sports events as one time or recurring events lasting from one to several days and whose size and scale can differ enormously and gave examples of one-off events according to this definition to be Summer and Winter Olympics, FIFA World Cup, UEFA Championship, while the recurring events examples are the four grand slam tennis competitions, Football Association Cup finals, and Formula One motor racing Grand Prix. Emery's definition apart from the aspect of a minimum of 1000 spectators is not any different from that sports mega-event including the examples of the sports events that are mostly identified as sports mega-events (Olympics and FIFA Men's World Cup). The same also applies to Masterman's examples of major sports events where he includes the big two sports events considered to be 'mega'. Major sports events that are multi-sport are both participant and spectator led in that since they are large events they tend to attract many participants internationally and the same applies to the spectators who want to be part of them. Several scholars (Parent and Swan, 2013; Getz, 2005; Gratton, et al, 2000; Mules and Faulkner, 1996; Jago and Shaw, 1998) have placed major sports events as the highest level of sports events with mega, hallmark and large-scale events as its subscale/ branches. This is useful because all these events are all international in nature, attract international media and share in same feature though at different scale. This thesis will draw from Parent and Swan (2013) definition of major sporting events to include hallmark (events tied to one place), and large scale sporting events (Commonwealth Games, Continental Games or Other World Cups and World Championships). Parent and Swan (2013) noted that though Hallmark and large - scale sports events do not attract as many spectators as the Olympics or FIFA World Cup, they do attract an equal or greater number of participants. They are also international in nature and attract international media coverage.

### The Global Sports System

The Global Sports System refers to the world sports bodies that have global remits and are not answerable to any national government or governments (Walters, 1999). Their examples are FIFA, IOC, and International Cricket Council (ICC) amongst others. According to Sugden and Tomlinson (1998), these world sports bodies, though they can be equated with other international bodies like United Nations (UN) and European Union (EU), are examples of International Non-Governmental Organizations (INGOs) which are regional or global in scope and are controlled through conferred authority of their constituent member nations or states. Global sports are linked to the opening up of new markets and the commodification of cultures across the globe.

The developed countries control the economic, technological, political and knowledge, and the levels of power of global sports (Maguire, 2011). Modern sports were introduced to the developing countries during the colonial era by the developed countries like Britain, France, Germany, and Portugal when they inhabited these countries (Maguire, 2011; Horne and Manzenreiter, 2002; Bale and Sang, 1996) and most of the international sports bodies are headquartered in the West (Europe). When the colonialist conquered the developing countries, they found them with their traditional sports which, according to them, were not civilised and therefore forced them to leave them and adapt those of the colonialists. The British, who mostly brought the modern sports to the developing countries, considered themselves the established group, while they looked at their subjects as the outsiders and thus status, prestige, power, and control underpin the established - outsider relations (Maguire, 2011) The position of the developing countries in the global sports system has been of subordinate status and therefore it has never been of any threat to global sports power (Sugden and Tomlinson, 1998). However, in FIFA, the teamwork of the African, Asian, and the South American constituents brought the end of the Eurocentric era of the Rous regime and helped Havelange take control of the realm of FIFA (Darby, 2002). This was occasioned by the continued frustration of the FIFA's constituents from Africa, Asia and South America, who felt that they were denied equal representation at the federation's executive committee, equitable distribution of World Cup slots and lack of democracy in the running of federation affairs (Darby, 2003). What happened in FIFA during that time confirms the sentiments of Maguire when he stated that when the balance of power shifts in the direction of the outsiders, the former outsiders tend to retaliate against the former established group (Maguire, 2011: 1016).

In the sports events scene, the African countries are discriminated against and the hosting requirements of major sports events do not also favour them as most of them do not have the required sports facilities in place at the bidding stage when compared to the developed countries. This therefore works against them (Cornelissen, 2004b; Matheson and Baade, 2004) and makes hosting of these events more costly to these countries as bulk of the funds that would be used hosting of the events, are used for development of sports facilities. The global media who are a key aspect of the pre-existing structures, also report about the developing countries negatively whenever they win the right to host these events. It is for this reason that during the bidding for both 2006 and 2010 FIFA World Cup, the African countries in the bid continued to use the 'African discourse' in framing their bids (Black, 2007).

The hosting of major sporting events involves several parties and they all have specific roles that they play in the eventual organization of the event (Schatzmann, 2014). The international federations including FIFA and IOC are the events owners who decides on who are to host their events. These IFs are responsible for operational functions, exploitation of rights of their events and financing in some cases (IOC, 2013; FIFA, 2014). The national federations are the hosts of the sports events in their respective countries and the link (agents) between the international sports federation and their national government. The national or local governments mainly have responsibility for administrative support and government guarantees which are attached to the bidding and hosting agreements. This also includes underwriting the event expenses, providing security, visa facilitation and all the required protocols. There are also the corporate companies who are sponsors in various areas of the events. The organisation of major sport events similarly involves the participation of millions as participants, spectators and technical officials. This therefore, means that several roles have to be fulfilled before the bidding stage to the actual hosting of the event and after. The global sports system is composed of a range of actors with a set of agendas, and the actors include the transnational corporations, international sports federations and other sports lobby groups, and host authorities, and policy - makers from different levels of governance. It is this group interest that determines the processes by which the major sports events take shape and the longer- term consequences such events bear for the wider society (Cornelissen, 2007). The politics played by this group also determines who gets to host these events depending on what the group will gain (Cornelissen, 2004b; Swart and Bob, 2004).

### **Bidding for major sports events**

Since the 1984 Los Angeles Olympics success, where the city gained profits of over US\$200 million and placed a solid economic foundation for a support system for athletes in the US (Horne and Whannel, 2012), cities and countries competed forcefully for the right to host major sports events. The 1984 Los Angeles Olympics was successful without government funding yet it made a great deal of commercial success (Coalter, 2007). There have been other reasons for the competition to host these events by both the developed and the developing countries. Cornelissen (2010) cited the search for alternative developmental opportunities by national governments in the increasingly globalized and competitive world; and new symbolic and political values attached to leisure and consumption as some of the reasons for the high demand for hosting the events.

Hosting of major sports events requires competitive bidding from interested cities and nations and this is normally done by the respective national sport federations of the event owner if the event is a single sport event or the National Olympic Committee (NOC) of the country if it is a multi-sport event. This is due to the large number of countries wishing to host these events yet the events are very few and take some years before another one can be hosted. The cost for bidding for these events are normally exorbitant and are mostly taken care of by the tax payer's money due to the likely profits that are usually expected to be of benefit to the whole nation (Pomfret, et al. 2009; Swart and Bob, 2004). The process of seeking to host major sports events – planning, and bidding to the selection of the winning bid amongst other competitors, is long and continuous (Rowe, 2012). Rowe further added that the gap between original bid planning, nomination, determination and eventuation is a decade at minimum, and overlaps with other bid cycles in an unending rhythm of sports mega-events development (Rowe, 2012:287).

Countries and nations interested in hosting major sports events have to meet the requirements of the events owners before they can bid to host their events. Most IFs have different requirements for their events. For instance, FIFA requires bidding countries to have between 8 to 12 'international standard' stadia with a seating capacity of between 40,000 and 60,000 people and the opening ceremony and finals to be held in a stadium with a seating capacity of 80,000 people, good infrastructure, and adequate five star accommodation for officials of the global sports bodies, amongst other requirements (FIFA, 2014; Matheson and Baade, 2004). Whereas, the IOC and CGF requires city bidding for their events to have the various types of

infrastructure for multi sports activities in one city, including infrastructure developments and operating costs amongst other requirements (IOC, 2013; Matheson and Baade, 2004).

Since the hosting of the 1988 Seoul Olympics in South Korea, a number of developing countries have hosted major sports events. In Africa, there have been bids to hosts these events and most of them have been unsuccessful apart from the 2010 FIFA World Cup bid that was awarded and hosted by South Africa. Both Commonwealth and Olympic Games have never been hosted in Africa. Cape Town and Cairo bid unsuccessfully to host the 2004 and 2008 Olympics respectively while Abuja also lost the bid to host the 2014 Commonwealth Games. Cornelissen (2004a) suggests that there are a number of issues that hinders the developing countries especially African countries from hosting major sports events: the way the bidding contests are conducted and decided upon is not favourable for developing countries, and the incapacity of African countries and lack of appropriate sports infrastructures to host these events poses an impediment for these countries to host major sports events. These requirements are out of reach for most developing countries as they do not usually have these infrastructures in place at the time of bidding compared to the developed countries (Matheson and Baade, 2004; Cornelissen, 2004a, 2004b). Hence, the developed countries having an advantage over them at the bidding stage.

### Why are countries competing to host major international sporting events?

The journey to ultimate hosting of some major sports events is costly, complex, and long and can take up to 30 years or more before eventual hosting of the events (Rowe, 2012). Major sports events last for a short and intense duration but draw massive publicity for hosts unlike no other event (Cornelissen, 2007). Subsequently, many countries try as many times as they can just to host these events, hence they are those who succeed while others give up. The city of Manchester bid twice unsuccessfully for the 1996 and 2000 Olympics and decided to concentrate on a lower order event (Commonwealth Games) and eventually hosted the 2002 Commonwealth Games. Whereas, Istanbul is an example of cities and nations that have bid unsuccessfully several times to host the Olympic Games, but have not given up and continue to bid for the same event. The capital of Turkey has tried six times consecutively without success to host the Olympics of the following editions: 2000, 2004, 2008, 2012, 2016 and 2020 and it is not currently known if it will vie for the 2024 Olympics. Istanbul's example shows how far countries will go just to host these events and the immediate question that comes up is why do countries forcefully compete to host these events?

Horne and Manzenreiter (2006) point out the following three reasons for the expansion and magnetism of major sports events for both the developed and developing countries globally. Firstly, the extraordinary developments in the technology of mass communication brought about the outpouring global audience for major sports events like Olympics and the FIFA World Cup. There was always an increase in TV audience with every successive event (Olympics or FIFA World Cup) and many media companies around the world compete to buy the rights directly from the event owners in order to have monopoly to broadcast these games in certain areas without going through other media companies. Secondly, the two largest major sports events formed a sport-media-business alliance with their sponsors which transformed sport professionally by ensuring that the events were maximally sponsored and marketed. These two bodies have few partners whom they have given exclusive rights to sponsor, broadcast and market their events. Lastly, the events have been used by countries as valuable promotional opportunities for the host nation. Countries use these events to develop their countries and also market their cities as world class or a tourist destination. These issues have been instrumental for countries vying to host these major sporting events in order to market themselves globally as the events provides an opportunity for that to happen. Likewise, Varrel and Kennedy (2011) suggested that successful hosting of these events offers the hosts global exposure, prestige and legitimacy which is especially desired by developing countries who are always eager to prove that they are now major players in the international stage.

The assumed extraordinary economic benefits to the host city / nation make the organizers invest a lot of public money with the belief that they will reap much more (Horne 2007, Horne et al, 2012). Though many countries have hosted major sporting events like the Olympics and FIFA men's World Cup, not all of these countries have been able to 'reap' economically from them (Swart, 2005). There are examples of the 1976 Montreal Olympic Games which took three decades for the hosts to pay the debt incurred for hosting the Olympic (Cornelissen et al, 2011) and the 2002 World Cup hosted by both Japan and South Korea that left a negative financial legacy (Horne, 2008). Montreal's huge debt was as a result of building of massive sport facilities that could not be sustained or used after the end of the event (Bob and Swart, 2010). Coakley and Souza (2013) cautioned that legacies and positive developmental outcomes do not occur automatically for the hosts and for the benefits to be equitable and sustainable, they must be planned, funded, organized, and strategically connected with existing structures and the everyday lives of the local residence.

The last three decades have witnessed cities and nations competing vigorously for the right to host major international sports events including the Olympic Games and the FIFA Men's Football World Cup (Barclay, 2009). Horne (2007) explained that the benefits and legacies of these events, whether social, cultural, environmental, political, economic or sporting are the greatest attraction but also form part of the 'known unknowns', of sports mega-events. It is the mysterious expectations from hosting these events that lures many countries to the major sports events and this is especially for the developing countries (Black and van der Westhuizen, 2004). One of the core themes of this study is to examine why countries like Kenya bid to host major sports events. By examining the reasons why cities and countries forcefully compete to host these events and the benefits that Kenya can hope to achieve in the event of hosting one of the major sporting events. The reasons why countries compete actively for these events will briefly be discussed under the following headings: economic benefits; developmental; identity signalling; and enhancing sports development below:

#### Economic benefits

Major sports events were historically sought after for their tourism and economic impacts (Getz, 1997) and according to Cornelissen (2004b) there is a strong belief that a major change in geography of international capitalism over the last 30 years has relegated economic activities, such as manufacturing, of less importance in wealth creation and made the change to new growth areas such as tourism, events or sports. Hiller (1989) named the positive impact of employment, additional spending in the host community, visiting tourists and spectators, the show case effect of the media as some of the main reasons for hosting the major sporting events. The publicity for the games through global TV broadcasting has enticed most cities and nations to compete for the privilege in hosting the games in order to signal important milestones and market their country and products. Horne et al. (2012) concurred that in the age of global television and the ability of major sports events to shape and project the image of host city or country both domestically and globally makes them highly attractive instruments for political and economic elites. The 1984 Los Angeles Olympics is a major example of a city that gained economically from hosting a major sport event with profits of over US\$200 million and placed a strong economic foundation for support system for athletes in the US (Horne and Whannel, 2012), and since then cities and countries globally have competed forcefully for the right to host major sports events, including the Olympic and Paralympic Games, the FIFA Men's Football World Cup Finals and the Commonwealth Games.

However, Andreff (2008) argued that the economic spill over of global sporting events is always a myth of sensational and publicized over evaluation done through methodological mistake or crude tricks. This is where other costs related to major sporting events, especially for mega projects like development and restoration of transport networks which are usually huge, are placed in the ministries concerned with transport budget to portray the low budget for hosting the major sports events (Getz, 1991). Due to the huge requirement for financing the major sports events, the budget cuts are normally effected on most public services in order to meet the hosting expenditure at the expense of the essential services (Horne, 2007; Getz, 1991).

Mules and Faulkner (1996) pointed out that the benefit of hosting these events is not always clear to the hosts. This is because the forecasted benefits are not always the same with the outcome. Andreff (2008) gave an example of the 2007 Rugby World Cup in France where it was predicted that the event would earn the country over four billion Euros in ex ante studies whereas the ex post studies revealed that the event only realised 1.4 billion Euros. Similarly, Horne and Manzenreiter (2004) gave an example of the 2002 FIFA World Cup hosted by Japan and South Korea where it was predicted that an additional one million sports tourists would watch the events and this proved to be a wild over expectation. Mules and Faulkner (1996) further added that the public sector spends heavily (incur losses) in these events in order to benefit the local economy. This does not necessarily mean that it incurs losses but spends significant amount of money in development projects which will in turn boost the economy even if it takes time.

Most infrastructural investment in major sports events do not bring returns immediately. Likewise, Lenskyj (2002) argued that there are always concerns about the actual distribution of the social and economic benefits to the locals or the citizens of the country and Horne (2007) added that the major arguments are the actual 'beneficiaries' of these sports events. The beneficiaries of these events are not often the ordinary residents but the corporate companies sponsoring the event with the intention to market and sell their products and the infrastructural developers who get to develop the sport related infrastructures of these events. While also countering the benefits of these sports events, Malfas et al (2004), acknowledged that though there are various cases where major sports events have contributed positively to a city or country, they however cautioned that some of these benefits are short-term. Malfas et al (2004) also added that economic growth gained from such events can also make life more difficult for the low income earners due to increase in the prices of most commodities. In addition, Bob and

Swart (2010) stressed that the economic impacts, which are the main attraction of hosting major sporting events, are not always realised by most host countries and some of them end up being in debt long after the event and gave an example of the 1976 Montreal Olympics left the city of Montreal with a debt that took 30 years to be paid (Cornelissen et al, 2011). Likewise, Horne (2011) noted the over estimation of gains and the under estimation of expenditure in the hosting of major sport events.

Major sport events are increasingly viewed as part of a broader strategy for social and economic development and cannot therefore be judged on the basis of profit and loss (Gratton et al, 2005). This is because the results are not always seen or achieved immediately and there are some investment (long-term) which continue benefiting the people long after the end of the event. Developing countries, especially Africa, still have very poor transport and telecommunication infrastructure, and hosting these events especially the single sport events that are hosted in several cities within a country or region, helps in extending development to several parts of the country. Good road improvement assists in boosting business for the local communities whose products (agricultural) can be able to reach the market on time.

### **Developmental Benefits**

Developing countries have mainly used major sports events for development purpose as this is the best way of fast tracking (Cornelissen, 2009; Cornelissen and Swart, 2006; Black and Van Der Wethuizen, 2004; Malfas et al, 2004) and unlocking of public finances from higher levels of government (Black, 2008) for urban regeneration and development. Examples of events held in developing countries that have used sports events as a means for development are the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa 2010 Delhi Commonwealth Games, 2008 Beijing Olympic (Cornelissen and Swart, 2006; Black, 2008; Cornelissen, 2004, 2008, 2009; Hall 2006; Horne 2007, Horne et al, 2012; Darnell, 2012). Carey et al (2011) noted that infrastructure development, visitors spending and broader government policy as the other reasons why cities and nations compete to host major sports events. Governments have used these events to speed up some infrastructural development that were in the pipeline (Black and Van Der Wethuizen, 2004; Cornelissen and Swart, 2006). This view was also supported by Malfas et al (2004) who added that hosting of major sports events justifies new investment in transport infrastructure and other supporting infrastructures like hotel accommodation and other projects which would normally take long to be approved under normal circumstances. For instance, the Barcelona Olympics was used to redevelop the extensive waterfront development of Barcelona while the refurbishment of the Homebush area of Sidney was urbanized during the 2000 Olympics amongst other developments projects that were established with the name of these sporting events. In the African scene, there is the South African example where the government used the 2010 FIFA World Cup to hasten the following projects: Gautrain, a train commuter linkage between Johannesburg and Pretoria; Green Point Stadium; and the establishment of a new international airport in Durban (Cornelissen and Swart, 2006).

However, Essex and Chalkley (2003) argued that some of these investments would have taken place irrespective of the hosting of major international sports events. Equally, Searle (2002) argued that grand projects like the ones associated with the building of stadiums and state of the art facilities may become a drain of public resources if its use after the event is not properly planned. 'White Elephants' are notorious in the Olympic experience, constituting a burden for taxpayers in the period after the event. Sydney's 80,000-seat stadium in Australia and the indoor Super Dome arena, both built in the Olympic Park, operated with substantial losses after its opening and failed to attract events large enough to justify its capacity. In conclusion, these projects can only be considered beneficial if they genuinely serve the citizens of the hosting country but if it is only a few people gaining through these projects, then it is unfair that those who do not gain are the ones who pay heavily in taxes. Similarly, Horne (2011) also emphasized the importance of finding out who benefits from the major sporting events like the Olympic Games, those who are excluded and the scope of contestation. Varrel and Kennedy (2011) also pointed out the importance of weighing the compromises in developing countries where scarce resources might be better spent on providing basic goods and services.

Urban regeneration can only be beneficial if the projects invested are to be used for day to day activities other than for show case events since they are funded by public funds and if these projects are to be judged as successful then the quality of life in such neighbourhoods needs to be significantly improved which sometimes is not the case. The evaluation of the impact of the development programmes is an issue of importance which needs to be addressed in order to ascertain the actual effectiveness of the programmes at local level and how it can be used also at the country level.

### Identity Signalling

Major sports events especially the Olympics have been historically used as vehicles to articulate or signal important changes, messages, achievements and aspirations of the host country (Black, 2007). Black (2007) also added that during the bidding stages every competing city or country comes up with a captivating narrative of why they should be the ones to be awarded the right to host the events, and it is in this regard that the countries come up with narratives that are appealing to or strengthen their self-image. Black and van der Westhuizen (2004) observed that many emerging developing countries, with mixed or unsettled socio-cultural foundations, are the most users of major international sporting events for identity building and signalling goals. This has been made possible by the rising global coverage of these events and increasing audiences who continue growing each succeeding event, hence attracting the host cities and countries to project their desired images (Horne et al, 2012). The events draw the attention of the world to the host city or country and besides the athletic competitions. The host country also holds corresponding cultural events to showcase the culture and accomplishments of the country (Heslop et al, 2010).

Black (2008) explained that there were both external and internal dimensions to these aspirations for hosting major sports events, externally, these events have frequently been used to signal important changes or accomplishments by the hosts, for example, 'graduation' from developing country status (the Commonwealth Games in Malaysia 1998 and Delhi 2010) or processes of far reaching social change and international rehabilitation e.g., the 1995 Rugby World Cup in South Africa brought the post-apartheid -Rainbow nation together, while the Olympics in the former-Second World War axis powers in Rome 1960, Tokyo 1964 and Munich 1972 was used to signal their countries rehabilitation within the international community. They are also seen as opportunities to visibly re-position hosts as accomplished, cosmopolitan and business-friendly. Internally, they are seen as occasions for the promotion of a celebratory sense of national unity and pride, and for re-imaging communities and regions as positive, forward-looking and outwardly oriented. Black (2007) stated that host narratives should extend beyond material benefits and incorporate inspiring vision. South Africa is one country in Africa that has used major sports events in various ways, for example, after the end of apartheid era, the 1995 Rugby World Cup was used to bring its people together and forge a common national identity, the unsuccessful 2006 South Africa FIFA World Cup bid was externally used to showcase the country's peaceful democratic transition and to pacify international concerns over possible political instability in the post-Mandela era, while the 2010

FIFA World Cup bid was used to campaign for the country's re-integration into the world sports system after being excluded for the better part of twentieth century (Cornelissen, 2004b; Cornelissen, 2010). In addition, Swart and Bob (2004) added that the 2004 Cape Town bid was an instrument by the South African government for the development of a new South Africa. It was the first bid in the Olympic bidding history that endeared and sought to promote human development as the fourth pillar of Olympism and improve the lives of the populace of Cape Town. What would Kenya be using major sport events to 'signal' to the world?

However, Black (2007) cautioned that the narratives and identity signalling should be owned by all citizens because of the diverse cultures that can be in a country and cited the case of the 2010 Vancouver Winter Olympics where adoption of the Inuit (indigenous people of the arctic region of Canada) logo was not accepted by other Canadian citizens. The global media coverage of major sporting events can also 'damage' the image of a city or country if the event goes 'wrong' as was the case of the 2010 Delhi Commonwealth Games which was accompanied by a lot of problems and setbacks. The BBC reported that there were serious problems with the athletes' village and certain venues, while other setbacks included a collapsed pedestrian footbridge, ticketing confusion, poor crowds and big-name withdrawals (Anon, 2010). Though the event was considered a success by the event owners - CGF and the local organizing committee, the reports in the media gave a different story coupled with the boycott by top athletes. There is also the case of the 1972 Munich Olympics where the terrorists kidnapped and killed the Israeli team which marked the beginning of securitization of major sporting events (Cornelissen, 2011).

## Sports Participation Development

Countries have always used hosting of major international sports events to develop sports participation among the youth of their countries apart from other socio economic benefits. This is because no country wants to perform poorly when it is the one hosting these important events. Girginov and Hills (2008) note that the London 2012 bid was based on the promise of using the Olympic Games to promote sports participation across the whole of the UK. Similarly, Girginov and Hills (2009) add that the London 2012 bid aimed to have sustainable sports development which involved a process of construction and maintaining of opportunities for people to participate and excel in sport and life. However, according to Grix and Carmichael (2012) after being awarded the rights to host the London 2012 Olympics, the UK sport policy became more concerned with elite level sports to the detriment of sport for all and invested

£300 million for the period 2009 -2012 in preparation for the London Olympics. They argue that the sport policy was changing from the promotion of sport for all and devoting more energy and capital on elite sport. Though this might have been for preparation for the Olympics, as every hosting nation wishes to capitalise on the home ground to win more medals, this should not be done to the detriment of sports for all. Girginov and Hills (2008) added that promotion of sport development as Olympic legacy is often done to compensate for propensities of Olympic growth (infrastructural developments related to the hosting of the Olympics).

In sum, the benefits of hosting major international sports events should be viewed in terms of their long term benefits and not in terms of profit and loss account as some of the investments like transport and communication infrastructure, and sports facilities continue to be of benefit long after the events (Gratton et al, 2005) and these benefits take time before they can be felt. However, with the globalisation of the media, cities and countries hosting these events have to ensure that all goes well with their events as with any negative issues, the media can also transmit the issues globally and they end up soiling the 'good' image that the host intended to send to the world. DCMS/SU (2002: 66) caution that the explicit costs of hosting a mega event should be weighed very carefully against the perceived benefits when a bid is being considered especially given the high risks attached to them. They add that the message is not: 'don't invest in mega events'; it is rather: 'be clear that they appear to be more about celebration than economic returns'.

### **Sports Events and Social Development**

Many countries worldwide have aggressively pursued major sports events in recent years for development purposes amongst other reasons (Black, 2008; Cornelissen, 2004a, 2008, 2009; Hall, 2006; Horne 2007, Horne et al, 2012; Darnell, 2012). This can be explained by the increase of many governments aggressively supporting their national sports federations to lure major sporting events in their countries (Barclay, 2009; Cornelissen, 2009; Coalter, 2007) and some have strategically gone ahead and put in place hosting policies (McCloy, 2009; Leopkey et al, 2010; Richardson, 2012) to enable them identify early which sports events to fully support their hosting and then strategize on how to win the bid to host them. The importance of major sports events can also be explained by the massive commercialization that has been placed on it by the event owners (FIFA, IOC and other International sport federations) attracting many corporate bodies (sport related and non-sport corporate actors) who want to be linked with these events, hence the upshot in volumes of private capital that has been associated with these

events (Cornelissen, 2009; 2010). Coalter (2007) added that cities and nations started investing in major sports events, not as a right of citizenship but as a tool of economic and social regeneration. Coalter (2007) further added that many cities affected by the economic change attempted to consolidate the loss of commodity production with a new type of commodity that could be consumed by tourists and service industries. In addition Darnell (2012) suggested that striving to host major sports events has become apparently a form of sports for development where countries seek political and economic benefits.

Darnell (2012) differentiated the sports for development and legacies in major sports events, explaining that legacies of major sports events are only concerned with the increase in participation in sports amongst the youth and improved sports facilities and related infrastructures, whereas development through sports events goes beyond the sports event legacies and includes the broad social, political and economic development of a region or country where the sport event is hosted while using sports events as a means of social, political and health dimensions of development. Likewise, Coakley and Souza (2013) referred to sports related benefits (increased sport participation, the establishment of new sport programs, the creation and restoration of sport venues and infrastructure, and the formation of sport-related social capital that revitalizes communities) of sporting events as legacies, while they termed improved image of the host city and nation in the eyes of the rest of the world which is an image assumed to increase both investment and tourism as development through sports events.

Major projects proposals which are very important for development of cities or countries normally take years for approval due to government bureaucratic process. Consequently, some countries have realised that in order to fast track these projects, they have to bid to host major sports events then include the projects for them to be implemented fast. Some of the developmental projects that were fast-tracked as a result of the major sport events include: establishment of Gautrain, a train commuter linkage between Johannesburg and Pretoria; Green Point Stadium, and the establishment of a new international airport in Durban (2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa (Cornelissen and Swart, 2006). Beijing Olympics spent \$40 billion in Olympic related buildings and infrastructure which included a new expressway and ring roads, miles of rails and subway tracks and most importantly a new airport that is currently the largest in the world was built at the cost of \$2.2 billion (Short, 2008).

Preuss (2004) explains that hosting events could accelerate the infrastructural development by 10 years. This is because most cities and countries have to refurbish and or develop new sport

and related infrastructure to meet the supra national sports bodies (FIFA, IOC and other International Sport Federations) requirements if they have to win the rights to host these events. Some countries have also used the bidding process in order to hasten development process even though they did not win the right to host the Olympics or FIFA World cup. This indicates that there are no losers in the bidding contest as the mere bidding alone assures a city or country of international exposure, some infrastructural improvement, bidding experience amongst other benefits (Black, 2008). However most of the development projects especially the refurbished or new sports infrastructure in most of the host countries are not fully utilised after the end of the event despite the large amount of money spent on them and end up as white elephants (Coakley and Souza, 2012; Horne, 2007) yet the cost of building them and maintenance still need to be paid for (Short, 2008). Event owners like IOC now require upcoming / intentional hosts to not only construct sports facilities which can be used long after the end of event in order to reduce costs and prevent redundant construction of facilities (IOC, 2001) but to also come up with long term legacies or regenerative potential of projects in their bids (Cornelissen, 2009).

### Conclusion

The main aim of this chapter was to provide a detailed critical review of major sports events. The chapter was able to define various sports events and examine their classifications. It followed by critically analysing the structure of the global sports system and why cities and countries vigorously compete to host these events. The developing countries main reason for hosting major sport events is to enhance their development process. The infrastructure needed for hosting these events especially the transport and telecommunication network helps them in boosting their business and other trade. It is only through hosting these events that the development of these infrastructures can be boosted otherwise these projects would take ages to be started due to bureaucracy of government and other priority requirements like basic needs to be met first.

Major sport events are increasingly viewed as part of a broader strategy for tourism and development and cannot therefore be judged on the basis of profit and loss (Gratton et al, 2005). This is because the results are not always seen or achieved immediately and there are some investment (long-term) which continue benefiting the people long after the end of the event. Thus a major sports event might constitute an amazing idea at first glance but if its costs are

not properly discussed and problems with financing provisioned, its hosting might turn inappropriate when the population is faced with more pressing difficulties.

The relationship between developing countries and the global sports system is also important when it comes to hosting of major sports events. Cornelissen (2007) pointed out that underlying major sports events is a political economy composed of a range of actors with a set of agendas. These actors include transnational corporations, international sports federations and other sports lobby groups, and host authorities, and policy – makers from different levels of governance. The manner in which the interests of these actors overlap or diverge determines the processes by which tournaments take shape, and the longer- term consequences such events bear for the wider society.

The way in global sports organizations like FIFA and IOC are structured, and the way in which the bidding process are conducted and decided upon is not favourable to and is often prohibitive to the developing countries. This is because many developing countries are lacking in the capacity to make available the infrastructure that is needed for these events. The location of the global sports system in the developed countries also enables the developed countries to continue dominating the hosting of sporting events like the Commonwealth and the Olympic Games. The position of the developing countries in the global sports system has been of a subordinate status and this has affected the way their relationship with the developed countries who do not treat them as equal members of the IFs and hence deny them equal representation at the federation executive committee, equitable distribution of the World Cup slots and lack of democracy in the running of federation affairs (Darby, 2003). Having looked at various types of sports events, the next chapter will examine theories of social development and their relationship to sports events.

## Chapter 3

### THEORIES OF SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT AND SPORT

# Introduction

It is essential to develop a theoretical framework to assist in understanding why the actors and agencies interested in hosting major sports events believe they should include developmental benefits to the country within the planning process and as one of the main reasons for justifying the hosting major sporting events. The theoretical framework of this study draws on relevant aspects of three key theories of social development; Modernisation Theory, Dependency Theory, and Post-Colonial Theory (hereafter PCT) to construct a framework for understanding the relationships between sports events, social development and the use of sport for development.

The chapter commences with a discussion of the concept of development since it is the major reason why low/middle income countries vigorously compete for the hosting of major sports events: to help in developing their infrastructures or to show that they have reached the status of 'developed' country (Black, 2008; Cornelissen, 2004a). This will be followed by an examination of various development theories in terms of how they can help in understanding why countries like Kenya aspire to host major sports events, the possibilities of these countries hosting the same events and the broader concept of achieving the objectives of this research outlined in Chapter 1. There is no theory without limitations as there are some theories relating to one topic that may contradict or contest each other. Therefore, this research intends to offer critical analysis of three theories of development (Modernization, Dependency and PCT) and develop an appropriate theoretical framework to help achieve the research objectives.

## Development

There are various ideas about the concept of development and the following section will discuss different understandings and definitions of it. According to Kingsbury (2004), the idea of development was initially conceived out of concern for the people in the developing world who were living in abject poverty and it was aimed at raising their standard of living. Towards the start of decolonization, the colonialists felt that they should leave their subjects in a better position in order for these people to be self-reliant hence the emergence of 'development' discourse (Willis, 2005). By helping them improve their lives, the developed countries would

also benefit from them purchasing their products. On the other hand, Veltmeyer (2005: 91), observed that development, as it is known today, had its birth in US foreign policy and the Cold War of 1940s, where the US state department made sure that the newly independent states 'in the backward areas of the world' did not get attracted to the communist ideologies and end up siding with the former USSR. Similarly, Kingsbury (2004) also noted that though the developed countries had good intentions in the beginning, they later took advantage of the developing countries by persuading them to take sides on the two major ideological camps of the cold war era – the capitalists or the communists - in exchange for development assistance. Veltmeyer (2005) further added that, since the US were the major contributors of the World Bank and therefore dictated how the Overseas Development Assistance (ODA) could be utilised, most of the NGOs tended to serve as US agents of imperialism by promoting their values for economic and political interest. Though helping the newly independent countries in the developing world could be construed as a benevolent gesture on the part of the developed countries, there is a general consensus in relevant academic literature that the developed countries were trying to get the developing countries to progress as it was also for their developed countries' gain and to right the moral wrong of the exploitations that enriched and advanced the developed countries during their occupation period (Kingsbury, 2004).

Sumner and Tribe (2008) defined development as a process that involves changes in a variety of human activities as follows: economic; social; political; legal; and institutional structures; technology; the environment; religion; arts and culture. It is acknowledged that development is about change but Sumner and Tribe's (2008) definition does not elaborate whether the change is good or bad, positive or negative. Ogborn (2005) linked development to the concept of modernity, which he explained was a condition of being current, new, or up to date. Ogborn (2005) went on to explain that because of socio-economic dynamism, what is modern will change over time and what is considered modern at one location may not be the same in another context. It is always assumed that what is modern is good; however this might not be so as cultures are diverse and people have differing preferences. For instance, the current global warming has been as a result of the effects of modernization where emissions from industries, vehicles, and greenhouse gases have polluted the earth. According to Remenyi (2004:22), 'development is a process directed at outcomes encapsulating improved standards of living and greater capacity for self-reliance in economies that are technically more complex and more dependent on global integration than before'. Remenyi (2004) further explained that development was a process of growth towards self-reliance and contentment. Likewise

Cornelissen (2009), while acknowledging that development is a complex phenomenon and a highly contested concept, noted that the most accepted approach to development is the one that emphasizes the improvement of the social, cultural and economic quality of an individual's life. Both of Remenyi's and Cornelissen's understanding of development takes into consideration the general wellbeing of an individual in all aspects to signify development.

Since this thesis focuses on developing countries, it is worthwhile to explain what a Third World or Developing Country is. According to Rapley (1996), the term 'Third World' was originally meant for countries that were neither advanced capitalist (the First World) nor communist (the Second World). Third World later came to refer to all developing countries, including the communist countries. These countries have one major characteristic when compared with the advanced capitalistic economies of the Western Europe and North America; their per capita income was low, indicating poverty that translated to shorter life expectancies, high rate of infant mortality, and lower levels of education (Rapley, 1996). However, Nielsen (2011) indicated that in the classifications of countries, in terms of their level of development, there is no agreed standard definition of 'Third World' that is generally accepted. Nielson (2011) further added that the lack of agreement in terms of the definitions extended to both individual organisations and international organisations. There are countries that have improved significantly and their economies are much better than some developed countries yet they are still considered as Third World countries. For instance, China is still being considered as a developing country yet it is the second largest economy in the world (The World Bank, 2014). Similarly, Kingsbury (2004) explained that there are some countries that have managed to rise above the status of 'developing countries' by being located in a beneficial location, having natural resources (especially oil), colonial good fortune and in some cases combining the right policies with stable government. Nielson (2011) feels that the grouping of countries as developing or developed was too restrictive and there was need for a classification system with more than two categories that could better capture the diversity in development outcomes across countries.

The World Bank equates income with development by considering the Gross National Income (GNI) per capita as a measure of development (Nielsen, 2011) and mostly grades countries on a three point scale of low to high (The World Bank, 2012) as follows; Low income countries are countries with a maximum income of US \$1,005 or less. The Middle Income countries are those countries with income range of between US \$1,006 to US \$12,275. Countries with a

minimum GNI per capita of US \$12,276 or more are in the category of High income countries which most developed countries fall (The World Bank, 2012). The World Bank classification is mostly an annual activity and there are new thresholds every year. On the other hand, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) classifies countries using the Human Development Index (HDI). According to the UNDP (2007/2008) report (UNDP, 2008), a country with an HDI of 0.8 and above has a high human development while a country with an HDI below 0.5 had a low human development. According to *Human Development Report* (2010), these indexes are derived from a range of indicators: the income measure used in the HDI is Gross National Income per capita (GNI/n) with local currency estimates converted into equivalent US dollars using PPP, life expectancy at birth, and education among other indicators (Nielsen, 2011).

Development remains a contested concept that is viewed differently across the globe and what might be considered as development in one part, might not be the same at another point. Hence development has moved from '*what the 'experts' say 'development' is, to what people seeking 'development' want'* according to Kingsbury (2004). For example, this also applies to the people who might be having problems e.g. poverty in developing countries. These are the people who know how this problem is affecting them and though they might not always know how it can be solved, they should be involved in the decision-making. Therefore, an outsider cannot come and decide for them how to solve that problem without discussing with them how to go about it (Levermore, 2009). The best the outsider can do is to ask them how they can be helped and assist them in solving the problem affecting them.

In sum, development is a contested concept as there remains inconsistency about how countries should be classified or measured. It is also difficult to distinguish countries that are developed, those that are yet to develop and what development should entail. However, it would be worthwhile to have various categories of all the groupings (developed and developing) in order to properly categorize each country to where they rightly belong. The next section discusses three major development theories (Modernization Theory, Dependency Theory and PCT) and their linkages to sports events in light of this conceptual discussion.

### **Development Theories**

Development theories may be regarded as sets of ostensibly logical propositions, which aim to explain how development occurred in the past and or how it should occur in future (Potter, 2008). The theories were believed to successfully deal with two challenges of analysing socioeconomic phenomenon of 'underdevelopment' and 'development' and based on their analysis come up with strategies for development (Mallick, 2005). In the 1950s, the development theory which emerged then only dealt with a narrower issue of transforming the former colonies of mostly western European nations and making them more independent and productive to take care of their countries as decolonization approached (Leys, 1996; Kingsbury, 2004). Since then there have been several development theories; modernization, post-colonial, dependency, and neo-liberal which were advanced to correct the missing link from the previous ones but in the end each of the theories have their advantages and disadvantages. In order to understand the development theories in relation to sports in general and be used to understand why countries aspire to host major sports events, the following section will discuss modernization, post-colonial and dependency theories.

### Modernization Theory

In the 1960s and 1970s, it was believed that all countries despite their level of poverty were able to achieve a modern style of living if they implemented the right policies just like their counterparts in the western world (McKay, 2004). Modernization Theory was then conceived as a response of American political elites and intellectuals to the impact of Cold War and the emergence of the Third World societies after the collapse of the colonial system (Tipps, 1973). The theory's main contribution was the distinction of traditional and modern societies which were differentiated by the values and norms that operated their economic systems. According to the theory, development depended on traditional and primitive values being replaced by modern ones (Webster, 1995). Traditional and primitive values that were practised by the developing countries, were perceived to be backward hence the need of their replacement and the embracement of industrialization, urbanization and use of technology in production within all sectors of economy to advance into modern societies. Webster (1995:110) further explained that the traditional society had the following three crucial values: firstly, the value of tradition was dominant and highly respected where no one dared to change it in any way; secondly, the society was governed through a kinship system where all social practices – economic, political and legal relationships were controlled; lastly, the members had emotional and superstitious

attachment to their world and relied on the fact that things will always be as they are and were never motivated to strive for any change. Whereas the modern world was a complete opposite to the traditional society where the proponents of the modernization theory believed that: firstly, even though people had traditions they did not have to be enslaved to it; secondly, kinship had a much less role to play in all areas of society including the family and one's position in life was earned through hard work and achievement; lastly, members were forward looking and ready to overcome any obstacles in their way in all areas of life in order to be successful and have a better life.

Modernization theorists argued that modern values of development would be transferred to the periphery through education (scholarships) and technology support (Leys, 1996). Willis (2005) explained that modernity in economic terms means the inclusion of industrialization, urbanization and increased use of technology within all sectors of economy. According to McKay (2004), the 1950s witnessed a lot of growth in the western world and it was assumed that the same growth would also trickle down to the poorer countries of the world as long as they followed the same policies. Similarly, Levermore (2009) pointed out that it was believed that most of the world's population who were still poor and from the developing countries (sub Saharan Africa, most part of Latin America, Pacific Island and Asia- Pacific) could virtually follow the same policies that appeared to have worked for the industrialised western countries (mostly Western Europe and North America) in order to progress towards what was understood to be developed. According to Rostow (1960), the path to development and modernity for any nation involved the movement through a series of stages: the traditional society; the pre-takeoff society; take-off; the road to maturity and mass-consumption society. The traditional society was a stage where barter system was used as a mode of trade or exchange for goods, relied mostly in agriculture and had a subsistence economy with low levels of investment and technology, whereas the most advanced stage (mass consumption society), which is associated with the high income countries, is where tertiary industries dominate the economy and manufacturing loses its importance (Levermore, 2009). Levermore (2009:28), noting from Rostow's perspective to stimulate growth, stressed the importance of having 'a strong government in place to intervene in society and provide the conditions for growth in trade and investment and best utilization of aid and infrastructure as well as creating a stable political climate'.

#### Criticisms of Modernization Theory

While criticising the modernization theory of development, Rivero (2001) argued that not all nations who follow the prescribed pattern of growth, as was done by the developed countries, are able to succeed or develop since the rules are non-viable or out of reach for the underdeveloped countries. This can also explain the success of the Asian countries such as South Korea, Taiwan, Singapore and Hong Kong (McKay, 2004) who succeeded without following the prescribed rules. According to Binns (2002:85), the theory does not essentially eliminate poverty and the 'trickle down' effect of growth generally failed to benefit the poor. Binns (2002) suggested that eradication of poverty, unemployment and inequality should be the concern for development debate where the concern is the fulfilment of basic need (food, health and education) for all citizens. These sentiments are shared by Darnell (2012) who noted that modernization theory was supported mainly by concepts of linear growth and sociopolitical movement. Most developing countries do not have stable governments and this can be a hindrance to their development as efforts will be directed mostly at stabilizing the country than to develop it. There is also the possibility of the ruling elite taking advantage of the situation by stealing from the public through corruption. Kingsbury (2004) similarly noted that the challenges hindering the developing countries from being developed was the poor and corrupt leadership that is common in these countries. Kingsbury (2004) added that the problems of the developing countries were mainly brought about by the colonialist who ignored the social cohesion that existed before and divided these people for their own advantage so as to rule over them easily. Ethnic tribal rivalries troubling most developing countries, where equal citizenship among non-governing ethnic groups is non-existent, has been the major cause of most civil wars in developing countries and has hindered their progress in development.

Many critics of modernization theory argued that the main terms used in the theory – tradition and modern, are too ambiguous to be used as a distinction and do not show the many varieties of societies that exist in the world as both terms are given a blanket label: Traditional for the countries that have not industrialised and modern for those that have done so (Webster, 1995). According to Frank (1969) traditional values (respect of age or elders, family background) have always been embraced in the modern societies and have been given important role in the modern industrial societies like UK, Japan and United States. Webster, also added that the theory was questioned for the vague explanation of the mechanisms of development that the countries were to adapt to in order to advance, other than just discussing the stages for development. Similarly, Rostow's linear development path was criticised for the fact that it was too theoretical and therefore could not be practical (Mutunhu, 2011). Mutunhu further added that most African countries invest in agriculture, manufacturing and tourism and it was therefore not easy to classify countries in equal categories, since countries have different natural endowments. There are also questions on the freedom of choice for those whom the development is meant for and the involvement of the local community in the development process (Matunhu, 2011; McKay, 2004).

Modernization theory was also criticised for its simplistic idea that development for all was possible by moving from point A (tradition) to point B (Modern) by just fulfilling certain criteria and not recognising that there was 'need for different strategies for different cases' (Andreason, 2005:977) as the potential for development was contextual. The theory does not explain the process by which these stages are reached (Webster, 1995). Equally, Coetzee et al. (2007) agreed that the oversimplified perception of social change was the major weakness of the theory since not all people are always ready to adapt to change due to the fear of uncertainty. Mutunhu (2011) also advised that for Africa to develop and outgrow underdevelopment, new theories for promoting Africa's development should be embarked on instead of relying of modernization theory. Lastly, and the most serious criticism of the modernization theory, was its failure to acknowledge the impact of colonialism and imperialism on the Third World countries. These impacts are important in examining the history of the developing countries in order to determine their status then compared to the present and how they can be assisted to attain development (Webster, 1995). Despite these criticisms, there are some aspects of the theory which can be used to help understand why developing countries aspire to host major sports events. For example, many countries bid to host these events in order to boost their physical infrastructure which they believe will help in developing their economy and also signal to the world that they have attained development. The following sub section illustrates the linkage between modernization theory and sport and how the theory is going to be used to understand the hosting of major sport events.

## Modernization Theory and Sport

Modernization theory is useful for this research as it helps in explaining why developing countries seek to host major sports events. According to modernization theory, to be considered a modern country, a country should have the inclusion of industrialization, urbanization and increased use of technology within all sectors of its economy (Willis, 2005), a factor that many developing countries have not been able to achieve. In the last 40 years there has been major

changes in geography of international capitalism where new growth areas such as tourism, events or sports have gained importance in wealth creation (Cornelissen, 2004b). Sport is therefore one vehicle through which developing countries can move to modernization. Sport may have the capacity to help countries achieve modernization in the following ways: Firstly, sports assists in socio - economic development through hosting of major sports events and specific sports related projects that increases capacity building, empowerment of communities, investment generation and establishment of a stable political environment for economy and markets to operate in. Sports for Development (SFD) projects helps in capacity building of the community in areas that can help them earn income for themselves like teaching of business skills, management of sports at community levels, cleaning of environment which is famously done by Mathare Youth Sports Association (MYSA) in Nairobi (Levermore, 2009). Levermore further explained that sports have more recently been recognised as a tool for social change more especially in the developing countries where orthodox policies for development, which emphasized the economic rather than social environment aspects of development, failed to meet their objectives (Levermore, 2009). Secondly, most of the developing countries strive to use the hosting of major sports events to first boost their sport and other related infrastructures (transport, communications, hotels, and industries), which in turn aids in the development of their economy. These projects help in stimulating human development in the future as through them other small-scale industries are able to grow their business. For instance, South Africa which has been successful in hosting major sports events including mega sports events, have been able to develop their stadia which cannot be equalled by any other country in Africa. Thirdly, countries that excel in sports have been able to be globally placed in the world map (advertised) through the television networks and be known for their exemplary performance in particular sports. For example small countries like Jamaica and Kenya have been known because of their dominance in sprints and long distance athletics respectively and this has also helped in improving the socio-economic lives of these sports men and women and their countries through the prize money they get from winning in the athletics competitions (Levermore, 2009; Lebo, 2007; Bale and Sang, 1996). Fourthly, through sports, international trade in sports clothing and footwear has been able to help in the employment of workers and buying of raw materials which has helped in eradicating poverty as many people gain income for sustenance and wellbeing. Fifthly, the development of telecommunication network has helped in developing most sports through the advertisement of these sports for shared experience worldwide hence uniformity in different sports and no country left behind (Bale and Sang, 1996). Sixthly, Sports can be used to alleviate tensions caused by conflict fought

along ethnic lines or between countries. It is well known that where there is war no development can take place as the environment is not conducive due to lack of security. Sport is able to bring warring parties together for the sake of peace. This form of sports is known as Sport for Development and Peace (SDP). In sports events it can also bring divided citizens of a country together. For example, the 1995 Rugby World Cup hosted in South Africa helped bring its people together despite rugby always being seen as a white minority sport in the country. Several other sports events like the 2006 FIFA World Cup in Germany, 2008 Beijing Olympics and 2010 South Africa FIFA World Cup were also used for national cohesion and patriotism among the citizen of the host country (Hoglund and Sundberg, 2008; Black, 2008; Cornelissen, 2008). Finally, most countries, especially the developing countries have mainly used major sport events for signalling to the world that they have achieved development (Black and Bezanson, 2004; Cornelissen, 2004a; Horne, 2007) that they have reached the status of being 'developed' (Black, 2008; Cornelissen, 2004a, 2004b). Similarly, Horne and Manzenreiter (2006) suggested that modern competitive sport and large-scale sport events have been developed in line with the reasoning of modern capitalistic society where major sport events and global sport culture are central to it. These large scale events are seen as the medium through which a country can transform its image to the international accepted standard and that is why countries when hosting any major events, including sporting, will always want to hide what is undesirable - shanty towns or slums and homeless people locked away (Curi et al, 2011). Modernization theory, therefore, can help explain the potential of sport as a developmental vehicle, although, as the later sections on dependency theory and PCT will discuss, achieving this is not as simple, hence the need to draw on more critical theories.

#### Using Modernization Theory to Understand the Hosting of Major Sports Events

The significance of modernisation theory in development policy and practice between the late 1940s and early 1980s and the entrenching of ideas of development as imitation or emulation might help explain why it is that developing countries aspire to host major international sports events. Modernization theory is useful in understanding why countries aspire to host major sports events in the following ways: Firstly, hosting sports events contributes to the reinvigorating the physical infrastructure of a city or region through building of roads, airports, hotels, sports stadiums, telecommunication networks, amongst others (Levermore, 2008; 2009). This creates business and employment opportunities for the community hence standards of living are improved within the community around the event. Many major sports events like the 1992 Barcelona Olympics and the 2002 Manchester Commonwealth Games have been used

for urban regeneration purposes, thereby transforming run-down and neglected areas into modern and up-to-date places (Cook and Ward, 2010; Malfas, et al, 2004). The awarding of the rights to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa was perceived as a good step in strengthening the connection between sports events and social development in the country (Manzo, 2012; Levermore, 2009). Manzo further added that it is always believed that the infrastructural developments for sports events enhance the visibility of a country for tourist attraction and at the same time elevating it as a modern country. FIFA projects - 'Football for Hope' that was initiated during the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, is a good example of tangible projects that are visible signs of development – infrastructure and sport (Manzo, 2012; Levermore, 2009). Hence, major sporting events, especially Olympics and football World Cup, have been instrumental in urban modernity. However, in as much as the major motivation of hosting major sports events in developing countries is for development purposes, as has been discussed above, there have been instances where the huge infrastructural developments for the events have not benefitted the countries and instead became a burden, due to high maintenance costs (Manzo, 2012; Labuschagne, 2011). Similarly, there have been concerns when funds meant for basic socio-economic needs have been transferred to fund and host these events and those people most in need do not benefit (Manzo, 2012; Horne, 2007). Dependency theory and PCT are used to explore these criticisms of Modernization theory later in the chapter.

Secondly, countries vigorously compete to host major sports events in order to fast track development of their infrastructures (transport, communication, hotels), which helps in stimulating development (Darnell, 2012; Cornelissen, 2009; Cornelissen and Swart, 2006; Black and Van Der Wethuizen, 2004; Malfas et al, 2004). Bureaucratic procedures of development of most government projects delays the development of most infrastructural projects and hosting of major sports events can be a catalyst in fast tracking of these projects by nearly ten years (Levermore, 2009; Black, 2008). Thirdly, through the hosting of these events, the developing countries do signal to the world that they have achieved development status. Conn (2010 cited in Manzo, 2012:173) explained that countries clamour to host major sports events mainly because these prestigious events represent global adverts, broadcasting to the world a country's charm, competence and modernity. Developing countries who eventually host these events, usually aim to show the world that they have reached a certain kind of development or are modern. Indeed, hosting these events requires a lot in terms of sports and related infrastructures that many countries cannot manage. Therefore, the very few developing countries that have been able to host these events are mainly the BRICS (Brazil, Russia, India,

China and South Africa) countries, which are the emerging economic giants from the developing countries (Horne, 2011). Fourthly, major sports events are used for place promotion to the global audience as destinations for new foreign investment and tourist promotion, which are the new major development strategies (Manzo, 2012). The publicity for the sports events through global TV broadcasting (Horne, 2007; Horne and Manzenreiter, 2006) draws many countries to bid for these events in order to signal important milestones and market their country and products. Manzo however cautioned that lavish display could also attract negative media exposure especially when so much has been spent for that display at the expense of the citizens who are still lacking in basic needs. Fifthly and finally, major sports events have also been used for developing sports participation among the youth. This gives these youth the opportunity to participate among the world's best and enhance their performance. Promotion of sports participation across the whole of the UK was a major objective of the London 2012 Olympic bid (Girginov and Hills, 2008). Modernization theory has been useful in helping to understand why many developing countries are now competing to host major sports events, which is mainly for development purposes; boost and signal to the world that they have attained development. The next section discusses dependency theory and how it can be used to understand the hosting of major sports events

# Dependency Theory

Dependency Theory emerged in the late 1940s as a critic of the modernization theory of development, which was felt by dependency theory proponents, notably Andre Gunder Frank, to be too conventional on the approaches for economic development after World War II (Matunhu, 2011). The theory was first developed in Latin America through the writings of Andre Gunder Frank between the years 1966-1979 (Jeffrey, 2012) who felt that modernization theory failed to address the truth on how the developed countries got their wealth and the reasons that poor regions of the world continued to languish in poverty (Matunhu, 2011). Dependency theory developed by examining the historical and current economic trends of both developed and developing countries to comprehend their current status. The proponents of dependency theory stressed the importance of analysing the historical experiences of the identification of their specific socio-economic linkages with the developed countries (Preston, 1996). This was to determine if the developing countries were better or worse off before the colonization period and to establish the causes of their situation (underdevelopment). Smith (1979) notes that the theory's most distinctive contribution is its claim that the logic of the

contemporary development of the developing countries can only be achieved through placing the process through a globally defined context. That is by analysing both the features of colonialism in the past and the present day. This was due to the fact that these countries had been practising other forms of production like farming, and trading among themselves and also had abundant natural resources which could have elevated their status accordingly. According to Frank (1967:25), 'underdevelopment is not an original state rather it is a result of economic capture and control of backward regions by advanced metropolitan capitalism'. Frank (1967) noted how Latin America countries were not developed before colonialism but due to the colonial era, which was accompanied by mass exploitation of these countries' resources, the countries deteriorated to underdeveloped status.

In support, Darnell (2012) explains that the theory did not abandon the modernist ideals but argued that the marginalization of the developing countries was due to the mass destructive results of hegemonic capitalism supported by the developed world. The theory features the existence and the continual underdevelopment of the peripheral countries due to the historically evolution of a highly unequal international capitalistic system of the rich country - poor country relationships (Todaro and Smith, 2011). Equally, Kingsbury (2004) pointed at how the world was increasingly being divided between the powerful developed countries and the impoverished underdeveloped countries. Todaro and Smith (2011) further proclaimed that it was difficult or nearly impossible for the poor nations to be self-reliant and independent due to the exploitative nature of the rich nations in the highly unequal capitalistic system. This is because the developed countries continued with the exploitation of the developing countries by getting their raw materials cheaply from these countries at low prices, selling back to them the finished products at very high costs, and also getting cheap labour from the developing countries (Levermore, 2009).

Frank (1966 cited in Moses, 2012) also argued that modernization theory did not explain underdevelopment and used the Latin American example to explain the metropolis – satellite relationship. He labelled the urban centres the "metropolis" which were the centres of exploitation. According to Frank, the exploitation emanated from these centres' interdependence on the satellite regions. Moses (2012) explained that all resources from the outside/rural regions are forced to the centres of exploitation so that they could trade them for those of the metropolis. This made the satellite become reliant in a relationship of pseudo-servitude. The Latin American metropolis also became satellites in an exploitative relationship

to nation states of the developed countries. The exploitative relationship was not only between the developed and the developing countries but also between levels other than the nation state, such as sub-national or cross-national regions (Friedmann and Wayne, 1977). Similarly, urban areas have also continued to exploit rural areas by getting their products cheaply at the expense of them (Moses, 2012). African countries have continued being economically and politically dominated by external centres of power due to their dependency on these countries for financial aid and grants in the administration of their countries (Matunhu, 2011). Smith (1979) reiterated that the developing countries cannot do with their dependence status nor can they do without it. Smith (1979) further explained that the national elites have structured their domestic rule in agreement with the internal interests favourable to the international connection for their own selfish gains. In addition, Young (2003) added that though most of the periphery countries got independence, some of them continued to be controlled by their former colonizers through the local elites who served in the interest of the developed countries.

Darby (2002) stressed that one of the most useful features from the dependency model is the fact that it explains that the relationship between the developed world and the developing world as a historically dynamic process. This dependency has manifested itself in different forms; and is likely to continue in the future. Using the example in sport of the relationship between Confederation of African Football (CAF) and FIFA, Darby (2002) explained that though there have been certain improvements in African football, African football will continue being dependent and subordinate to FIFA's core due to their poor management, chaos and financial problems.

# Criticism of Dependency Theory

Dependency theory has been criticised for failing to give insight into how developing countries could initiate and sustain development despite its proponents giving an appealing explanation of the continued impoverishment of the developing countries (Todaro and Smith, 2011). Smith (1979) also pointed out that dependency theory underestimates the power of those in the periphery in managing their own affairs. For instance, whenever international NGO's want to help the developing countries who have problems, instead of entrusting them with the funds that they have given out to solve the problem, these institutions instead bring in their own people to manage these funds without consulting with the countries about how their problems can be solved. This is also due to the top – down characteristic of the dependency theory where the countries that give aid to these developing countries also dictate how it is to be used or give

conditions before releasing the funds as they feel that the locals do not have expertise of managing the funds given (Matunhu, 2011). Munck and O'Hearn (1999) faulted the theory for being too economic and ignored the role of social classes and political struggle – domination and control by the developed countries. Dependency theory is also criticised for failing to explain the internal factors involved in a country's development and completely placing blame on external factors (Moses, 2012) as there are many internal factors like mismanagement and corruption that can also cause the underdevelopment of a country. These ideas have been supported by Andreason (2005), who noted that many African countries have issues with imparting of law and order, good governance, transparency and plural democracy which is a requirement for the progress of development.

Dependency theory was also faulted for ignoring the value of culture in the development literature and only recognised it as one (subordinate) element amongst many of their politics in the development theory (Kapoor, 2002). According to Matunhu (2011) the underdevelopment of Africa was as a result of the collision between the Western and African cultures, resulting in the former pacifying the latter's traditional culture and its value system. In support, McKay (2004) highlighted the role of culture which does not exist in all of the major present development theories. McKay also pointed out the successful Asian countries whose experience presented different challenges to development theory and gave an example of the Confucian heritage in China, Korea and Taiwan whose philosophy emphasizes the ethical responsibility of both the rulers and the ruled. Culture, according to Pieterse (2010), presents an important dimension of development that cannot be underestimated as cultural diversity and cultural capital: human capital and human capacity are very important in assessing and determining what type of development formula is able to work for a particular community. The following sub section illustrates in more detail the linkage between the dependency theory and major sports events and how it is going to be used in the study.

## Dependency Theory and Sport

The dependency theory is useful in explaining some of the problems facing sports development in developing countries and the challenges of hosting major sports events in these countries. Dependency theory of development was concerned with why certain countries were not developing the way the others were (Todaro and Smith, 2011). It was assumed that these countries were not developing because the international system was preventing them from doing so, as the system was exploitative and characterised by the dominance of some countries over others (Allen, 2012). Allen (2012) also pointed out that the developed countries also dominate in international business, just like in sports, they dominate in the international sports organizations, therefore in international trade, and developing countries that are subordinate to them have to serve their economic interest.

The theory is vital in understanding why the standard of sport in most developing countries is still very low compared to that of the developed countries who have good sports facilities and also perform well in major international sports events (Andreff, 2001, 2006, 2008). Andreff (2006) explains that there exists a very strong relationship between the level of economic development of a country and the level of its sporting performance and development. In other words, an economically advanced country will have enough resources for the development of sports in its country which eventually enhances the performance of its athletes in international sports events. On the other hand, it is hard for economically underdeveloped or challenged countries to invest in the development of their sports before meeting other basic needs like health, food security, education and housing needs of their citizens.

The major reasons for sports underdevelopment in developing countries is as follows: Firstly, sport is not taken seriously by the governments of developing countries and therefore not given priority in the national budget. Though sports is important for general wellbeing of all citizens of a country, sports cannot be accorded the priority it deserves given the day to day needs of people in the under developed countries, which they are still struggling to meet. Secondly, most of the developing countries are not financially well endowed and have to depend on developed countries for assistance in funding their sports activities (Andreff, 2006, 2001). Similarly, many sports organizations are greatly dependent on their national governments for financial support of their sporting activities, development of sport infrastructures, participation in international competitions, hosting of major sports events, as well as negotiation with other governments to get support for hosting major sports events or positions in the executive of international sports federations (Hoye and Cuskelly, 2007).

Thirdly, the theory is useful in understanding how the colonial system forced the developing countries to abandon their traditional sports which were inexpensive and adapt modern sports some of which are too expensive for these countries to manage due to their requirements (Bale and Sang, 1996). This is one of the reasons for these countries poor performance and underdevelopment in the modern sports. Fourthly, dependency theory highlights how there has

also been exploitation of sports talents from the developing countries who are lured to the developed countries by better pay and better training facilities which is absent in the developing countries (Akindes and Kirwin, 2009; Darby, 2002; Maguire, 2000; Bale and Sang, 1996). This enabled the migration of African and South American sportspersons to North America and Western Europe to the detriment of certain sports in Africa and South America whereas these sports became big business where they migrated to (Akindes and Kirwin, 2009; Andreff, 2006; Darby, 2002; Maguire, 2000; Bale and Sang, 1996). These countries do not get their migrated athletes to compete for them or be role models for younger aspiring which eventually leads to poor performance of this countries in international competition. In this situation both the exploiter and the exploited both need each other. The athletes desperately need the better pay and the good training facilities which is lacking in their own countries while the exploiters need these athletes for their talents which helps them in winning their leagues and the money that comes with it (Bale and Sang, 1996). Fifthly and finally, some developing countries tend to depend and specialize on one or few sports that they perform well in and neglect the other sports. This causes the decline or underdevelopment of the neglected sports and when the countries' preferred sports starts deteriorating, they do not have any sports to fall back on. Levermore (2009) equally noted that developing countries tended to specialize in few products and neglecting others when the values for the former are high causing and in case of any failure, the whole country / region suffers extensive underdevelopment. The following section explains how some of the elements of the theory will be of use to this research.

#### Using Dependency Theory in Understanding the Hosting of Major Sports Events

Once more, despite the criticisms of dependency theory, there are some elements of the theory that are useful for this thesis in understanding the challenges faced in hosting major sports events. The aspects of the theory which are important in understanding challenges of the hosting of major sports events are as follows. Firstly, dependency theory is useful in understanding how due to the location of most of the international sports federations being based in the developed countries, these countries have continued to dominate in management of the sport and hosting most of the major sports events. Likewise, Bale and Sang (1996) noted that countries from the developing countries are automatically placed at disadvantaged position when it comes to matters of global sports management since most of the sports affiliated to the Olympics are Euro – American in origin. Bale and Sang further pointed that this shows the complicated aspect of the world sports system where some member countries are marginalised. As a result, there are some continents in the developing world that have not hosted mega-events

like the Olympics and Commonwealth Games, despite participating in these events for close to six decades.

Secondly, the theory will be beneficial in understanding the causes of continued economic inequality between the developed and developing countries and how this affects their aspiration for hosting major sports events. The dependency theory claims that all the countries exist within the wider global system which is characterised by global capitalism where liberal economic theory (which includes the international banks and financial institutions) dominates and serves the interests of the rich countries (Allen, 2012). The GSS is also characterised by the dominance of the developed countries as already mentioned earlier, who control the economic, technological, knowledge, and political and control the levels of power of global sports (Maguire, 2011). It is for these reasons that the competition for hosting of major sports events occurs on an unequal platform, especially for the developing countries that are placed at the bottom of the hierarchy. Thirdly, most of the developing countries depend on the developed countries for financing of their sports activities and development of their sports infrastructure (Horne, 2011; Andreff, 2001; Bale and Sang, 1996) and this is best explained by the dependency theory. The same way, developing countries also depend on the developed countries and international finance institutions to support the shortfalls in their national budget and to an extension the hosting of major sports events in their countries. Fourthly, the theory is valuable in understanding the underdevelopment of sports generally in developing countries. The underdevelopment of indigenous sports of most developing countries was caused by the imposition of modern sports to these countries by their former colonialists and the noninclusion of the indigenous sports in international competition - GSS (Bale and Sang, 1996).

Fifthly, dependency is both ways to the exploiter and the exploited, as the exploiter relies on those it exploits to gain, while the exploited that is desperate, still relies on the exploiter for survival. In the same spirit, the IFs and generally the GSS, are dependent on their national affiliates and athletes to participate in their events in order for them for gain profits from the participation of these countries. Countries aspiring to host major sports events can also do anything including using illegal means (voter bribing) in order to host these events. Dependency theory can also be linked to how Kenya's athletes also have to depend on the European and American diamond league events in order to participate and continue excelling in track and field competitions (Bale and Sang, 1996:175). Sixthly, the theory is important in examining the historical experience of sports in developing countries, the present state of sports

and the causes of their underdevelopment. Kenya's dependency of track and field athletics due to the country's dominance in the same events at major international competitions, has seen the underdevelopment of other sports like hockey and boxing (Bale and Sang, 1996). This is a situation that is common to most developing countries that tend to rely on few sports events that they dominate in at the expense of other sports. This practice places risk to these countries as they can lose out in all sports when other countries outshine them in the sports events that they are used to excelling in major international competitions.

Finally, the theory helps in understanding of exploitation in sports generally and by extension the hosting of major sports events. Sports have also been underdeveloped in these countries by the exploitation of their best athletes, who are lured by better pay and training facilities to the detriment of these countries' sports talents development (Akindes and Kirwin, 2009; Maguire, 2001; Bale and Sang, 1996). In major sports events, countries wishing to host these events have to condone some of their own rules to accommodate those of the GSS i.e. allow GSS and its partners to collect untaxed profits from the major sports events that the country hosts which amounts to exploitation by the GSS. Though both athletes and the hosting countries are exploited, they have to overlook the exploitation in order to gain in their respective objectives. The next section discusses PCT and its implications for understanding the hosting of major sports events.

## Post-Colonial Theory

PCT just like Modernization theory and Dependency theory was concerned with the welfare of the former colonies after the end of the colonial period. It also focused on the enduring regimes of power and knowledge that followed after colonization period through the concepts of prosperity, respectability and social change (Darnell, 2012). Bhabha (1994) noted that PCT was about the unequal and universal power of cultural depiction that is involved in a constant competition for political and economic control. Equally McEwan (2001) explained that PCT was about criticising the material and discursive legacies of colonialism and it can therefore be said that it is anti-colonial. According to Hayhurst (2009), a post-colonial framework ensured that the themes of power, global inequalities and identities were understood when examined in terms of race, class and culture. In summary, PCT challenges the negative representation of the developing countries by the developed countries with regards to the issues of power, voice and culture.

McEwan (2008:124-5) highlighted some issues that underpinned PCT approaches as follows. Firstly, PCT stressed the need to undermine the principal discourses of imperial Europe (for example, history, philosophy, linguistics and 'development') challenging the unacknowledged and unexamined assumptions at the heart of European disciplines that were deeply insensitive to the meanings, values and practices of other cultures. Secondly, post colonialism also challenged the experiences of speaking and writing by which the principle discourses came into being e.g. terms like 'Third World' that referred to people and countries that were deemed to have failed both economically and politically – this was often inscribed in development writings. Lastly, PCT also highlighted the lost historical and contemporary voices of the marginalised, the oppressed and the dominated through a radical reconstruction of history and knowledge production. Darnell (2012) added that in development study, PCT showed the ways in which the need for development was, and how it continued to be constituted in and through structural relations of colonization. Similarly, Rukundwa and Van Aarde (2008) noted that the philosophy underlying the theory was the declaration of war against present realities that are a result of consequences of the past.

Levermore (2009) equally noted that PCT underlines one of the central issues within development which is power and how it shapes development thinking and policy. Levermore (2009) further pointed to the concern of proponents of PCT on how the developing countries continued to be portrayed in negative, derogatory and stereotyped manner within the development process. Darnell and Hayhurst (2012) acknowledged that in a hegemonic framework, power and dominance are not innate or static but mobilized and implemented through socially negotiated processes of authority and consent. Darnell and Hayhurst (2012) added that PCT helps in understanding the intricacies for negotiating dominance and consent, and for locating possibility for freedom and social change. According to Hayhurst (2009), the top down policy direction in sport for development is normally directed from the developed countries and prescribed to the NGOs and communities in the developing countries. The policy makers from the developed countries take themselves to have expert knowledge of what is to be transferred to the local communities in developing countries. This approach has been criticised by the PCT advocates on the grounds that it is the communities in the developing countries who know and understand their problems and it is best when they are involved in the decision making of their problems (Jeanes et al, 2013; Levermore and Beacom, 2012).

#### Criticisms of Post-Colonial Theory

Firstly, PCT has been criticised for its too theoretical approach while ignoring the real problems affecting the normal lives of the people of the developing countries (McEwan, 2008). PCT also resists the recognition of historical and present pattern of events that can allow the correction of events after learning from past mistakes (Kapoor, 2002). Kapoor explained that the theory emerged from literary studies and its arguments are mostly based on literary sources. Sylvester (1999) argued that the theory was concentrating on colonial continuities and subaltern voices while neglecting other issues of general development like economic relations and practical politics. Sylvester advised that the theory could find a middle ground where it could be both critical and empathize with all that was hindering the development work. The theory was also questioned for not adequately appreciating the role of capitalism and mostly concentrating on culture (Kapoor, 2002). Kapoor further clarified that neglecting the role of capitalism makes the issues of economic inequality not to be addressed by PCT yet the interactions and negotiations between the coloniser and the colonised are important in explaining the issues of poverty and distribution of wealth which are some of the key issues of development and dependency theory deals with this. Hence the justification of drawing on both theories; dependency and post-colonial to understand the challenges faced by countries aspiring to host major sports events. The following sub section illustrates the linkage between the PCT and sports.

# Post-Colonial theory and Sport

PCT discourse underscores the fact that colonial ties between developed and developing countries have significantly shaped and will always affect the way in which the developing countries are perceived and treated by the former (Cornelissen, 2004b). This filters through into the continued negative positioning of the developing world in the international system. PCT also typifies the dominant development institutions and policies as being Eurocentric in nature and being based in the developed countries (Levermore, 2009). Similarly, in sports, most international sports institutions and SFD projects tend to be dominated by the developed countries and are often regarded as tools for neo-colonization by the African and non -European countries (Darnell, 2012; Levermore, 2009; Darby, 2002).

PCT highlights the demeaning attitude in which the developing countries have continued to be viewed when they present their interest in the hosting of major sporting events as colonial and neo-colonial ties have shaped and continue to shape external relationships with major sports

events as well (Cornelissen, 2004b). Cornelissen (2010) noted how hosting and participation in these events centre on issues of identity or challenges to power, neo-imperial or otherwise. Hence, in order to be recognised as independent states most newly independent countries from Africa rushed for recognition from the United Nations and global sports bodies like FIFA and IOC (Darby 2002, Cornelissen, 2004b).

Another key important aspect of the pre-existing structures that PCT underlines, is the global media who report from the perspective of the developed countries. During the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa, there was a range of negative feedback from the press about how the country was insecure and could not finish the development of sports infrastructures on time, and therefore, not capable of hosting the event (Bolsmann, 2010; Cornelissen, 2010). The same negative media publicity was witnessed during the hosting of the 1968 Mexico Olympics (Bolsmann, 2012, Bolsmann, 2010), consequently the developing countries always have to work hard to prove their capability when awarded the rights to host these major sports events (Bolsmann, 2012; Cornelissen, 2004b). Both countries ended up hosting successful events to the satisfaction of the event owners.

The theory highlights how the relationship between FIFA's members from the developing countries and those of Europe had not been cordial due to the Europeantric nature of the European constituents who had continued to discriminate on these countries with regards to the management of football globally (Darby, 2002; 2005). This domination by the developed countries in the IFs negatively affects most of the developing countries aspiring to host the major sports events as there will be no fairness in the competition to host the events.

PCT underscores the way in which global sports organizations like FIFA and IOC are structured, and the way in which the bidding process are conducted and decided upon is not favourable and is prohibitive to the developing countries (Cornelissen, 2004b; Swart and Bob, 2004). FIFA requirement of having 8 to 12 international standard stadia, good infrastructure, adequate five star accommodations for officials of the global sports bodies, amongst other requirement are too prohibitive to many developing countries that would have wished to host these events. The IOC and CGF requirements of city bidding for their events and having the various types of infrastructure for multi sports activities in one city are equally prohibitive for developing countries who cannot afford to develop them in a short period of time. Most developing countries aspire to host these events in order to hasten infrastructural development of most areas of their country and prefer these projects spread across the country where the

local government can share in the costs and many people benefit from the proceeds of these events. It is because of this requirement especially for CGF and IOC that the African continent has never hosted their events (Commonwealth and the Olympic Games).

The PCT also points out how the competitions to host major sporting events also occur on unequal basis and this worsens in the case for the developing countries especially Africans countries who are placed at the lower position (Cornelissen, 2004b). Cornelissen (2004b) further added that it is never acknowledged that developing countries, more specifically African countries, are discriminated against when it comes to bidding for international sports events. It is for this reason that during the bidding for both 2006 and 2010 FIFA World Cup, the African countries continued to use the 'African discourse' in framing their bids (Black, 2007). When bidding for the 2006 and 2010 FIFA World Cup, Morocco and South Africa made extensive use of ideology and sensitive posturing of Africa emphasizing on the negative position the continent occupies in the wider international system (Cornelissen, 2004b). During the bidding process there is a lot of state bargaining and lobbying, voter buying, leveraging and negotiations (Cook and Ward, 2010; Jennings, 2006; Cornelissen, 2004b) which again most of the developing countries cannot afford to do at the same level as their western counterpart. The relationship between all members of the international sports federation is important for the development of that particular sport. The next section discusses how PCT can be used to understand the hosting of major sports events.

# Using Post-Colonial Theory in Understanding the Hosting of Major Sports Events

Despite the criticisms of PCT, there are some of its elements that can be useful in understanding hosting major sports events in Kenya and what the country can learn from South Africa. Firstly, the PCT will help this research in understanding the themes of power, global inequalities and identities when analysing the relationship between the national sports actors and the GSS. According to Said (1993), there is a distinction between the West and the East and explains that the Westerners are perceived to be 'rational, peaceful, logical and cannot do any wrong, whereas the Easterners (Periphery) are the direct opposite of the West. This helps in explaining, as represented in orientalism, the uneven power relationship between the colonialist and their colonial subjects. Through the interviewing of the national sports actors in Kenya and South Africa, the research will be able to establish if the lack of hosting of major sports events especially the mega sports – The Olympics and the FIFA World – are due to the uneven relationship between the developed and developing countries. Secondly, the theory will help

in understanding global inequalities which has affected the developing countries, when competing with the developed countries in bidding to host major sports events. Most of the developing countries lack in sports and other related infrastructures when it comes to hosting these events and therefore, cannot compete with developed countries in equal platform when bidding to host major sports events. Thirdly, application of the PCT will enable this research to understand the enduring regimes of power and dominance held by the developed countries over the developing countries and how this has affected the hosting of sports events, and the management of the GSS where the former have continued to dominate. Fourthly and finally, this research will examine the oriental discourses produced through media, politics, and culture with regards to hosting of sports events to establish if the non-hosting of major sports events by the developing countries is because of a biased view or discrimination against developing countries. In order to understand the challenges of hosting major sports events, Dependency theory helps understand the economic and PCT is more helpful for understanding the cultural factors.

### Conclusion

The main aim of this chapter has been to examine theories of social development, and how they might help explain the opportunities and challenges for developing countries hosting major sports events. The chapter has established that development is a contested concept and there remains inconsistency about how countries should be classified or measured in terms of development. It is also difficult to distinguish countries that are developed, those that are yet to develop and what development should entail. However, it might be worthwhile to have various categories of all the groupings (developed and developing) in order to properly categorize each country to where they rightly belong.

The theoretical framework adopted for this thesis draws on the key aspects of three influential theories of development. Modernization theory links best with the aspirations of the majority of developing countries to host major sports events in order to stimulate development of their countries. However Modernization theory presents a relatively idealised view of the potential for linear progression and hosting major sporting events are viewed as a vehicle to achieve this. Hence the other two theories are useful in offering a more critical understanding of the challenges associated with attempts to use major sports events for these purposes.

My synthesis of these theories is aligned with the critical realist epistemological approach introduced in chapter 1 and explained more fully in chapter 4. The realist philosophical position respects that there is an external reality (Bhasker, 1978). External reality comprises of abstract things that are born of people's minds but that exist independently of any one person (Sobh and Perry, 2006). In this thesis, whilst countries like Kenya would aspire to host one of the major sports events, the actual certainty of hosting these events depends on many external factors such as the events rights owners whose guidelines must be followed, and competition with other countries who also wish to host these events, which are outside of their control. Most of these form the challenges that countries like Kenya face when they bid to host major events.

Though the three development theories differ in substantial ways, aspects of each can be used to complement each other's weakness in order to come up with a framework for examining the hosting of major sports events in Kenya. Figure 3.1 below indicates the importance of each of the theories to this research project.

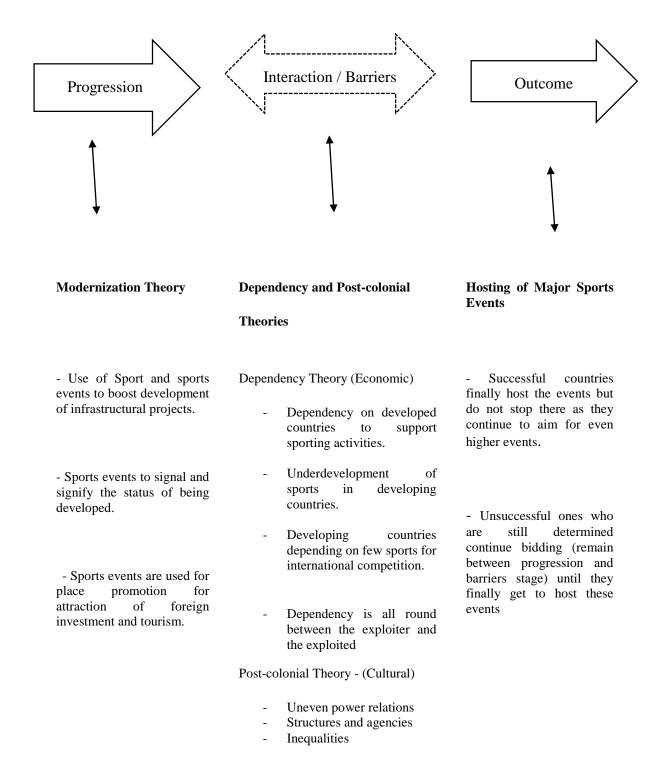


Figure 3.1: Theoretical Framework

## **Progression – Modernization Theory**

First and foremost, modernization theory is useful for this research as it helps in explaining why developing countries seek to host major sports events. According to Willis (2005) being modern in economic terms means the inclusion of industrialization, urbanization and increased use of technology within all sectors of economy. Not many countries have been able to do this and those who have managed are mostly from North America and Western Europe. Sport is one vehicle through which developing countries can move to modernization. It is in this regard that most of the developing countries strive to use the hosting of major sports events to first boost their sport and other related infrastructures (transport, communications, hotels, and industries), which in turn aids in the development of their economy. These projects help in stimulating human development in the future as through them other small-scale industries are able to grow their business. For instance, South Africa which has been successful in hosting major sports events including mega sports events, has been able to develop its stadia which cannot be equalled to by any other country in Africa. The country's transport and telecommunication network have also been greatly fast-tracked through the hosting of major sports events especially the 2010 FIFA Men Football World Cup. As Manzo (2012: 174) pointed out, 'by extension modernist development theory valorises visual evidence of 'progress' while producing and celebrating such icons of modern technological prowess as football stadiums, big dams, other ambitious infrastructure projects such as transportation networks'. Secondly, through the hosting of these events, the developing countries do signify to the world that they have achieved development status. Thirdly, major sports events are used for place promotion to a global audience as destinations for new foreign investment and tourist promotion (Manzo, 2012).

## Interaction / Barriers - Dependency and Post-Colonial Theories)

The hosting of major events is not guaranteed and there are many barriers that hinder countries from eventually hosting them. These barriers are best explained by the Dependency and Post-colonial theories of development, which are useful in offering a more critical understanding of the challenges associated with attempts of the developing countries to use major sports events for these purposes. Dependency theory and PCT both allow the understanding of the complex relationship between developing and developed countries in the GSS which is important in analysing the challenges faced by developing countries as they endeavour to host major sports events.

Dependency and Post-colonial theories are both important in understanding the global inequalities, which have affected the developing countries in all spheres of social development. Dependency theory is beneficial in examining the causes of continued economic inequality between the developed and developing countries and how this affects their aspiration for hosting major sports events. Post-colonial theory is important in examining the cultural processes in terms of the relations and identities between the developed and developing countries to compete fairly with the developed countries in hosting major sports events.

Dependency theory is valuable to this research in the following ways: Firstly, most of the developing countries depend on the developed countries for financing of their sports activities and development of their sports infrastructure (Horne, 2011; Andreff, 2001; Bale and Sang, 1996) and this is best explained by the dependency theory. The same way, developing countries also depend on the developed countries and international finance institutions to support the shortfalls in their national budget and to an extension the hosting of major sports events to be hosted in their countries. Secondly, the theory is valuable in understanding the underdevelopment of sports generally in developing countries. The underdevelopment of indigenous sports of most developing countries was caused by the imposition of modern sports to these countries by their former colonialists and the non-inclusion of the indigenous sports in international competition - GSS (Bale and Sang, 1996). Sports has also been underdeveloped in these countries by the exploitation of their best athletes, who are lured by better pay and training facilities to the detriment of these countries' sports talents development (Akindes and Kirwin, 2009; Maguire, 2000; Bale and Sang, 1996). This is because the same athletes do not get to be role models for younger aspiring athletes or represent their countries in international competitions.

Thirdly, Dependency is both ways to the exploiter and the exploited, as the exploiter relies on those it exploits to gain, while the exploited that is desperate, still relies on the exploiter for survival. In the same spirit, the IFs and generally the GSS are dependent on their national affiliates and athletes to participate in their events in order for them for gain profits from the participation of these countries. Countries aspiring to host major sports events can also do anything including using illegal means in order to host these events. Dependency theory can also be linked to how Kenya's athletes also have to depend on the European and American diamond league events in order to participate and continue excelling in track and field competitions (Bale and Sang, 1996:175).

The theory is important in examining the historical experience of sports in developing countries, the present state of sports and the causes of their underdevelopment. Kenya's dependency of track and field athletics due to the country's dominance in the same events at major international competitions has seen the underdevelopment of other sports like hockey and boxing (Bale and Sang, 1996). This is a situation that is common to most developing countries that tend to rely on few sports events that they dominate in at the expense of other sports. This practice places risk to these countries as they can lose out in all sports when other countries outshine them in the sports events that they are used to excelling in major international competitions.

## Outcome – Hosting of Major Sports Events.

The hosting of major sports events is the aspiration for most countries both developed and developing since the benefits to be accrued from hosting major sports events also goes beyond assisting countries to develop hence the high competition between countries. The number of these events is very few compared to the countries that want to host them hence the high competition some of which can be reflected by the barriers. These competitions normally favour the developed countries since most of these countries have most of the infrastructures in place and they have a higher standard of human development compared to the developing countries. The countries that succeed to host these events do not stop there but continue to aim for even higher events and the circle continues.

This chapter has identified that different theories of development provide valuable insights for making sense of the questions investigated in the thesis. There is a need to synthesise elements of each theory in order to develop a theoretical framework for explaining the aspirations of developing countries that wish to host major sports events, and the barriers / challenges faced by these countries. In chapters 5, 6 and 7 archival and empirical research findings are analysed in light of this synthetic theoretical framework. The next chapter (4) provides a detailed description of the methodology used in the research process. Adopting a case study design (Creswell, 1998) provides this research with an in-depth examination of the relationship between the African countries and the global sports system and thus for analysing the capability of Kenya to host a major sports events.

#### Chapter 4

#### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

## Introduction

As identified in chapter 1, this thesis aims to explore the possibilities and challenges associated with the hosting of major sport-events in developing countries including Kenya and aims to develop a framework for understanding the relationship between major sport events and social development. To this point, the thesis has reviewed literature on major sports events and their linkage with development theories and sustainable development.

This chapter outlines and provides a detailed description of the steps involved in the research process. It starts by explaining and justifying the research paradigm (critical realism) that was adopted in order to meet the aims and objectives of the thesis. The chapter then justifies and explains the methods chosen; case study analysis, which involved document analysis and key informant interviews. This also includes explanation of the sample frame and analysis of the data collected. Also discussed are the limitations faced in the research, which is done through critical reflections on the entire process. Creswell (2003) advises that when drawing up the general framework of a research project, a researcher should aim to answer the following questions: What are the knowledge claims being made? What strategies of inquiries will inform the process? What methods of data collection and analysis will be used? This chapter therefore aims to answer these questions.

#### **Research Paradigm**

It is important to first understand what is exactly meant by research before discussing research paradigm. Gratton and Jones (2010, p. 5) define research as 'a systematic investigation to answer a question'. They add that research is generated by a specific research question, which then follows a specific process, and aims at increasing understanding of the problem by interpreting facts and reaching conclusions based on those facts. Research also requires reasoned argument to support conclusions. Finally it should be based on previous knowledge, which it aims to advance and may also develop further questions. Gratton and Jones (2010) conclude that research is more than simply looking for facts. In this thesis, the research focused on the possibilities and challenges of hosting major sport events in developing countries; in order to do this, a case study of Kenya was used which enabled an analysis of the relationship

between African countries and the global sports system. This included investigation of the perceptions, experiences and understanding of individual agents of the sports organizations with regards to the requirements of bidding and hosting major sports events. According to Ghauri and Grønhaug (2005) research is not an instant activity and therefore should be better understood as a process. Research involves a multi-stage process that must be observed in order to yield results. Generally the process consists of the identification of a research topic area, research design, data collection and analysis (Saunders et al 2009).

Research paradigms are the fundamental beliefs that affect how we conduct social research (Creswell, 2013) and how we choose a particular research methodology. Saunders et al (2007) defined research paradigm as the basic belief system or worldview that guides the investigation, not only in the methods chosen but also in ontologically and epistemologically fundamental ways. Similarly, Creswell (2007) explained that research paradigms are the assumptions reflected in a particular 'worldview' position that is reproduced in the way the research for a project is to be designed and undertaken.

Guba and Lincoln (1994) explained that the main beliefs that hold a particular research paradigm can be summarized by the answers given to three fundamental questions; the ontological question, the epistemological question, and the methodological question. Ontological issues relates to the nature of reality and its characteristics (Creswell, 2013). From the ontological perspective this thesis recognized that there may be multiple realities when examining the possibilities and challenges of hosting major sport events in developing countries and identifying the most realistic major sport event that Kenya can aspire to host.

As a Kenyan who has both been an athlete and a sports administrator, I brought to this research my own experience of the realities of the Kenyan situation together with the views of the actors and agencies with respect to hosting of sports events in the country. I also interviewed officials from South Africa in order to get their views on the possibilities and challenges of hosting major sporting events in developing countries having had the experience of hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup and other major sports events (the 1995 Rugby World Cup, the 2003 Cricket World Cup amongst others). Two international sports events consultants based in Africa were also interviewed to get their opinions on the standard requirements for hosting major sports events, reasons why African countries were not hosting these events and the key issues that African countries should consider if they want to host these events. By comparing and examining the two (the 'experienced' South Africa and the 'amateur' Kenya), I was able to bring in what is likely to be experienced by other African or developing countries.

Epistemology refers to what creates knowledge within a given phenomenon, and how it is attained (Gratton and Jones, 2010). An epistemological understanding relates to the relationship between the researcher and subjects. In this study, my subjects and I were not independent and it was recognised that I could subjectively influence the research process (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003) due to my relationship with some of the subjects who were colleagues both as a sports official and athlete. However, I strived to maintain objectivity during the process but recognise that there may be some level of influence prevalent in the questions asked.

There are three main epistemological positions; positivism, interpretivism and realism (Bryman, 2004). Bryman (2004) explained that positivism is a position normally linked with research within the natural sciences and the research it produces is deemed to be completely objective and value free. According to proponents of positivism, 'credible' knowledge can only be obtained from what can be verified or falsified by the senses, the most important being observation and claim that data which cannot be directly observed is not regarded to be strictly scientific. Therefore, more objective methods of data collection are used and they tend to deal with the measurement of phenomena in quantities (Gratton and Jones, 2010).

The positivist approach is also considered to be value-free in the sense that the data collected cannot be altered by the researcher (Saunders et al, 2007). Conversely, an interpretive approach is the opposite of positivism. Its main assumption is that the world we see around us is one which we have created in our mind. However, this does not mean that reality is seen as a complete creation of our imagination, rather a person's reality is a subjective experience. Due to the intricacy of human nature, researchers who adopt an interpretive position seek to gain an in-depth subjective view of a particular phenomenon (Rubin and Babbie, 2009). The objective of the interpretive approach therefore, is to understand rather than explain a particular phenomenon, and their results cannot be generalised (Hurworth, 2005). Interpretive research leans towards a qualitative methodology where methods of data collection and subsequent analysis are inductive and exploratory in nature (Atkinson and Young, 2008).

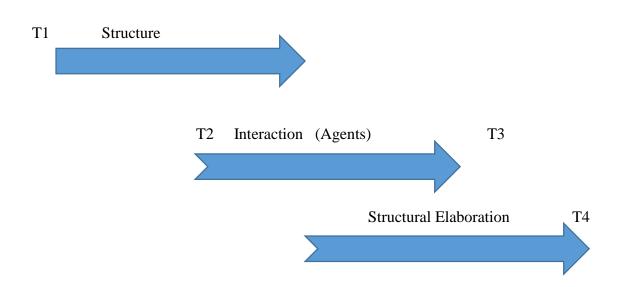
Realism is an epistemological standpoint which shares some characteristics with positivism, in that this philosophical position aims towards a scientific approach of enquiry. According to the

realist approach, knowledge should be acquired through scientific methods of empirical data collection, and that truth cannot be acquired from constructions of the mind (Somekh and Lewin, 2004; Saunders et al, 2009; Bryman, 2004). In addition, Bryman and Bell (2007), added that realism shares two features with positivism: a belief that natural and social sciences should apply the same kind of strategies for data collection and interpretations; and the understanding that there is a reality that is distinct from our own description of it. However, realists differ from positivists in the sense that they readily admit into their explanations theoretical terms that are not directly open to observation and argue that positivism fails to consider the extent to which observable events are influenced prior to theoretical frameworks (Olsen, 2002). Realists do not look at the observed phenomena as the totality of the real world (Payne and Payne, 2004) but try to explain the reasons for what we observe. Payne and Payne (2004) explained that social life is not always consistent but depend on other unseen factors and can therefore not be judged by laboratory experiments. This therefore, according to realists, makes social life hard to be predicted and even harder to identify how far outcomes are the result of factors hidden from our view.

This thesis is aligned to the critical realist approach, which will be justified in this next section. The thesis does not fit with a positivist approach due to my belief that there are multiple realities and it is important to recognize this when trying to understand the possibilities and challenges of hosting major sport events. Additionally, positivism believes that research should be value free and objective however, I recognize my influence on the research process with regards to choice of case study and my relationship with the participants in the research. With regard to interpretivism, whilst I agree it is vital to understand the actors' subjective reality, I also believe that there is a reality distinct from individuals.

In aligning with critical realism, the thesis does follow a scientific approach in terms of collection of empirical data in order to understand and explain the hosting of major sport events in developing countries. The realist philosophical position respects that reality exists independently of the researcher's mind, meaning that there is external reality (Bhasker, 1978). External reality comprises of abstract things that are born of people's minds but do exist independently of any one person (Sobh and Perry, 2006). In this thesis though, countries like Kenya would aspire to host one of the major sports events, the actual reality of hosting these events depends on many external factors such as the events rights owners, whose guidelines must be followed, and competition with other countries who also wish to host these events

which is out of their control. In addition, realism views external reality to not only consist of structures that are at the same time sets of interrelated objects but also as mechanisms through which those objects interact (Sobh and Perry, 2006). Archer (1995) explained that structure and agency operates between different time periods, this is because structure exists before the action (Interaction) that transforms it, while the outcome (structural elaboration) postdates those actions. Figure 4.1 below shows the relationship between structures and agencies.



*Figure 4.1: The Morphogenetic Sequence of the relationship between structure and agency. (Source: Adapted from Archer, 1995* 

The Global Sports System has pre-existing structures (T1) that have developed over time and have created constraints and controls to the developing countries. These structures (T1) are the rules of the global sports system, their organizational culture (the way the global sports system does things), and their perception of the developing countries and how they treat these countries. Interaction (T2) involves the agents in the global sports system. The agents are the national sports federations in collaboration with their national governments who are the hosts of the sports events in their respective countries. These agents have problems with the pre-existing structures (T1) of the global sports system. In order for the agents to succeed in

achieving the outcome (T3) – (successfully host major sports events; treated the same as the developed countries; and also have a say in the management of the GSS), these agents have to strive to meet some of the pre-existing structures in place that are manageable (the hosting of major events requirements) and find ways of convincing the global sports system to change or relax those that are not manageable (the prohibitive requirements of the global sports system for hosting major sports events, their organizational culture (the way the global sports system does things), and their perception of the developing countries and how they treat these countries). Achieving the desired outcome (T3) does not come easily due to resistance from the dominant groups and sometimes the interaction process does not achieve all of the desired outcomes. If the interaction is effective, then the transformation of the existent structures and other new social possibilities will take place before the structural elaboration stage (T4), while the interaction process is still in place (Archer, 1995). With respect to one of the objectives of this thesis on outlining the relationship between African countries and the global sport system, the realist view of dynamic and interdependent relationships between structures and agents will be vital when examining the relationship between the global sport system and its African affiliates.

This thesis respects that though countries as agents might be placed in the same geographical and economic situation, they have their own individual characteristics. Therefore what is applicable in one country might not be to another country. It is a matter of applying what can work for one's situation. According to Pawson and Tilley (1997) in (Sobh and Perry, 2006), realist research aims to develop a family of answers that covers several contexts and different reflective participants. The thesis therefore compares different reasons as to the challenges hindering developing countries from hosting major sporting events and transferable lessons to be learned from successful developing countries to have hosted major sports events before selecting the ones applicable to the Kenyan situation.

#### **Research Approach**

The realist approach approves and works well with a relatively wide range of research methods, though the choice of a particular method will depend on the nature of the object to be studied and what one wants to learn from it (Sayer, 2000). For this research I chose a mixed method approach using case study analysis, which is useful if the investigated phenomenon is strongly connected to the environment (Mingers, 2000) which arguably the hosting of major sports events is. Realism also justifies the study of any situation, irrespective of the number of

research units involved, so long as the process involves thoughtful in-depth research with the objective of understanding why things are the way they are (Easton, 2010). A case study approach fits well with critical realism because of its all-inclusive description through use of the mixed method approach.

In order to undertake this research a suitable methodological approach was required to build the case study and bring out the participants' stories, experiences and their interpretations. There was also the need for a methodology that would be appropriate for the complexity of phenomena involved and a design to examine past international sport events hosted in Kenya in relation to the benefits achieved, the challenges faced and the lessons learnt.

#### Case Study

Based on the aims and objectives of this research, the ontological, epistemological, and methodological considerations above, this thesis adopted a qualitative case study design which is well suited for questions that require exploration, especially where there is need for a detailed close up view of a problem and for studying phenomena in their natural setting (Creswell, 1998). The case study comprised of semi-structured interviews and document analysis for an in-depth examination of the capability of Kenya to host a major sports events. It is therefore worthwhile to discuss what a case study is before we proceed with explaining the significance of the method.

Yin (2009) defined case study as empirical study of a phenomenon in depth in a real world situation, particularly where there is no margin between the phenomenon and context. Whereas, Easton (2010) defined it as a research method that involves investigating one or a small number of social entities or situations, where the required information is collected using multiple sources, rather than developing an all-inclusive description through an iterative research process. Similarly, Gerring (2004:341) defined case study to be 'an intensive study of a single unit with an aim to generalize across a larger set of units'. Despite the differences in the above definitions of case study, their objective is the same in that an in-depth meaning of a particular situation is the motive of the research method, even though their process of getting the result may vary. This research used Kenya as a case to examine the possibilities and challenges of hosting major international sports events in developing countries, while South Africa was used as a comparative reference point.

There are a number of reasons for selecting the case study approach. Firstly, case study research is a very useful method as it allows expanding and generalizing theories by combining the existing theoretical knowledge with new empirical insights (Yin, 1994). This is especially important in studying topics that have not attracted much previous research attention (Vissak, 2010). In this thesis, there has been very little research on African countries (apart from South Africa) involvement in hosting major sports events (Cornelissen, 2004a). Therefore, in order for the situation in the African continent to be examined, Kenya was used as a case study to establish the general situation in Africa. Kenya is neither among the richest nor the poorest countries in Africa in terms of its per capita income of US \$ 840 in 2013 and was ranked at position 24 out of the 48 countries that were researched in Africa (The World Bank, 2013); therefore in terms of economics, this makes it a more representative of most Africa countries. The Kenyan context is explained in detail in chapter five. Secondly, case studies do not necessarily have to rely on previous literature or prior empirical evidence as they can be used for theory building even if little is known about the phenomenon (Vissak, 2010). In this research, there was scant literature on sport events in Kenya and most of the other countries in Africa, with the exception of South Africa. Thirdly, a case study can help discover causal relationships and understand how and why things happen in a certain way. In this research, the case study helped to understand the relationship between African countries and the global sports system and why these countries do not host major sports events like the developed countries. Fourthly, a case study is mostly well suited for relatively clearly bounded, but complex, phenomena such as organisations, inter organisational relationships or nets of connected organisations (Easton, 2010). This research was used to examine the workings and relationships of officials from government Ministries (Kenya and South Africa), national federations and international sports bodies with regards to hosting of major sports events hence the importance of a case study approach. Fifthly, case study prefers the collection of data in a natural setting compared to relying on secondary data (Yin, 2012). In essence, this does not mean that case study does not make use of derived data, but augmenting the derived data with some primary data is vital to help understand the research findings. Likewise Schell (1992:4) stated that a case study's strength lies on its ability to deal with 'full range evidence'; documentations, artefacts, observation and interviews. This thesis has used archival documents and interviews to get information on sports in Kenya and their approach to and experiences of event bidding and hosting. Lastly, a case study is a most useful strategy for 'when, how, or why questions are being posed, when the investigator has little control over events, and when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context' (Yin, 1994, p. 1).

In this thesis the 'case' looked at the challenges and possibilities of Kenya hosting one of the major sports events and the questions were why should it host this event(s) and how would it go about hosting the identified event(s)? By examining the challenges, this thesis aims to establish what is hindering the developing countries from hosting these events and institute measures of solving the problems. While understanding the possibilities of hosting the events would help in maximising on these possibilities (strengths) and using them to the country's advantage when bidding and preparing to host the events.

In terms of selection, there are various reasons for concentrating on a particular case, which may be due to its uniqueness that requires study (intrinsic case study), or as in this study, the case may be (instrumental case study) used to illustrate the issues (Stake, 1995). This thesis aims to instrumentally illustrate the state of major sporting events in Africa. When deciding on a case, the researcher's first criteria should be to identify cases that will yield more knowledge on the area to be studied and understanding to assertions (Stake, 1995). Stake (1995) further added that practical considerations with respect to resources (time, money, researchers), access and how receptive the potential respondents are also vital in deciding on a case. I chose to use Kenya as the case study of the research due to the reason that I am Kenyan and having worked in the sports fraternity and am known to most of the stakeholders in sports circles, it would be more relevant, easy and cheaper for me to collect data as opposed to using another country. In case study research, one can also choose to have single or multiple case studies and the advantage of single over multiple, is its capability of covering the study intensively compared to multiple that covers a number of places shallowly (Creswell, 1998). I used a single case study to get the in-depth knowledge on the state of African countries when it comes to hosting of major sports events. However, Herriott and Firestone (1983) argued that multiple case studies are more convincing and gives a true picture of a given situation. Yin (1994), on the other hand pointed out that multiple case studies usually require extensive resources and time which can be prohibitive to a sole student or researcher.

In setting the context (in Chapter 5) of the Kenyan case and to give the reader the sense of being there, i.e. understand Kenya (Stake, 1995), this research overviews the geographical, historical, social and economic position of Kenya (Creswell, 1998). The main issues for this case were the history of Kenya and its sports history, sports administration and sports policy, international sports events hosted and the economic state of the country. The data collection

methods involved archival records and documents, and interviews (Yin, 1994; Creswell, 1998). The following section will explain how this research was undertaken.

## **Research Design**

The research methodology conducted for this thesis involved a two-stage qualitative approach. Both stages involved two similar phases, where the first phase of each stage involved analysis of archival data, collection of secondary data and a review of relevant literature. The second phase of each stage consisted of expert interviews. Stage two followed on from the analysis of stage one data, enabling clarification of the initial findings of stage one primary and secondary data collected through expert interviews and document analysis. Table 4.1 below illustrates the dates and stages of the data collection process of the thesis.

STAGES	PHASE	DATES	RESEARCH	SOURCES AND
			METHODS	ORGANIZATIONS
Stage 1	Phase 1	Jan 2012 – Dec 2012	Archival and document analysis	UCLan Library, Ministry of Sports – Kenya and South Africa, other Governments documents
	Phase 2	Jan 2013 – Feb 2013	Semi-structured interviews with Kenyan agents	Ministry of Sports, Kenya AK, FKF, KHF, KNSC, KNPC, and NOCK
Stage 2	Phase 1	Mar 2013 – Jan 2014	Archival and document analysis	UCLan Library, Ministry of Sports – Kenya and South Africa, other Governments documents
	Phase 2	Feb 2014 – Mar 2014	Semi-structured interviews with Kenyan and South African agents	Kenya - Ministry of Sports, CECAFA, CK and KRU South Africa – Ministry of Sports, SAFA and SASCOC

Table 4.1: The Thesis Stages of Data Collection Process

#### Archival research

This was considered necessary as a background study to help gain initial knowledge of the situation, through available publicly archived materials, with the aim of developing ideas and initial understanding of the major sports events, sports policy issues and policy learning and transfer with regards to major sports events. This is because an archival research strategy allows research questions that focus on the past and changes over time, to be answered (Saunders et al, 2007) and exclusively guided by the research aims and objectives. In the views of Gallo (2009), archival research can supplement other forms of research methods (ethnography, interview, and oral history) by providing the researchers with independently created data to corroborate findings derived from other methods. Review of related literature helped understand issues from the archival documents. Document analysis involved examining the following documents: hosting requirement and guidelines from the global sports system (FIFA, IOC, and CGF), evaluation reports from the same global sports system used when short listing countries to host major sports events, bidding documents from successful major sports events hosts, national sports policies, sports events hosting policies, government reports related to hosting of sports events, and constitutions of various international sports federations. Document analysis helped in examining the information on Kenya; geography, historical, social and economic status, government policies; social development theories, hosting reports from events hosted by South Africa, national sports policies of various countries amongst others. Some of these documents would not easily be assessed from public libraries unless one gets the documents directly from the owning institutions.

#### Semi-structured interviews

This research used semi-structured interviews, which are a set of open-ended questions that need to follow a particular order with every interviewee and further questions may be asked to probe for additional information, whereas unstructured interviews tend to be more informal and the researcher uses a list of topics to cover with the interviewee where the questions and their order differ from interview to interview (Bryman, 2004). Semi-structured interviews seek to understand themes of the lived daily world of the interviewee's own perspectives through interpretation of the meaning of the prescribed phenomenon. In-depth interviews enabled the interviewer to explore the participant's social reality - in this case, I was seeking to examine the possibilities and challenges of hosting major sporting events based on the experiences from past events hosted - by listening to the responses from the interviewees (Kvale and Brinkman,

2009) on their experiences of past events hosted, benefits accrued and the challenges faced amongst other issues. Critical realism stresses the need for layered ontology to social reality with empirical (sensory experience), actual (action in events) and real (causal powers separate but not always evident in empirical and actual) manifestation (Smith and Elger, 2013). Elder-Vass (2010:44) explained that: 'the empirical domain includes those events that we actually observe or experience and the actual is the domain of material existence, comprising things and the events they undergo. The real also includes 'structures and mechanisms' that generate those events. Critical realists therefore, consider interviews to be viable for allowing insights into the actual and empirical representation of actions which can only be known by conducting investigations into actions with individuals who have had the opportunity to experience it (Smith and Elger, 2013). Uncovering the structures and mechanisms is one of the objectives of this thesis.

Interviewing also enables the researcher to realize the themes that need to be explored and the clues of the themes in the respondents' own accounts. Probes and questions are normally integrated in semi-structured interviews to enable the researcher to ask / reframe the question that can directly lead to the desired response or help the interviewee understand the question well. Probes and further questions also provide the interviewee the freedom to choose to express and digress as need be. The 'open-endedness' of this type of semi structured interview style also helps the interviewee from being 'cornered' into standardized categories; and permits interviewees to have a more reflective and meaningful perspective on the issues being discussed (Patton, 2002). Although interviews enable the research to perhaps probe into complex and sensitive topics, they can be extremely time-consuming. The researcher cannot easily compare interviewees' responses when using unstructured interviews since the questions asked change between respondents. In addition, an interviewer conducting unstructured interviews is possibly more likely to let their judgement of a topic determine what will be discussed (Klenke, 2008). In this study, the informants were key officials from the sports federations, Ministry of Sports (Kenya and South Africa) and two international sports events consultants who are all decision makers in their respective working areas and aware of issues with regard to sports events in Africa and their countries. In addition, the following considerations influenced the use of semi-structured interviews in combination with the case study.

Firstly, it was vital to involve the main actors and agencies of sport events in Kenya and South Africa in order to get their first-hand, useful and important knowledge from their respective situations. Not only did they provide an insight into what they experienced in their areas or challenges they faced, but offered recommendations for the future. Secondly, in interviews there is no significant time delay between question and answer as both the interviewer and interviewee can directly react on what the other says or does. Thirdly, face to face interviews takes advantage of social cues such as voice, intonation, body language etc. of the interviewee that is able to give the interviewer a lot of extra information that can be added to the verbal answer of the interviewee on a question though their viability depends on what the interviewer wants to know from the interviewee (Opdenakker, 2006). Lastly, interviews are able to obtain a lot of information including attitudes, perceptions, expectations and feelings compared to questionnaires which only gets the information asked, which sometimes might not be fully understood by the respondent.

Ethical approval was sought and received from the University of Central Lancashire Business, Arts, Humanities, and Social Science (BAHSS) Ethics Committee. Before embarking on the first stage interviews, I sought for permission from the Kenyan Ministry of Sports and some sports federations after informing them of what my research was about and they all gave written permission for me to interview their officials (See Appendices A, D and E). A copy of Informed Consents form given to interviewees before the formal interviews is also attached (See Appendix B). This was done to ensure the participants were guaranteed of privacy and confidentiality. In addition, interview guide (see Appendix C) were issued to all the participants (including those for the Skype interviews with two sports events consultants) outlining the title, research question and sub questions (Richards, 2009). Participants' involvement in this study was voluntary and all the audio recordings and transcripts remain under lock and key in secured cabinets and password protected computer files. The backup copies of the information were stored separately in a locked cabinet. All research materials will be destroyed five years after project completion.

In order to achieve the research objectives stated earlier in the chapter, which mainly concerned the Kenyan actors and agencies with respect to the possibilities and challenges of hosting major sports events, I established contacts and interviewed officials of the Ministry of Sports and Sports federations whose activities also includes organizing both local and international sports events in the country. In Kenya, there are about seventy sports federations that are affiliated to both the National Olympic Committee of Kenya (NOCK) and Kenya National Sports Council (KNSC). KNSC is the umbrella body for sports federations and acts as a link between the sports federations and the government. On the other hand, NOCK is the national constituent to the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and is responsible for organizing the country's participation in both the Commonwealth and Olympic Games. Most of the time, KNSC and NOCK work with the Ministry of Sports to achieve their objectives and that is the reason why in the first stage of the research, I decided to include the Ministry of Sports and chose only two sports federation which are very active in hosting international sports events (Athletics Kenya and Football Kenya Federation). Although, the Kenya National Paralympic Committee (KNPC) were not included in the first stage of the interviews, they were later incorporated in order to gain reality from multiple sources and at the same time also give the physically and mentally disabled a voice to share their experiences and meanings (Kings and Horrocks, 2010). KNPC is a sport association for physically and mentally disabled people and was included so that the disabled were represented in the study. The participants from KNPC who participated in this study are also disabled. Both KNSC and NOCK normally hosts multi sports events in collaboration with the sports federations.

In the second stage of the research, semi-structured interviews were conducted in Kenya and South Africa. In Kenya, two other federations that frequently host major sports event; Cricket Kenya and Kenya Rugby Union and a regional football body based in Kenya; Council for East and Central Africa Football Association (CECAFA) were added in the category of sports federations and interviewed. The interview participants in South Africa comprised of actors and agencies from the country's Ministry of Sports and Recreation, South Africa Sports Confederation of Olympic Committee – SASCOC and South Africa Football Association – SAFA). There were also Skype interviews with two international sports consultants based in Africa (Senegal and South Africa) who have experience working with FIFA and IOC to get their opinions on the bidding and hosting of the Olympics and World Cup and the chances of African and other developing countries hosting these events.

## Sampling

Before conducting an interview, the interviewer / researcher has to identify those to take part as interviewees. In all the stages of interviews, I used purposive sampling in order to select participants who had expert knowledge with regards to the aims of my research. Purposive sampling is non-probability sampling where interviewees are chosen for a purpose (Clark et al 2002). In this study, each individual interviewee was chosen for their role in their respective sports federation/ position at the Ministry in charge of sports and their involvement and knowledge of key issues in hosting of sport events in their various federations both at national and international level. The purposive sampling technique is a type of non-probability sampling that is most effective when one needs to study a certain cultural domain with knowledgeable experts (Tongco, 2007). In the same voice, Palys (2013) explained that purposive sampling signifies that you see sampling as a series of strategic choices about with whom, where and how to do your research. The above definition shows that your sample has to be tied to your objectives. When choosing the interviewees, I had to source the main actors and agencies in charge of hosting international sports events in Kenya who are the Ministry of Sports and the national sports federations. At the Ministry I went to the person in charge of research and training who identified three senior officials at the Department of Sports. While for the sports federations, I selected federations that mostly host international sports events and approached them for interviews. At the sports federations, I interviewed the three top executive members (President, Vice President, Secretary General and in some cases the Treasurer). Before proceeding with the interviews, I gave them the interview guide and the informed consent form. An interview guide indicates the topics to be covered during the interview and their sequence in the interview (Kvale, 1996). Issuing of an interview guide and informed consent form prior to the interview being conducted can help to establish a level of trust between the interviewer and interviewee and also serve as a foundation for building rapport (Klenke, 2008). In the first stage of interviews, a total of 14 officials were interviewed. Each interview lasted from a minimum of 45 minutes to a maximum of 1hour 30 minutes. The interviews were conducted in the respective participant's business premises between January and February 2013. While in the second stage of interviews, there were also 14 participants from both Kenya and South Africa and were mostly carried out in their offices between February and March 2014. In the second stage interviews, the same Ministry of Sports participants who had been interviewed in the first stage were interviewed once again in the second stage for clarification purposes.

Interviewing the participants in their respective offices enabled the researcher to get information from the interviewees in their familiar environment.

Table 4.2 below shows the list of all the interview participants from Kenya who included senior government officials and sport federation executive members who are the actors and agencies with respect to sports events in the country. These officials are always the main decision makers in the sports federations and Ministry in charge of sports. The list also shows the codes used for all the Kenyan participants interviewed in both stage one and two of the fieldwork. This was done in order to maintain the anonymity of the respondents.

SN	PARTICIPANTS	ORGANIZATION	CODE
1	Ministry Official 1	Ministry of Sports	MOS-KE 1, 2013
	Ministry Official 1	Ministry of Sports	MOS-(II) KE 1, 2014
2	Ministry Official 2	Ministry of Sports	MOS-KE 2, 2013
	Ministry Official 2	Ministry of Sports	MOS-(II) KE 2, 2014
3	Ministry Official 3	Ministry of Sports	MOS-KE 3, 2013
	Ministry Official 3	Ministry of Sports	MOS-(II) KE 3, 2014
4	Sport Federation Official 1	KNSC	SF KE-1, 2013
5	Sport Federation Official 2	KNSC	SF KE-2, 2013
6	Sport Federation Official 3	KNPC	SF KE -3, 2013
7	Sport Federation Official 4	KHF	SF KE -4, 2013
8	Sport Federation Official 5	FKF	SF KE -5, 2013
9	Sport Federation Official 6	FKF	SF KE -6, 2013
10	Sport Federation Official 7	Athletics Kenya	SF KE -7, 2013
11	Sport Federation Official 8	NOCK	SF KE -8, 2013
12	Sport Federation Official 9	FKF	SF KE -9, 2013
13	Sport Federation Official 10	KNPC	SF KE -10, 2013
14	Sport Federation Official 11	KNPC	SF KE -11, 2013
15	Sport Federation Official 12	CECAFA	SF (II) KE-1, 2014
16	Sport Federation Official 13	KNPC	SF (II) KE-2, 2014
17	Sport Federation Official 14	Cricket Kenya	SF (II) KE-3, 2014
18	Sport Federation Official 15	Kenya Rugby Union	SF (II) KE -4, 2014

Table 4.2 Kenyan Interview Participants and their Pseudonym Codes

The respondents were coded according to the organizations in which they belonged; for instance, the Kenyan Ministry of Sports officials were coded as MOS-KE then given numbers alongside the codes i.e. MOS-KE 1 up to 3, this is because there were three officials from the

Ministry who were interviewed and the numbers were given according to the first to the last official to be interviewed, then the year of interview also follows the codes. The year of interview was included in the research because the study had a two - stage data collection process conducted in two different years and there were cases where some officials from the same organizations (Ministry of Sports, Kenya) had to be interviewed twice due to emerging issues from the preceding interviews. The first official to be interviewed was accorded the pseudonym MOS-KE 1. While the sports federation officials were coded as SF KE (Sport federations of Kenya), followed by numerical number depending on the order in which the participant was interviewed and then the year of interview followed alongside. The last official for the sports federations, who was the eleventh person to be interviewed in that category, was coded as SF KE -11.

In stage two of data collection, due to emerging issues from the first stage of interviews in Kenya, I first had a follow up interview with the same officials from the Kenyan Ministry of Sport and different sports federations. I thereafter interviewed the South African Ministry of Sport and National Olympic committee on their experiences and challenges of the major sporting events hosted by their country and the lessons that Kenya and other developing countries can learn from them. I interviewed the Kenyan Ministry of Sports officials I had interviewed in stage one as these are the officials who directly work with sports federation officials in hosting of sports events in the country. Table 4.3 below shows the list of all the South African and International Event Consultants interview participants and their pseudonym codes.

Table 4.3: South African and International Event Consultant Interview Participants and their Pseudonym Codes

SN	MANAGEMENT	ORGANIZATION	CODE	
1	Ministry Official	Ministry of Sports, SA	MOSR – SA 1, 2014	
2	Sport Federation Official 1	SAFA	SAFA - 1, 2014	
3	Sport Federation Official 2	SAFA	SAFA - 2, 2014	
4	Sport Federation Official 3	SASCOC	SASCOC -1, 2014	
5	Sport Federation Official 4	SASCOC	SASCOC -2, 2014	
6	Event Consultant 1	International Sports Event Consultant (South Africa)	EC - SA	
7	Event Consultant 2	International Sports Event Consultant (Senegal)	EC - SEN	

## Interview Guides

According to Kvale (1996), the interview process involves seven stages: thematising; designing; interviewing; transcribing; analysing; verifying; and reporting. Kvale (1996) explained that 'thematising' refers to the conceptual clarification and theoretical analysis of the theme to be investigated and addresses the 'why' and 'what' of the investigation before the question of 'how'- the method is posed through describing the topic area to be examined and explaining the purpose behind it. At the 'designing' stage, the design of the study is undertaken with regard to obtaining the intended knowledge while taking into account the moral implications of the study. In this case, the aims of the study were turned into questions which formed the fundamental of the study. My questions were based on the topics of the major sport events in developing countries, why countries compete for the right to host major sports event, the understanding of the key actors and agencies with regards to the possibilities and challenges of hosting major sports events in the country and the knowledge transfer process with respect

to hosting major sports events using Kenya as an example. At the 'interview' stage, Kvale (1996) stressed that interviews should be conducted based on an interview guide and with a reflective approach to the knowledge sought and the interpersonal relation of the interview situation (Appendix B). The questions asked do not essentially need to be in that order and other questions may be presented in order to explore unexpected answers in more detail (Bryman, 2004; Saunders et al, 2009).

When formulating the interview guide, I concentrated on the three type of questions put forth by Rubin and Rubin (2005); these are main questions, follow-up questions and probes. Main questions were used to ensure that all aspects of the research problem were investigated. For example, one of the topics I wished to cover was 'the relationship of African countries and the global sports system'. One of the main questions designed to cover this area was 'What do you think is the relationship between the African sports federations and the global sports system (CGF, IOC, and FIFA)?' Within the context of the understandings of the key actors and agencies with respect to possibilities and challenges of hosting major sport events, the question was 'Has Kenya reached the stage of hosting a major sports event (Commonwealth Games, Olympic Games or FIFA World Cup)? If yes, what are the possibilities and if no, what are the challenges?' Follow-up questions and probes were used to gain greater depth and details from the participants. Follow-up questions are used to ask the participant to explain further any thoughts or events which they have presented in conversation. Probes are used to help direct the conversation by ensuring participant remains on topic, that answers are clarified, and examples are given where necessary (Rubin and Rubin, 2005). With respect to follow-up questions, when asking about the key actors and agencies with respect to hosting major sports events in Kenya, I then asked if these agencies had hosted any international events in the country. I then probed this area of questioning further by asking for the international events that these actors and agencies have hosted and when they were hosted.

The sequence of interview questions involves an introduction, warm-up, main interview questions, wind down and close interview (Tod, 2006). During the introduction, the purpose of the study was explained and informed consent was obtained. In the 'warm-up', factual information regarding the participants' job roles was asked before the main interview questions were asked. After, the interview began to 'wind up' and come to a close, I asked if there was anything else that the participant wished to add and if there was anything else that the participant of the interview I thanked the participant for

their help and cooperation (Tod, 2006). The interview was recorded via the use of a digital voice recorder and a smart phone after asking for permission from the interviewee on the informed consent form. Kenya's official language is English while its national language is Swahili. So I did not need an interpreter during the interview process and therefore I personally did all the interviewing as any person who does not understand English, can always communicate in Swahili.

#### **Data Analysis**

After collecting all the required data, the next step is data analysis which normally calls for a suitable method, which can either be done manually or through computer aided packages. I adopted Creswell's (2009) steps of data analysis for the initial interviews. The first step was to organize and prepare the data for analysis. This was first done by transcribing each interview from the Olympus 712 digital recorder, which also has a player, typed into Microsoft word and filed according to the participants' anonymous pseudonym names. The next step involved reading through all the typed transcription to gain a general understanding of all the information and reflect on the overall meaning. The third step was to conduct thematic analysis using Nvivo 10. Thematic analysis 'focuses on identifiable themes and patterns of living and/or behaviour' (Aronson, 1994:1). Aronson explained that in order to identify themes, components, experiences or fragments of ideas are brought together so as to identify their relationship and meaning since if they are viewed alone, no meaning can be construed from them. In this study, each transcription was read again more carefully in order to find text from it that represented the same thing and write a code against them. The fourth step according to Creswell (2009) was to generate a description of the setting or people and identify themes from the coding and search for theme connections. This often involves coding or organizing related segments of data into categories. According to Altheide (1996) the coding system for qualitative data analysis follows a recursive and reflexive movement between concept development, samplingdata, collecting-data, coding-data, and analysis-interpretation.

As mentioned above, I collected my primary data through semi-structured interviews by the use of digital voice recorder and smart phone. The smart phone was used as a back-up in case of any negative setback. A total of 28 interviews were transcribed and this empirical study accumulated a total of 24 hours of recorded interviews. This provided a huge amount of data to analyse and interpret which was as a result of the semi-structured interview technique that allows for drawing of information through naturally occurring questions (Bryman, 1995).

Bryman (1995) acknowledged that the huge volume of data can be overwhelming to the researcher due to the amount, depth and complexity of the material making the analysis problematic despite the richness and quality of the data. Similarly, Sandiford and Seymour (2007) noted the problem of managing large volumes of data during the analysis process and advised for careful and systematic selection of data that best answers the research aims and objectives at the same time recognising how this relies on the subjectivity of the researcher. Care should however be taken not to lose important information when reducing the data during the analysis process.

Each of the 28 interviews were transcribed manually and then separately examined and edited. The use of computer-assisted packages to help in analysis of qualitative research has become very popular due to the high magnitude of data that is often collected and the arduous process of analysing the data manually. The computer aided analysis assists in the process of noticing recurring themes and identifying possible linkages from the words that are interpreted. However, Denzin and Lincoln (1998) caution against over relying on these programmes to do all the work since their effectiveness depends on the data and the coding process and advised for the consideration of all the situational and contextual factors accordingly. The edited transcripts were imported into the Nvivo 10 analysis software programme and stored in individual files according to pseudonym names which could only be known to the researcher. The interview questions and the derived data were grouped in themes in accordance with the research objectives and linked with key issues as expressed in the literature review. These groupings or categorisation of data were based on the identification and codification of certain themes and concepts that established the connection between the contents of the semistructured interviews and the research objectives. Codes were developed according to the identified themes before the transcripts were coded (See table 4.4 and 4.5 below). The coded results were coded for the second time according to the coding structure developed during the first coding process. This was found useful in order to cater for unexpected and additional information that was not initially expected based on the literature that was used for constructing the interview guides. Using the results from the final coding, the data was able to be analysed and interpreted. The themes that the researcher was interested in from the document analysis were also included in the Nvivo program and analysed in conjunction with the interview transcripts. The analysed data according to the research objectives and key themes are exclusively and comprehensively reported in chapters 6 and 7.

OBJECTIVES	RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GSS AND THE AFRICAN FEDERATIONS		UNDERSTANDING OF THE AFRICAN FEDERATIONS WITH REGARDS TO THE HOSTING REQUIREMENTS.		KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER SYSTEM WITH RESPECT TO HOSTING OF MAJOR SPORTS EVENTS	
THEMATIC	Good relationships	Negative perception	Hosting	Hosting challenges	Knowledge Transfer System	
CATEGORIES	with respective IFs	of the GSS	requirements			
	Financial and technical support	African countries are disadvantaged.	Government goodwill and support	Lack of funds	No guidelines on hosting of internationa sports events in Sports Act	
	Appointment / nominations to the international bodies.	Reserved feelings about the relationships with the international bodies.	Adequate international standard sports facilities	Inadequate sports infrastructure	No institutional framework for hosting major sports events	
	National Federations in constant contact with their international federation.	Unequal treatment of the African countries.	Adequate international standard accommodation.	Inadequate and inexperienced personnel	Hosting information got from respective IFs	
SUB-THEMES	Regular participation of Kenyan teams to the world events – IAAF diamond events.	Exploited by the global sports system (Only recognised during voting times)	Security	Poor Economy	Hosting information received from previous hosts	
	Given chance to host international sports events.		Proper organization	Lack of maintenance of sport facilities	Lack of professional and trained personnel	
	Success of the Kenyan runners in international events.		Transport and communication network	Security – (terrorism)	Bilateral co-operation with South Africa yet to be fully implemented	
			Hosting structure and framework	Sports not taken seriously		

# Table 4.4: Basic Coding System for the Kenyan Participants

# Table 4.5: Basic Coding System for the South African Participants.

OBJECTIVES	RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GSS AND THE AFRICAN FEDERATIONS		UNDERSTANDING OF THE AFRICAN FEDERATIONS WITH REGARDS TO THE HOSTING REQUIREMENTS		KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER SYSTEM WITH RESPECT TO HOSTING OF MAJOR SPORTS EVENTS	
THEMATIC CATEGORIES	Good relationships with respective IF	Negative perception of the GSS	Hosting requirements	Hosting challenges	Knowledge Transfer System	Lessons for the developing countries
	Financial and technical support	Africans disadvantaged.	Government goodwill	Financial challenge	Have Major Events Policy	Early Planning
	Appointment to the international bodies.	Reserved feelings on relationships with the international bodies.	International standard sports facilities	Inadequate sports infrastructure	Have a fully-fledged Department in charge of Major Events	Identification and establishment of necessary structure be in place as early as possible.
SUB-THEMES	Opportunities to host major sports events	Unequal treatment of the African countries.	International standard accommodation for all participants	Inadequate sports related infrastructure	Have a skills transfer Knowledge Base for the country	Preliminary feasibility studies should be done in advance
			Security	Negativity that surrounded the 2010 FIFA World Cup		Being ready, prepared and understanding the task at hand is understood.
	•		Proper organization	Poor Economy		All the necessary units should be contained in that hosting structure
			Transport and communication network			Any infrastructure must have a legacy and be sustainable
			Hosting structure and framework			

#### **Personal Reflections**

Reflexivity is a process whereby the researcher critically reflects oneself during his / her time in the process of collecting, managing and analysing the data collected (Guba and Lincoln, 1985; 1994). Here the researcher looks back at how the research process went and if there were occasions where, owing to the prior relationship or closeness with the subjects, it affected the outcome of the research due to biasness or being subjective, it has to be declared. Having prior knowledge and understanding of the group (participants) in this study, literally put me in the position of both researcher and the researched during the data collection process so I had to refrain from being attached to the participants and manage the process professionally (Greene, 2014; Chaves, 2008). In this study therefore, I had to be conscious of any personal bias due to my own experiences of having been an athlete and also worked with the Ministry in charge of sports in Kenya for 15 years before I took study leave to undertake this doctoral programme.

My duties at the Ministry of Sports involved dealing with sports administrative issues between the Department of Sports and national sports federations on matters concerning disbursement of finance and grants to the sports federations for sports development, training of technical sports personnel, hosting of both national championships and international sports events, and enabling sports federations take their athletes to international championships. I also assisted with issues of bilateral agreements on matters concerning sports with other countries in collaboration with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and International development, and public relations with other Government Ministries and departments. Being an insider researcher and having had the experience of working in events and also know the challenges faced by the participants when hosting the events, did not stop me from asking them questions in relation to their experiences and challenges faced in order to confirm the information that I already knew and to also get more information that I did not have or experience from other events that I was not involved in (Greene, 2014).

The research problem was formally conceived in January 2012 when I started my PhD studies and it sought to extend the previous studies on major sports events in developing countries to investigate the possibilities and challenges of hosting major sports events in Africa with a specific focus on Kenya. I come from Kenya and have worked with the Ministry of Sports in the country as has been mentioned earlier. During the course of my work, I had the opportunity to attend several international sports events where Kenyan sportsmen/women participated and won medals in some of those events. It is from attending these events, which were mostly held in developed countries that I started asking why most of these events were not held in developing countries. It is always a dream for sports people to have such events hosted in their countries and to win international events at home in front of their fans. Kenya being a country known widely for its middle and long distance athletes, it would be great to have at least one major sports events hosted in the country for its citizens to witness their runners win medals in the Kenyan soil. So for the country to host such an event, I thought it would be better to find out the reasons why developing countries do not host these events as much as the developed countries and what they can do in order to host these events. The other motivation for this research was brought about by the difficulties that I, together with my colleagues, would encounter in the course of our duties while dealing with the sports federations, who would come in at the last minute with a request to be facilitated to host a regional or continental sports event, which the Ministry would not even be aware of or given permission for the event to be bid for. This kind of problem came about because the Ministry or the country did not have an event hosting policy and criteria for funding the national sports federations and most of the funding was given depending on political patronage of the federation officials or popularity of the sport. Hence this brought about disruption of the Ministry's budget with some services not getting funding and some federations benefiting more than others despite not having a strategic plan from the beginning.

The way the researcher approaches the research and subjects, and later analyses it and presents it, is an important element of integrity in qualitative study (Holliday, 2007) and Burns (2000) advises that it is also important that the researcher justifies the interpretation. It will be remembered from the start of this chapter that I recognized that due to my work with the Ministry of Sports and relationship with some of the subjects who have been my colleagues as athletes earlier and interacted with others in the sports fraternity, my objectivity might be compromised but I endeavoured to eliminate any biasness that might have developed. My prior knowledge and familiarity with the participants provided this thesis with a unique insight into the underrepresented and often disadvantaged group (Chaves, 2008) in the hosting of major sports events to which they belong.

There are some things that I have been aware of especially having been a hockey player at club level and playing for a self-financing club where during both local and international tournaments, players sometimes had to take care of their own travelling expenses and also help in paying for others due to lack of sponsorship. This leaves me in a kind of dilemma as what is to be expected from the national federation / government in terms of funding and also when the government is not in a position to cater for all sports activities what is to be done to motivate the citizen to engage in sports. Labaree (2002) pointed out that there are dilemmas that an insider researcher like me can experience and added that the advantage an insider researcher has in having knowledge of the community being researched maybe strengthened or weakened by the way the researcher handles himself/herself when relating with the participants during the research process, due to the perceived or real closeness owing to shared experience or social identities (culture, race or gender).

When interviewing the Ministry of sports participants who have been my senior colleagues and supervisors for over 15 years, I encountered some dilemmas in situations where I tried to probe areas but they steered off my line of questioning. Greene (2014) acknowledged that insider researchers do encounter problems such as power struggles with the participants and have to work at impressing these participants (by negotiating their power) in order to get the information that they need. The sports federations were initially sceptical with me but when they realised that what I was mainly interested in the interview was about the country's possibilities and challenges of hosting major sports events they were co-operative. On the other hand, the sports federations kept faulting the government when it came to funding issues and the Sports Act but when it came to sports governance and accountability, they did not want anything to do with the government. Labaree (2002) also noted that when the position of community member changes to being an insider researcher in the same community, there is always bound to be suspicions or fear of hidden motives by the participants leading to withholding of information or access to other participants in the same community. The success of any research process therefore, is determined by how the researcher behaves towards the participants and is perceived by them during the research process (Ellis, 2004).

Having worked with them for a long time and been privy to confidential information about sports matters in the country, I found myself in a difficult position (Greene, 2014) and had to accept some answers that were given by a few of the respondents who I felt were not being completely truthful. This was especially the case in the formulation of the Sport Act where most of them were invited and participated in it but when the final document came out and it did not favour them, they claimed that they were not part of the formulation process. Despite the insider research giving good access to the participants, there are occasions where gaining

access to information could prove to be a problem due to the insider research being assumed to already know the situation (Greene, 2014; Labaree, 2002) or not being trusted by colleagues (Labaree, 2002). The confidentiality that an insider researcher is also obligated and entrusted with owing to employment or being a community member, often puts the researcher in an awkward position in terms to loyalty when it comes to disclosing information that may be deemed to be damaging to the community / organization being researched (Greene, 2014) and this is where I found myself in the process of this research programme where it's success lay with my research being objective and valid.

The research process proved to be worthwhile to me as I was able to interview top sports officials (in Kenya and South Africa) some of whom I had never interacted with personally. Having worked in sports was also helpful in that I was able to access the participants easily apart from the period of the national election campaigns in the country (December 2012). I was able to get back to them during the 2014 London Marathon and the 2014 Commonwealth Games for further clarifications. The Kenyan sports federation officials also helped in linking me with the South African sports federation officials. Having been a government sports official, I can also relate to all the challenges of sports management, hosting major sports events and in the development of sports in the country but I still felt that the participants were better off telling it in their own voices (Holliday, 2007).

### **Limitations and Challenges**

I could not access the documents and reports pertaining to two very important international sports events hosted in the country: the 4<sup>th</sup> All African Games held in 1987 and the 2007 Mombasa World Cross country Championship. This was because the Ministry in charge of sports has moved to about six Ministries since 1987 when the AAG were held. The other reason is that there is no unit in charge of hosting major sports events that would ensure record keeping for such events.

I had initially intended to interview 3 officials from each of the earlier chosen 4 federations: National Olympic Committee of Kenya, Athletics Kenya, Football Kenya Federation and Kenya National Sports Council but due to the political situation in the country during the first stage of the interviews (Dec 2012 – Feb 2013), I was not able to get all the interviews I had intended to get from the above mentioned federations. Most of the interviewees were busy campaigning for their candidates in the national elections and some were also candidates. As a result, I had to reschedule appointments most of the time and in the end I had to replace some and include other federations that were not initially in the plan (Kenya National Paralympic Committee and Kenya Handball Federation).

The enactment of the 2013 Sports Act which had taken a long time was not welcomed by the sports federation officials as they felt that it was more of a cautionary tool to them. Due to this situation, they felt reluctant to talk to people about sporting issues and that included me as a researcher as they felt that I was on the government's side. This also resulted in the delays of the interviews and some interviewees avoiding the Sports Act question altogether. Despite these issues, the participants were mostly cooperative during the interview process and I was able get most of the information that I needed for the research.

### Conclusion

In conclusion, this chapter has discussed the research design process. It started by explaining the research philosophy, justifying the chosen philosophy and explaining the development of this research project. It has also provided a detailed explanation of the data collection process that took place and data analysis process. This chapter also covered the methodology and methods of the main research paradigm of critical realism and personal reflections of the researcher. The thesis adopted the critical realist approach which believes that there are unobservable structures that cause observable events, and in order to solve the observable events, the structures that generate these events must be understood (Anon, u.d)). It is for this reason that this thesis embarked on examining the possibilities and challenges of hosting major sports events in developing countries since most of major sports events were not being hosted in the developing countries.

The next chapter examines Kenya's place in sports worldwide, the country's economic position, sports history, sports administration, sports policy, sports events hosted and the experiences from hosting this events. The discussions in the chapter are drawn from documentary analysis and interview data. Following chapter 5, the next two chapters discuss the empirical findings of stage one and stage two fieldwork.

## Chapter 5

#### KENYA, SPORT AND HOSTING EVENTS

#### Introduction

This chapter considers the case of Kenya, a country that has gained international prominence through sports and is mainly known for its middle and long distance athletes (Bale and Sang, 1996). This is the first findings chapter based mainly on documentary analysis and only a limited section of the challenges and the actual situation of sports in the country have been derived from the expert interviews. The Kenyan case is used to examine the capability of developing countries with regards to hosting major international sport events. This involves examining; the socio-economic status of the country, annual Gross Domestic Product (GDP), investment in sports activities (sport and other related infrastructure, equipment, grass roots sport, elite sport, and training), experience in hosting of international sports events (benefits and challenges faced).

As has already been explained in the earlier chapter, Kenya was chosen foremost because the researcher is from Kenya and has also been a sports administrator in the Ministry of Sports; this therefore enables relatively easy accessibility to key actors of sports in the country and of archival documents and information, and with the main actors of sports in the country. The country's high altitude training centres for endurance training is recognised worldwide and most international athletes who want to excel in track and field come to the country to use it. The country is neither an emerging developing country like Brazil, Russia, India and China – BRIC (the prominent emerging nations from the developing countries) or the MINTS- Mexico, Indonesia, Nigeria, Turkey and South Korea (who are the next emerging countries from the developing countries after the BRICs) and according to the 2013 World Bank report on Economic Update, Kenya is ranked at 24<sup>th</sup> position out of 48 researched countries in African continent (there are 53 countries in Africa) with a per capita income of US\$ 840 and therefore these makes it a possibly representative country for the developing countries (The World Bank, 2013).

This chapter provides a brief overview of the current status of Kenya and its history (pre and colonial period) in relationship to development theory; this will be followed by a history of

sport in the country and the development thereof with regards to the relevant development theory. The discussion will introduce the structure of sport administration in the country, international sports events hosted, and their provision in the 2013 Kenya Sport Law. This is necessary to identify the gap in the Kenya Sport Law in relationship to hosting of major sport events in order to develop an appropriate event policy for developing countries. The following section will briefly describe the history of the country, how it was colonised by Britain and how its heritage has developed.

## A brief history of Kenya

Kenya is an African country located on the eastern part of the continent. Its neighbours include: Tanzania on the south-west, Somalia on the east and South Sudan on the north-west, Ethiopia to the north and Uganda to the west. The country has eight provinces and 47 semi-autonomous counties each having its own semi-autonomous government headed by an elected governor. Figure 5.1 below shows the map of Kenya with its 47 counties.

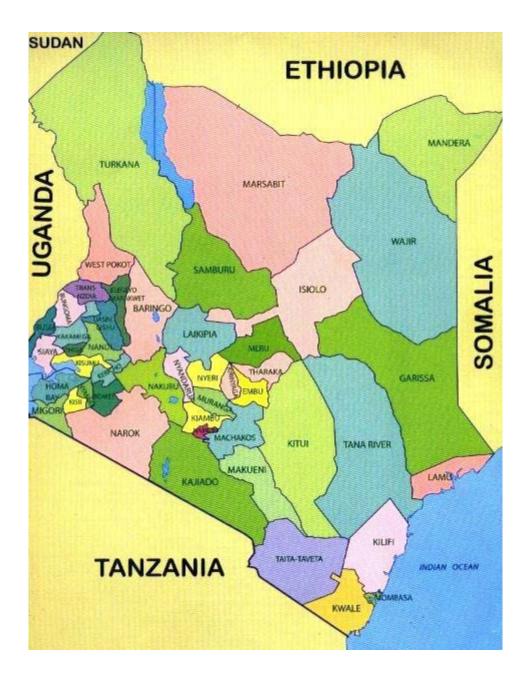


Figure 5.1: Map of Kenya - Source - <u>www.afdb.org</u> (African Development Bank Website)

The country has a population of 43 million people according to the national census of 2009 (KNBS, 2010). Its economy is the largest in East and Central Africa and the capital city, Nairobi is a major commercial hub in the region (Wadawi et al, 2011). In the East African region, the country is still considered to be the most industrialised though its industry represents only ten per cent of its Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Kenya's economy is highly dependent on agricultural sector that accounts for 50 per cent of its export earnings (The World Bank, 2013). Tourism follows second at 18 per cent (Manyara and Jones, 2005).

Kenya is a developing country and for it to progress from its current status, it has to grow towards self-reliance and contentment in order to be considered to be developed (Remenyi, 2004). According to Remenyi (2004), development is a process where countries obtain the means to be responsible for their own livelihoods, welfare and future. This is not the case with Kenya, as it still depends on foreign aid and loans to meet the shortfalls in its national budgetary needs. Willis (2005) explained that a country can be considered modern in terms of development when it is has high industrialization, is more urban and relies heavily on technology. However, there have been questions on the assumption of industrialization being a state of development (Kingsbury, 2004). So many countries became industrialised resulting to saturation for the finished products which made finding the market for these products a problem hence manufacturing became less important for wealth creation (Cornelissen 2004a). Consequently, countries started looking for other options and service industry and higher technology has taken over (Kingsbury, 2004). Similarly, Cornelissen (2004a) added that countries have now changed to new growth areas like tourism, events and sports. If countries have to go through the stages that the developed countries have gone through: industrialization and now to service industry and high technology, then it can be said that Kenya in this case is far from being identified as a developed country when it still relies heavily on agriculture and its industries only contribute to ten per cent of its annual GDP (The World Bank, 2013). Kingsbury (2004) suggests since the path to development is different from country to country, some countries may be able to progress directly to service industry and high technology development though none or very few developing countries manage to achieve this.

There is no name that Kenya was known by before the colonization period as people lived according to their traditional tribes who had distinct boundaries. It was only after the Imperial British East Africa Company (IBEAC) came to the country in 1888 and conquered it that the country was demarcated and named the East Africa Protectorate (Lonsdale and Berman, 1979). It was later renamed Kenya in 1920 by the British Foreign office who took over from the IBEAC company in 1895 after its collapse (Lonsdale and Berman, 1979). The country is believed to have been named after its highest mountain and the third worldwide; Mt. Kenya (Kenya Tourism Guide, 2010). However, there are several stories regarding the origin of the name Kenya, where most people believe that it originated from the Bantu tribes living near the mountain; Kamba and Kikuyus. The Kamba's called the mountain Keenya, to signify it as a place of snow, while the Kikuyu's referred to it as Kirinyaga or Kerenyaga to mean the 'mountain of whiteness'. These tribal names were thought to have been hard for the British to

pronounce; hence they shortened it to Kenya (Kenya Tourism Guide, 2010:4). Before the British, the country had earlier been conquered by Portuguese and Arab traders who mainly centred their trade on the coastal towns of East Africa (Mombasa, Malindi, Lamu and Zanzibar) and never ventured to the interior of the country. They traded mainly in ivory, leopard skins, gold, mangrove poles for ship building and slaves while they brought with them pottery, beads and clothes. They also brought with them their Islamic religion and customs. On the other hand, British initial interest in Kenya was for free trade but when other European countries started scrambling for African countries to take advantage of their raw materials and forced labour, they also joined in and the partition of Africa became inevitable. By 1900 most of the continent had been partitioned into small colonies (Sayer, 1998). Three decades into its rule, the British had transformed the economic and political structures of the colony to the capitalist world economy (Lonsdale and Berman, 1979). The British exploited the country and left them with an economy that was highly monopolistic, as capital was seized from the locals by force through rendering them squatters and labourers in their own land (Leys, 1975; Sayer, 1998). All the surplus profits, mostly through unequal trade, were shipped to Britain (Leys, 1975; Sayer, 1998). In support, McKay (2004) added that exploitation of the developing countries by the rich countries has been going on for a long time and most of them grew economically by systematically exploiting their colonies. Matunhu (2011) concluded that the development of Europe was as a result of their exploitation by using the continents free labour and transporting the gains and minerals back to Europe led to the underdevelopment of Africa.

Before the conquest by the colonialists, the native people of what is known today as Kenya, used to live together with their extended relations in communal land and shared their wealth and duties (farming, hunting and grazing livestock). Most of the native males whose land was taken away and forced into labour, had their families and traditions broken as they had to look for jobs as labourers in far off places to sustain their families and also pay a hut tax that was introduced by the colonialists (Sayer, 1998). This brought about individualism as people from then on only cared for their immediate families unlike before. The British used the divide and rule system to identify people from among the local communities whom they made chiefs who thereafter used their positions to accumulate land and wealth at the expense of their fellow Africans (Leys, 1975; Sayer, 1998). During the transition period from colonialism, Britain also made some negotiations for their own benefit with the would be leaders of the colony for the preservation of monopolistic economic structure and to sell them back their original land at the current market rate of that time in return for independence (Leys, 1975). This left the new

country economically dependent on their former colonizers and in order to be in good 'economic terms', to continuously go by their wishes: and neo-colonialism. These same land issues are the cause of the hostilities currently in the country as some of the original owners of the land taken forcefully by the settlers, can no longer lay claim to their own land (Hornsby, 2011) that was divided amongst the ruling class immediately after independence.

Dependency theory of development features the existence and continual underdevelopment of the developing countries due to the unequal international capitalistic system of the rich country - poor country relationships where it would be hard or nearly impossible for the poor countries to be self-reliant and independent (Todaro and Smith, 2011). This sentiment is also shared by Darby (2002) who stressed that one of the most useful features from the dependency model is the fact that it explains that the relationship between the developed world and the developing world is a historically dynamic process which has manifested itself in different forms and is likely to continue in the future. Kenya and other developing countries continue to depend on the developed nations for financial stability of their countries; relying on financial aid and grants for shortfall in their national budget. In the sporting scene, Kenya has also relied on foreign aid for sporting activities: the building of its biggest stadium; Moi International Sports Centre, where the Chinese government contributed 52% of its total cost and over 200 of their workers also aided the Kenyan workers in the stadium construction (Bale and Sang, 1996: 116). The stadium continues to depend on the Chinese personnel and spare parts for its repair and maintenance work (Bale and Sang, 1996: 116). Bale and Sang (1996) further added that though this stadium was initially seen to bring development to Kenyan sports in terms of providing modern training for its athletes, it has not been accessible to all sports people who would wish to use it as not all of them can pay to be able to use it.

However, it cannot be construed that all the British and other colonizers brought to Africa was bad; there are also a positive side to their colonization of Africa and Kenya in particular. The railway line from Mombasa, Kenya to Kampala, Uganda and other connecting parts in the region was built by the British (IBEAC), for ease of communication and trade but also helped in the formation of several townships that the line crossed through (Obudho and Obudho, 1992); Nairobi, the capital city which was not known before the railway line crossed through it. Education, Christianity and sports were also introduced by the British. Until recently in Kenya, schools that were started by the British and Irish missionaries continued to excel in academic subjects and sports and one of the most famous for both academics and sports is St.

Patricks High School in Iten started by the Irish Patrician Brothers (Bale and Sang, 1996). Most of the Kenyan male long distance runners who have excelled in major international sports events went through this school (Ibrahim Hussein, three time Boston Marathon Champion in 1988, 1991and 1992, David Rudisha, the current 800m world record holder, Wilson Kipketer, former 800m world record holder, amongst others) and were coached by Brother Colm O'Connell, an Irish Catholic teacher who joined the school in the 1970s as a geography teacher and later became the head teacher of the school and coach.

## **Post-Colonial Kenya**

The country was colonised by Britain until 1963 when it got its independence (Ogot and Ochieng, 1995) and then became a republic the following year. The country's first president was Jomo Kenyatta, who ruled the country for 15 years (1963-1978). Since then the country has been ruled by three other presidents (Daniel Arap Moi: 1978-2002, Mwai Kibaki: 2002 -2013 and Uhuru Kenyatta: 2013- to date). From the time of independence, the country had enjoyed relative peace and stability (with the exception of the 1982 failed coup) compared to most of its neighbours – Uganda, Somalia, Ethiopia, Sudan, Rwanda and Congo (Sayer, 1998; Okech and Kimemia, 2012) - that experienced for example military coups, political clashes or ethnic genocide. The disputed national elections of 2008 that resulted in approximately 1,500 people being killed and more than 300,000 people displaced (Okech and Kimemia, 2012; Dagne, 2011) has changed the country as it is no longer perceived as the peaceful country it was some decades ago (Hornsby, 2011). The other factor is inter - tribal tensions that have continued to be felt since independence among the top three politically dominant tribes; Kikuyu, Luo and Kalenjins. The other ethnic tensions in the country have been centred on land rights, poverty, elite survival strategies and state abuses among others (Hornsby, 2011). Likewise, Bale and Sang (1996: 40) noted that 'there is no concept of a nation. One is always a Kikuyu, a Luo, a Nandi, an Asian or a European'.

Unlike most African countries, the country has avoided military rule, warlord-ism, social instability or social collapse due to the loyalty of the military forces, and constitutional processes are always followed whereby disputes are taken to court and the losers never resorted to war (Hornsby, 2011). Hornsby (2011) also adds that luck could have also helped the country not to go the same way as other countries in Africa. During the disputed national elections of 2008 and the crisis that followed, the international community - African Union (AU) and United Nations (UN) - did help by intervening in the Kenyan situation by sending emissaries

to mediate in the situation which resulted in a formation of a coalition government in 2008 that was to lead the country till the next elections in 2013. Many people would ask, why Kenya and where were the international community when the Rwandese were butchering themselves or Somalia that had degenerated so much and did not have a government for more than two decades. The Kenyan case seems to have been special because of many foreign investments and many foreign settlers in the country (Hornsby, 2011). What is the political situation now? Tensions are still high in the country due to the fear of ethnic violence and political uncertainty as International Criminal Court (ICC) is yet to decide on the case of those accused of the 2008 post-election violence (The World Bank, 2013).

At independence Kenya was economically equal to countries like Singapore, South Korea and Tunisia in terms of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) but these countries are now ahead of it and in 2005 countries like Chad and Mauritania that were behind it in 1963 have overtaken it (Hornsby, 2011). Though the country made major social and economic progress after independence, the rich continue to be richer while the poor are increasingly underprivileged (Sayer, 1998). Remenyi (2004) when explaining the meaning of 'de – development' which he defined as a state where a country loses the capacity of self-reliance and contentment deteriorates because of various cases like wars, civil unrest, corruption, natural calamity amongst others - included Kenya as one of the developing countries that can be considered as failures. Other countries are Zimbabwe, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Angola, Mozambique Philippines, North Korea and Iraq. Kenya's case might be because of mismanagement or corruption as the country is ranked at position 139 out of 174 countries with a score of 27% (Transparency International, 2013). According to Hornsby (2011) economic performance of a country has always been determined by Western political pressure where good relations and orientation to international relations encouraged investment and tourism to the country. Grants and foreign aid to support shortfalls to the national budget was only given subject to Western interests in the country and withdrawn whenever it was felt that the ruling elite did not go along with their wishes.

Kenya celebrated 50 years of independence in December 2013 yet the country is still characterised by mass inequality with a wide gap between the rich and the poor, high insecurity, ethnicity, grabbing of public land, and widespread corruption amongst others (Dagne, 2011,) which hinders any meaningful development and creates suffering among the people who need the public services. According to a World Bank report in 2013; Economic Update report, Kenya

still lags behind despite a number of its counterparts increasingly improving in the African continent.

#### Sport in Kenya

This section draws heavily on the work of Bale and Sang (1996) for the history of sports in Kenya and when explaining the history of sports in Kenya, it is athletics in the country that will be emphasized because of its importance in the history of sports in the country. It was athletics that the country first participated in at an international sports events-1954 Vancouver Commonwealth Games and the sport brought the country to international limelight (Bale and Sang, 1996). There are other sports in Kenya that the country participates in international competitions like football, Hockey, Cricket and Rugby. Football is the most popular sports (participation and spectatorship) in the country though the country does not perform well in it at international level and the sport last represented the country at the African Cup of Nations (AFCON) - biannual continental championships in 2004 (AfriCOG, 2011). Most of the sports that used to perform well have deteriorated due to poor management, inadequate funding for sports activities, lack of international exposure, corruption, and a lack of trained personnel (Republic of Kenya, 2012; AfriCOG, 2011).

The history of sport in the country goes back to the period before the establishment of the British rule where the people of Kenya were mainly involved in traditional sport and physical culture, which were mainly confined within various indigenous communities, such as dancing, throwing, wrestling, hunting, traditional archery and others (Ministry of National Heritage and Sports, 2002; Bale and Sang, 1996). Bale and Sang (1996) posit that during that time the traditional sport was mainly for hunting, fighting defence, rite of passage and entertainment purpose and not competitive. The British colonialists and missionaries, who settled in the colony in the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, considered some of the African traditional sports as evil and therefore discouraged them from those sports activities (Rintaugu et al, 2008). Many modern sports in Kenya were introduced during the period of colonialism though some of them were played along racial lines, for example, rugby, hockey, cricket, and tennis among others (Ministry of National Heritage and Sports, 2002). The 1954 Commonwealth Games held in Vancouver, Canada was the first intercontinental sporting event in which a Kenyan track and field team participated and the team was made up of some sprinters, middle and long distance runners, a couple of high jumpers and a javelin thrower (Bale and Sang, 1996:3). Bale and Sang noted that the international events that the country participated in from 1954 thrust the

country to the international scene. The modern sports apart from civilizing the colonies also made it possible for interaction with other regions through participating in international sports events and this could not have happened without the colonial relations (Saavedra 2009). Since then, there has been increased competition and participation by Kenyans in both local and international sports competitions.

When looking at the development of sport, I agree with Gruneau (1988) explanation that industrialization and urbanization are the most notable determinants of development in society. In sports, industrialization and urbanization has transformed most of the traditional games and body movements that existed in the past to what we have today. In Kenya, traditional games like jumping, throwing, and running that were practised without rules and proper organization, have now been developed to: high jump; pole vault; javelin; modern sprints, middle and long distance running; ball games – basketball, handball amongst others with rules and measured field of play or distance.

Although criticized by post-colonialists, the modern theory of development by Rostow (1960) can be used to illustrate the development of sports in Kenya. Rostow (1960) proposed that the path to development and modernity for any nation involves a series of steps starting from leaving of the traditional society and moving to other stages: pre-take-off society; take-off; the road to maturity; and finally mass consumption society. In sports for the Kenyan situation, the traditional society stage was the period before the colonialists (before 1880s), when the inhabitants of the current Kenya used to practice their folk games: throwing, running, jumping, and wrestling. The pre-take-off and the take –off stage is the time when the colonialist came to the country and started discouraging / restricting the traditional folk games while introducing their own games: modern sports (late 1880s to early 1900s). The road to maturity stage is the period (mid 1920s to late 1950s) that saw the decline of traditional folk games and the setting up of sport administration (Arab and African Sports Association -AASA formed in 1925) in the country and the start of appearance in international competitions; 1954 Vancouver Commonwealth Games. Similarly, Bale and Sang (1996: 69) constitute this period to be the beginning of 'modernization - and the globalisation - of Kenyan athletics'. The period after the country's independence, witnessed the setting up of administrative units in the country for mass sports development countrywide and start of the country's success in track and field athletics. This can be referred to as the 'mass consumption stage of development' of Kenyan sport. The modernization of sports in the country included: use of proper sport equipment, rules for each sport, the sport being competitive, 'running tracks were increased and sports events were being recorded' (Bale and Sang, 1996:93). Traditional equipment like spears were replaced by a regulation javelin among the throwing events.

According to Bale and Sang (1996:77), the formal administration of sports in the country was initiated by the colony's first director of education, James Orr, in 1924 when he suggested that an African sports federation be formed and this resulted in the formation of the Arab and African Sports Association (AASA). AASA held their first country wide sports event for the non-European in 1925 and it was in 1949 that the colony got its first Sports Officer, A. E. Evans who initiated the formation of the Kenya Amateur Athletics Association in 1951 (Bale and Sang 1996:93). Bale and Sang (1996) posit that this heralded the beginning of modernization of the Kenyan Athletics and the demise of the traditional running that was common during the pre-colonial area among the Kenyan tribes. Daniel Arap Moi, the second president of Kenya (1979 – 2002) served as the vice - president of AASA in 1950s and was also among the first African sport officials in Kenya (Bale and Sang 1996: 110). During his term as president, being a sport enthusiast, he attended and presided in most of the local and international sports events hosted in the country. Figure 5.2 below illustrates the development of sports in the country according to a model derived from Modernization Theory.

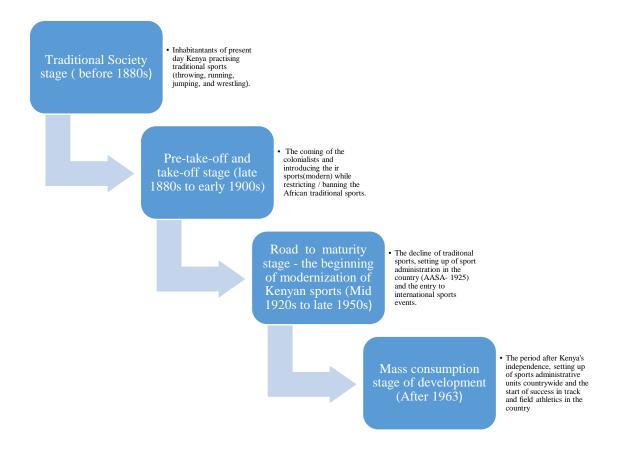


Figure 5.2: Development of Sports in Kenya - Source adapted from Rostow (1960).

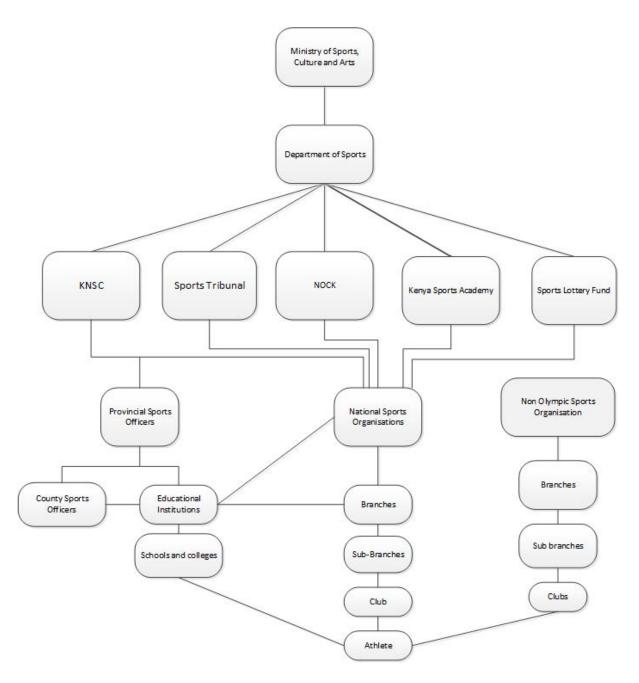
Over the years, the country's athletes have made a mark with exemplary performances, winning medals mostly in athletics events (especially track and field), although in individual sports and never in team sports. Like any other world sports power, the country has continued to draw its fame by participating abroad. Apart from individual athletics events, the other popular sport in the country, football, has not been able to grow and performance by the national team in regional and continental events has been very poor (AfriCOG, 2011). Kenya is an example of the countries whose performance in sports has deteriorated. Three decades ago, Kenya used to perform well in sports like hockey, boxing, both middle and long distance running at international level but currently, it cannot be represented in some of those sports at the same level (Odhiambo, 2011) due to lack of functional sports policy and strategic planning; sport management, sport talent development and sustainment, discontinuation of physical education in schools and integration of sports from school to club level.

Sports apart from making Kenya be known worldwide, has also been instrumental for development of some towns in the country and promoting unity amongst its citizen. The most important of which is Eldoret town on the Western part of the country. The town was generally an agricultural town but the town has been mainly developed into an investment destination by the prize earnings of the Kenyan athletes from marathons and road races abroad (Jarvie and Sikes, 2012; Kenyan interviews, 2014; Lebo, 2007). Lebo (2007) noted that Kenyan runners earn approximately Ksh. 500 million (US \$ 5.7 million) yearly from running prize money which they have used to invest in commercial real estate and large scale farming in Eldoret and other neighbouring towns where most of them hail from. This has motivated other young athletes from the area to also join track and field athletes and emulate their predecessors. Lebo (2007) pointed out that for the community around this town; running has become more worthwhile profession and alternate to university education. It is sports that united Kenyans and they forgot their political differences after the 2008 post-election violence with the success of their team to the Beijing Olympic and Paralympic Games (Rintaugu et al, 2008).

# **Sports Administration in Kenya**

The Department of Sports, currently under the Ministry of Sports, Culture and the Arts is the Kenyan government's organ charged with the responsibility for developing and promoting sports and recreational activities in the country (Kenya Law, 2013). It provides the government with technical advice on all matters relating to sports and recreation. The Department, which is headed by Secretary of Sport, was formed by a presidential decree in 1987 and became effective in 1988. Critical realism enables an examination of the relationship between the Ministry of Sports and other institutions in the country and how they relate to each other. In the global context, the global sports system is the structure while the Ministry of Sports and the national sports federations are the agents within the structure. The agents work together in order to find the possibilities of hosting major sports events in Kenya. In the Kenyan context (Sports Administration in the country), the Ministry of sports and the quasi-government bodies within the Ministry and the sports federations work together to promote and develop sports in the country. In other words, these organisations are agents of the GSS in the development of sports in their respective countries. The Ministry in charge of sport through the Department of Sports is wholly responsible for policy formulation however; policy implementation; monitoring and the evaluation process are collaborative effort of all stakeholders who are drawn from both the public and private sector (Ministry of National Heritage and Sports, 2002). The government and the sports federations have to work together in order to develop sports

and recreation in the country. They cannot leave all this work to the other. In the country, the federations are more involved in the identification of talent though the Ministry of Sports officials at the grass roots level try to help by supporting the development of these talents through organizing various tournaments for their improvement. The other public sector stakeholders in sports management are Kenya National Sports Council (KNSC), National Olympic Committee of Kenya (NOCK), National Sports Federations, and Educational Institutions amongst others. KNSC was formed in 1966 under the Society's Act (cap 108) of the Laws of Kenya as an umbrella body to co-ordinate and harmonize the activities of sports organizations (most of whom are voluntary) in the country. It is a link between sports organizations and the Government (Ministry of National Heritage and Sports, 2002). This means that individual associations whenever they want help from the government, they have to approach it through the KNSC. The KNSC also has to regulate the activities of these associations so that they do not go contrary to their mandate (promoting and developing their respective sport). Members of the KNSC are elected by the sports federations affiliated to them and is headed by a ceremonial patron who is the Minister in charge of Sports. NOCK is a constituent body of International Olympic Committee (IOC) and charged with preparing Kenyan sports teams for the Olympic and Commonwealth Games. Most of the sports federations affiliated with KNSC are also affiliated to NOCK and its members are elected by these sports federations every four years. At the grass roots level, an individual is a member of a club, which is then affiliated to the divisional level association. Divisional association is affiliated to a county association and thereafter a national association.



*Figure 5.3: Key Agencies and Actors of Sports in Kenya- Source adapted from the 2013 Kenya Sport Law* 

Figure 5.3 above shows an organogram of Sport Administration in Kenya. According to the country's Sports Act, all sports federations are answerable to the Ministry of Sports through the Kenya National Sports Council (KNSC). There are some federations that have provincial associations and county associations affiliated to them. In the Kenya Sports Act 2013, the national sports associations have to be registered with the Ministry of Sports unlike before where they used to be registered with the Registrar of Societies. There are also sports

federations that are not affiliated to either KNSC or NOCK as most of them are financial well off and do not need government funding; Kenya Polo, Kenya Horse Riding, Kenya Motocross Federations (SF KE-2).

At an individual level, an athlete is a member of a club that is then affiliated to a sports federation at the sub branch level - county level. At the provincial level, there are branches that are answerable to the national federations. Corporate and educational institutions are directly affiliated to branches where they are located. There are several institutions formed by the government to assist the government in providing sports services to the public through the sports federations: Sports Tribunal – adjudicate on sports disputes of sports federations; Kenya Sports Academy – trains and develops sports talents; and Sports Lottery Fund – manage the sports fund and disburses it to the sports federations (Kenya Law, 2013). Though these organisations have different mandates, they support one another. For instance, the Sport Lottery Fund disburses funds to the other institutions for their operations. When there are such as elections disputes, wrangles within national sports federation, the KNSC refers them to the Sports Tribunal if it is beyond it.

The services of the Department of Sports are devolved to the grass roots level where there are: Provincial Sports Officers at the provincial level; County Sports Officers at the county level and Divisional Sports Officers at the divisional level. The objectives of the department include the following: Promotion of fair play in sports by ensuring that sports rules are properly followed. This is to be done by having all sports officials trained on the sports rules. Kenyans are also to be educated on the importance of sports. This is to be done by making Physical Education (hereafter P.E) compulsory in schools and training their teachers, facilitate the development of sports facilities, provision of sports equipment and encourage participation in sports. The government also encourage the sports federation to regularly host of international competitions and promotion of sports tourism (Ministry of National Heritage and Sports, 2002).

# **Kenyan Sports Policy**

Policies in sport are used by governments, sports governing bodies, individual sports clubs to run their affairs / institutions (Houlihan, 1991). Jenkins (1978) defines public policy as sets of interrelated decisions that actors or agencies take concerning the selections of goals and the means of achieving these goals within a specified situation. According to this definition,

policies are put in place for a particular situation (problem) that needs to be solved. Therefore, actors and agencies both in public and private sectors who are affected by this 'problem' come together to make decisions on how to go about in solving the situation by setting up goals and how the goals are to be achieved. In support, King (2009) posit that in practice, policies are made in response to a given situation or problem.

In Canada, government interest in sport and its subsequent increase in funding of the same were occasioned by the dismal performance at the 2004 Athens Olympics, whereas in Australia, it was when the country won the rights to host the Sydney Olympics that the government increased its funding of elite athletes to boost their performance in the Olympics (Houlihan, 2005). Houlihan (2005) added that many countries are now using sport as a way of reducing juvenile offences, reducing obesity among the young, and achieving greater inclusion among the marginalised groups. All these issues need policy guidelines to set directions on how to effectively manage them and achieve the desired goals.

Though Kenya started participating in international sports events as early as 1954 before its independence and formally setting up of Department of Sports in 1988 as discussed earlier, it was only in 2013 that Kenya finally got to have a Sport Act to guide in the management of sports activities in the country. Before then, there have been a lot of management issues especially when it came to dealing with sports federations that were going contrary to their own constitutions (not holding elections at the required time, not having their financial accounts audited as per the constitution requirements, mismanagement of funds, and abuse of sportsmen). The country has also witnessed ugly wrangles within the sports organizations such as Kenya Football Federation, Cricket Kenya, Athletics Kenya and Kenya Hockey Union among others which contributed to the declining performance both at national and international levels (Republic of Kenya, 2012; Odhiambo, 2011). Generally there was no policy guiding on the running of sports and this led to mismanagement, wrangles in the sports federations and court cases (Republic of Kenya, 2012).

Due to the above problems, the government through the Ministry of Sport initiated the policy making process for the country and based their policies to countries like Australia, South Africa and the UK. According to some of my interviewees (MOS - KE 1, 2; SF KE-1) they based their decision on the fact that these countries were doing well in sports and had a good structure for sports development.

Those countries were looked at because they have some common things with Kenya. South Africa being better off than Kenya in sports performance yet in Africa. Australia and the UK were looked at because they have well developed facilities and perform well in sports. Britain was looked at mainly also because of well-developed sports lottery fund. All these countries were looked at in totality to check what suits Kenya (MOS- KE, 3).

The rationale for the Kenya National Sports Policy (KNSP) was as follows. Firstly, to streamline all aspects of sports so as to improve and sustain the existing sports and harmonise all sports. Secondly, the sport policy was to act as the supreme constitution for all sporting activities, and would be used for reference and guideline for the same. Thirdly, the policy was to enhance the performance of elite sport. Fourthly, to outline the Government desired procedures in the planning, organization, participation and management of sports and fifthly, use sports to enhance the health of all citizens (Ministry of National Heritage and Sports, 2002:9). Most of these justifications for sport policy are shared with other countries. Green (2007) while examining the policy priorities in Australia, Canada and the UK, noted that they all majorly concentrated on elite sport promotion (Australia and Canada for the last 20 years while the UK last ten years).

The 2013 Kenya Sport Act which is a sequel to the Kenya National Sports Policy which was started in 2002, has mostly concentrated on illustrating the mandate of the various sports institutions already in place, re-structuring some that are already in place, and the newly formed (Sports Lottery Fund, Sports Disputes Tribunal, Sports Registrar office). Apart from illustrating the institutions, the requirements of the office holders, the Sports Act also outlines the rules and regulations of conducting business among those institutions in the Act and offences and penalties that will be accorded to those who go against it. Compared to the Sports Act, the Sports Policy was more detailed explaining what is to be expected in the management of sports in the country (Kenya Law, 2013).

## **Challenges of Sport in Kenya**

The major challenge for sports in the country has been the lack of recognition that continues to hinder its progress. This is because sport in the country has never been given the right recognition that it deserves yet it is known to be important for entertainment, national cohesion, health, and employment amongst others (Kenya Interviews, 2013; Republic of Kenya, 2012). One of my interviewees (MOS KE – 1) felt sports should be put in the forefront of the budgeting system of the government since what it has been funding is very negligible compared to the recognition the country has been getting from sports. MOS KE 1 further added that in order for better performance in sports in the country, the funding for sports infrastructure and equipment needed to be improved. In addition, SF KE (II) -1 lamented on the low level of support from the government on sport activities in the country. According to SF KE (II) -1,

'The funding at the grassroots level has been insignificant and there have been very few sports personnel at that level. The government has only been coming into the sports forcibly when the teams are going for major championships like the Olympics, Commonwealth and All African Games. With the devolvement, new constitution and the Sport Act, we are yet to see what is going to happen to sports in the country'. (SF KE (II) -1)

Out of the annual budgetary allocation for expenditure for all government activities in the country, sports gets a paltry 2% compared to other departments (MOS KE 3; MOS-(II) KE 1). The Ministry of Sports participants indicated that what the Ministry receives from the Treasury for sporting activities is always inadequate and they are most of the times forced to go back to the treasury to request for more funding despite having given their budgetary estimates on time (MOS-(II) KE 1). They added that this has led them not to be able to finish some development projects started and there have been cases where some country's national sports teams have missed out of major championships (MOS-(II) KE 3). Likewise, Obonyo (2013) added that some sports federations turn to the general public to support their sporting activities and national teams for international assignment when they fail to get funding from the government. When this happens, there is the possibility of the sports federations lacking respect and good will for the Ministry if it does not help them financially. It is also because of this that most sports federations felt that the government does not value or consider sports to be important (SF KE (II) -1).

Kenya sports federations like many other national federations in developing countries continue to depend heavily on their government for funding of their sports activities. This can be explained using dependency theory where developing countries instead of improving have continued to dismally deteriorate. When there is no improvement in their governments in terms of development, sports is also affected and have to continue depending on the government and their respective IF. The global capitalistic economy serves the interest of the rich and in sports, the same applies as the global sports system where the developed countries dominate the international sports federations and use it to serve their own interests. Due to the inability of the governments in developing countries to fully fund sports in their respective countries, they have continued to rely on the developed countries and other developing countries to support their sports activities - training their sports officials, donation of sports equipment, and construction of sports infrastructure (Andreff, 2006; Bale and Sang, 1996). China which is still considered a developing country, has been instrumental in the construction of sports infrastructure in the developing countries (Horne, 2011). The dependency of the developing countries to the developed countries has manifested itself in so many forms and it is likely continue in the future (Darby, 2002). This is because the global system; international division of labour, class distinction and global capitalism serves the interests of the rich countries (developed) and instead promote dominance and exploitation of the developing countries. The whole of the economic system of the developing countries, including sports, will instead under develop in this system.

There other problems affecting sports in the country inadequate sports technical personnel especially at the grassroots level. Most of the Sports Officers of the Ministry of Sports working at the district level manage up to four districts due to shortage of staff yet they are only supposed to serve one district. Whereas in far flung districts areas, there are no officers and Youth Officers or other government officers especially from the Ministry of Labour and Social Services assist with the work of sports (MOS KE 2). MOS KE 2 indicated that other Ministries (Defence, Office of the President, Education, Finance, Development, Social Services, amongst others) had more than one technical official at the district level. Having one officer managing more than one district is a major cause of ineffectiveness as this officer will not be able to serve both district to the required standard and this will also lead to poor performance in the mandate of the Ministry which is promoting and developing sports and recreation in the country. Having officers from other Ministries who are not trained in sports to do the work of sports officers is doing a disservice to the citizens as these officers will not be able to do the sports work as expected and this might be some of the causes of poor performance of sports in the country (Republic of Kenya, 2012; Odhiambo, 2011).

Inadequate or lack of sports facilities is another major challenge to most developing countries and it is not only particular to Kenya as will be discussed in detail in next two chapters (six and seven). Kenya only has one international standard multi event stadium and most of the districts do not have stadia but open fields. This affects most of the training and development of athletes especially when they have to participate at international championships since they are not used to those facilities and therefore cannot compete at the same level with other countries (MOS KE 3; SF KE 2). Ministry of Sports acknowledged that the facilities in the country have been lacking but explained that sports is very important to the country and thus the government has aggressively embarked on rehabilitating and developing sports facilities which they have set to have at least one standard multisport facility in each of the eight regions of the country in the next ten years in their Kenya Vision 2030 Plan (MOS KE II – 1; 2; 3, Republic of Kenya, 2007). Countries that are serious about the performance of their athletes in international competitions always ensure that they invest in sports facilities, equipment and personnel (Houlihan et al 2009; Andreff, 2001; 2006).

There other serious issues facing sports in the country is mismanagement and corruption. Several sports federations have had cases of mismanagement of office and corruption amongst their elected office bearers (Republic of Kenya, 2012; AFriCOG, 2011; and Munro, 2005). Many federation officials use sports as a stepping-stone to politics and self-enrichment and do not care about the rules and welfare of the athletes. A Parliamentary Committee instituted to report on the challenges faced by the Kenya Team delegation to the 2011 Maputo All African Games reported that most sports federation officials in the country earn a living through 'getting elected into the associations where they sit back and enjoy trips to international games and congresses and the accompanying allowances' and that is the reason why most sports federations have officials who have been in those federations for many years and do not want to leave these offices (Republic of Kenya, 2012:17; AFriCOG, 2011).

Andreff (2006; 2001) noted that sports in developing countries have been lacking in the required resources for sport development in their countries and have been dependent on developed countries. At the same time, they also lose their talented elite athletes through 'muscle drain' to the developed countries where these athletes get better pay and training facilities (Andreff, 2001). Kenya has been affected by its long distance runners defecting to oil rich nations, such as Qatar and United Arab Emirates (UAE). In 2005 alone, 40 Kenyan athletes defected to Qatar and Bahrain and the IAAF reported that it had approved at least 258

nationality transfers between 1998 and 2007 (Adjaye, 2010). Though the athletes who migrate might be able to get better training and pay, their original countries loose as they have trained and exposed the athletes to international level (Maguire, 1999) and their defection might deny other athletes the chance to be also trained and developed since most countries would be wary of investing in athletes who might run away to other countries. So long as these athletes are able to get better pay, training and reach their optimum athletic career levels by moving to these countries, they should be allowed to go and the new clubs they join compensate their local clubs where they trained before. Kenya has been relying on track and field athletes for medals in major sports events (IAAF World Athletics Championships, Commonwealth and Olympic Games) instead of developing other sports and with the continual dismal performance and defection of its athletes, there will be a time that the country will not win any medal at these championships. Similarly, Levermore (2009) when discussing the dependency theory, also pointed out that developing countries specialise in certain few products when their values are high but when these same products fail, they suffer extensively. Hence, Kenya should try developing other sports also in order to get better performance and more medals in major sports events.

The participants from the Ministry informed me that they were continually engaging the decision makers and educating them on the importance of sports. However, they added that there are other government sectors also competing for the governments' scarce resources. The current government has recognised the importance of sports and there is likelihood that sports will see increased budgeting in future (MOS II – 1). The Ministry has since identified five regional stadia and embarked on rehabilitating them to international standards. The identified stadia are in Mombasa, Kisumu, Nakuru, Eldoret and Garissa (MOS II – 2). This will be good for the country as Kenya will be hosting the 2018 CHAN - African Championship of Nations. MOS II -2 also added that the Ministry was partnering with owners of sports facilities to share the costs of maintaining and developing their sports facilities with the aim of making them accessible to sports people and locals

# Conclusion

In conclusion, in order to tell you about sports in Kenya, this chapter was able to discuss the history of Kenya during the pre-colonial and the colonial times, how the country developed

until it got its independence to its current status. More importantly, the history of sports from the pre-colonial times was discussed and how it developed through to its current status. The chapter was also able to examine the sport administration in the country and the international sports events hosted before in relation to the Kenya Sport Law 2013. However, from the interviews and document analysis (Kenya Sport Act), the chapter revealed that there is no Event Hosting Policy nor does the new Sport Law have guidelines on the same to give guidelines on how to go about hosting of sports events in the country and events are hosted haphazardly without any plan. The economy of the country has worsened compared to the time it got independence where it was economically equal to countries like Singapore, South Korea and Tunisia in terms of Gross Domestic product (GDP). These countries are now way ahead of it and in 2005 countries like Chad and Mauritania that were behind it in 1963 have overtaken it. The country is also still characterised by mass inequality with a wide gap between the rich and the poor, high insecurity, ethnicity, grabbing of public land, and widespread corruption amongst others (Dagne, 2011). This hinders it from having any meaningful development and creates suffering among the people who need the public services.

Kenyan sports federations like many other national federations in developing countries continue to depend heavily on their government for funding of their sports activities. Critical realism and Dependency Theory enables us to understand why countries in the developing countries instead of improving have continued to deteriorate. In this thesis, therefore, though the developing countries wish to host major sports events, the actual reality depends on many external factors such as the prohibitive requirements for hosting these events by the global sports system and other pre-existing structures that have developed over time and continue rendering these countries dependent on the same GSS for support in their sports activities. Dependency theory illustrates the existence and the continual underdevelopment of the peripheral countries due to the historical evolution and highly unequal international capitalistic system of the rich country - poor country relationships (Todaro and Smith, 2011). Similarly, Kingsbury (2004) noted that the world was increasingly being divided between the powerful developed countries and the impoverished developing countries. Todaro and Smith (2011) further proclaimed that it was difficult or nearly impossible for the poor nations to be selfreliant and independent due to the exploitative nature of the rich nations as the developed countries continue exploiting the developing countries through getting their raw materials cheaply. When there is no improvement in their governments in terms of development, sports is also affected and has to continue depending on the government and their respective IFs. The above problems raise the question of how the situation can help Kenya host a major sport event. The next two chapters discuss this question amongst others and analyse results from the interviews and documentary analysis before drawing conclusions and making recommendations for further research.

## Chapter 6

#### LEARNING FROM SOUTH AFRICA

# Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings from the field work conducted in South Africa with the officials of the Ministry of Sport and Recreation (MOSR – SA), South African Football Association (SAFA) and the South African Sports Confederation of Olympic Committee (SASCOC) and Skype interviews with two international sports events consultants based in Africa. The interviews were based on the three objectives of the study and the responses were thereafter analysed to determine the applicable lessons that Kenya could learn from South Africa.

This chapter starts by briefly explaining how sport is managed in South Africa, the status of sport and the challenges facing sport in the country. This is then followed by a presentation and discussion of data findings organised according to the identified themes that emerged from the interviews with South African participants: good relationships with respective ISF; negative perception of the GSS; hosting requirements; hosting challenges; and knowledge transfer system. The answers from SA officials illustrate that hosting sports events are perceived as helping to modernise the country, however some of the issues with modernisation are highlighted by the problems that SA has faced. Thus, dependency theory is useful in understanding the economic issues SA faced in hosting events and relationships with international sports bodies and PCT helps explain some of the cultural issues. This chapter thereafter examines the work responsibilities of the South African participants at their various sports federations and ministries, their terms of employment, experience, and what other countries can learn from South Africa's experience of hosting major sports events. The chapter also analyses the combined factors that have enabled South Africa to be the sole African nation to host a major sport event to date.

## Sport in South Africa

The reason why South Africa was used in this thesis has been explained in Chapter 1 and this section therefore explores sport in the country from the perspective of key stakeholders. Sport has been crucial to nation building in such a diverse community as South Africa since its emergence from sporting isolation in the early 1990s (Swart et al, 2011). It has been very

important especially to the history of the country where it was used to fight racial segregation in the country, as South African Football Association respondent number 2 (SAFA-2) told me. Prior to that sport was an arena where racial segregation was very visible. SAFA-2 further added that sport was used by the international community worldwide to side line the minority white people who were ruling then to stop racial segregation (of the African, Asians and the coloured people) in the country and it then became successful in bringing down the minority rule in the country in 1994 (SRSA, 2011). According to MOSR–SA (2014), 'Sport is one thing that brings all people together and South Africans' love and take sports seriously'. Swart et al (2011) also noted that sports events, in particular, played a significant role in the initial transformation of post – apartheid South Africa, where the winning of both the 1995 Rugby World Cup and the 1996 African Cup of Nations, both hosted in the newly independent country, helped in reconciling and bringing the people together as a nation. As noted previously, modernization theory is useful in highlighting how sports can be used to alleviate tensions caused by conflict fought along ethnic lines or between countries. Development cannot take place where there is war or community tension as the environment is not conducive due to lack of security. Sport is one of the means that can be used to bring warring parties together for the sake of peace which enables development activities to take place (Darnell, 2012; Kingsbury, 2004).

The government of the country has demonstrated the importance of sport by having a fullyfledged Department of Sport and Recreation in charge of sports and in the nine provinces there is an organization that caters for sports specifically and the municipalities also having sports sectors (SAFA-1). Likewise, Boshoff (1997) noted how the South African government recognised the importance of sports to the country and established a Ministry in charge of sports in 1994, immediately after the first democratic elections and the first draft of the Sports Policy was presented in 1995 (Sanders et al, 2014; Burnett and Hollander, 1999). MOSR–SA added

> 'that the government also tries to ensure that its citizens are able to access sport and recreation activities by having a decentralised system where its personnel are deployed up to the grassroots level to support the delivery of sports and recreation and also having an up to date Sports Policy for the efficient and effective sport organization in the country' MOSR-SA

This illustrates how a country such as South Africa perceives excellence in sport at major international sports events as helping enhance the image of a country more than any other means and that is why most sports people are always considered as ambassadors for their countries. Modernization theory can be used to explain how small, relatively insignificant, countries have gained international recognition through the excellent performance of their athletes in major international sports competition as Bale and Sang (1996) noted.

To ensure that the citizens access sport and recreational activities, MOSR – SA explained that the government, through the Department of Sport and Recreation, officially launched a sports research programme that has three pillars, namely: First, an Applied Research Programme focussing on knowledge generation. The programme that is on-going, was implemented in partnership with the Department of Science and Technology and its agencies including the National Research Foundation in lieu of long term policy development; Second, the government will be launching an Action Research Programme focussing on researching contemporary matters affecting sports in lieu of providing solutions and evaluating current policies and programmes of sport; Third, a Post-Graduate Development Programme (PDP) was formed as a partnership between Sports and Recreation South Africa (SRSA) and the Arts, Tourism, Hospitality and Sport Sector Education and Training Authority (CATHSSETA) to allow for a significant amount of post graduate research to be conducted towards addressing the information and research gaps identified in the Sport, Recreation and Fitness sector in South Africa (SRSA – 2011).

The above programmes aim to focus on the areas of research that will support a number of students willing to do the research on behalf of the department on topics of interest to the department and present their findings and progress in their studies from 2014 and beyond (MOSR - SA). This account by the official suggests very positive things about the government's sport policy, but there are also challenges that sports in South Africa face which I will turn to later in the chapter.

The participants in my interviews agreed that the country had average standard sports facilities all over the country but those of international standard were concentrated in three provinces - Gauteng (Johannesburg and Pretoria), Cape Town and Durban (SASCOC – 2). These sports facilities are owned by several entities – national government, local authorities, and private clubs. Andreff (2006) similarly noted that very few countries in Africa had international standard stadia which were mainly based in the capital cities of these countries and most of

these stadia also lacked proper maintenance. The favourite sport in the country is football that has many players and though their fields might be seen to be many, most of them are not of an appropriate standard due to wear and tear caused by the number of players using the pitches. MOSR – SA explained that the South African Ministry of Sport was also negotiating with the country's Department of Defence who have a lot of facilities that they are not currently using to allow access by the members of the public, and then the Ministry would help in maintaining them. In order to meet the demand of the citizens to access sports, most councils had started developing multi-purpose facilities to take care of most sports in one field (SAFA- 1). In as much as both the government and the local council were trying, there still was not enough facilities for the whole South African citizenry.

The South African government funds sport through the exchequer, which is then disbursed to the national federations through the Sport Lottery Trust Fund according to their requirements annually. Priority is normally given to small federations that do not attract sponsorship over established federations like Cricket, Football, and Rugby. When allocating funds to the sports federations by the government, the federations are graded according to their needs and the smaller federations are the ones who benefit most since they do not attract sponsorship funds from the corporate bodies (MOSR-SA, SAFA -1, SASCOC -2). The Ministry of Sport, additionally in special situations (hosting major sports events, participation in major international competitions), would come in to give grants to organized sports structures recognised by SASCOC. Generally, most of sport federations are very dependent on the Sports Lottery and government for funding. According to MOSR-SA, sports funding still remains a major challenge for the Ministry, as the annual sports activities budget of 1.2 billion South African rands (approximately 678 million sterling pounds) was not sufficient.

The Sport Trust's main focus is to assist communities by providing them with sports equipment, facilities, training and other resources required for development of sport and recreation. The funds allocated to the Sport Trust are mainly used for priority projects identified by Sports and Recreation South Africa (SRSA). SAFA-1 explained that though the Sports Lottery has minimized the problem of sports funding in the country, it has not solved it as the fund has not been able to provide adequate funding to all sports federations and priority is always given to smaller sports that do not attract sponsors. According to SASCOC -2, they also depend on grants from the IOC and their Ministry of Sports.

# Challenges for Sport in South Africa

The main challenge facing South African sport is funding, just like other developing countries, though as mentioned earlier, they are relatively better off since they have a Sports Lottery Fund that subsidises government finance for sporting activities. All the participants cited funding as the main challenge facing sports management in the country as most of the federations are not able to meet their entire sporting requirements due to inadequate funding.

'Funding of sports activities remains a major challenge. This has serious impact to sports participation and development in the country' (MOSR – SA).

SAFA – 1 further explained that the general economy of the whole world was not doing well including South Africa and financial problem was affecting all the government departments and other institutions. Other major institutions that had been sponsoring sports were also having the same problems and therefore had to concentrate on their mandate before thinking of sports and other corporate social responsibilities.

SAFA -1 also added that apart from funding, the other challenges facing sports are personal technical skills, infrastructural, maintenance of sport facilities that makes it hard to get any team willing to maintain it or lease it as the running costs are high. The issues that South Africa faces can be understood using Dependency theory which highlights the fact that most of the developing countries, due to their poor economies and underdevelopment, have to depend on developed countries for assistance in funding their sports activities (Andreff, 2006, 2001). Similarly, this problem is also carried on by most sports federations in developing countries who are greatly dependent on their national governments for financial support of their sporting activities including development of sport infrastructures, participation in international competitions, hosting of major sports events, as well as negotiations with other governments to get support for hosting major sports events or positions in the executive of international sports federations (Hoye and Cuskelly, 2007; Andreff, 2006). South Africa is the most experienced country in Africa with regard to hosting major events and yet it is still has some reliance on government illustrating that it is almost impossible to find national sports federations in developing countries that are self-reliant and able to sustain themselves. Dependency theory is especially useful in explaining the underdevelopment of sports in these countries which was brought about by the colonial system forcing them to abandon their

traditional sports which were cheap to maintain and adopt the modern sports which are expensive for developing countries (Bale and Sang, 1996). The inability of these countries to afford support for sporting activities in their countries has contributed to their continued dependence on the developed countries.

When the participants were asked what they were doing to mitigate the problems they are facing, SAFA- 1 explained that they engage the government at all levels to help with whatever events they want to host. SAFA- 1 added that major sports events have also helped them in engaging the government to put up sports facilities in most parts of the country and other related infrastructure. MOSR – SA explained that the Ministry was envisioning establishing funding according to Recognized Sport Bodies Grant Framework where funding would be provided across two tiers: guaranteed funding (fundamentally for administration) and conditional funding which will constitute the bulk of the funding and will address issues of governance; transformation and performance before any federation would be given funding. SASCOC – 2 similarly added that due to scarcity of sponsorship, they had resorted to requesting for support in kind for local companies willing to sponsor their teams.

South Africa has been an active country in sports and was among the first four countries together with Egypt, Sudan and Ethiopia in the 1950s to join the Confederation of African Football (CAF) before being banished from the international sporting scene because of the apartheid system (Darby, 2002). When they were readmitted back in the early 1990s they sprang back vigorously by hosting several major sports events and winning some of them. The most notable wins were the 1995 Rugby World Cup and the 1996 African Cup of Nations (CAN). Despite South Africa winning the 1996 CAN, their performance in international football has greatly dwindled in the recent years hence their poor performance in the 2010 FIFA WC (Manzo, 2012)

The country also published their national policy on sports and recreation in 1995, a Lottery Fund to help support the development of sports in the country and partnered with established countries like the UK and Australia in order to develop their sports (Burnett and Hollander, 1999). This shows how important the country takes sport, hence ensuring that the policy guidelines are put in place and endeavouring to help develop sport. The country was also able to reorganize the structure of sports management by consolidating some sports federations into one confederation – the South African Sports Confederation of Olympic Committee (SASCOC) - in order to eradicate duplicity and enhance effective management of sports

federations (SRSA – 2011). However, Keim (2006) noted that access to participation in sport activities still remains restricted for black South Africans in ways that white South Africans do not experience. Keim (2006) explained that this was due to the apartheid system that saw most sports facilities being developed in the white community areas which is still predominant with the white community. Cornelissen (2004b: 1297) also noted that though the South African government is trying hard to ensure that all the populace have access, sport is 'still marked by far reaching racial division'. Hence the black South Africans are disadvantaged and do not have equal opportunities for the development of leisure time activities. They still continue to lag behind in sports development due to inadequate sports facilities in the black dominated areas despite the end of apartheid system two decades ago (Keim, 2006). Similarly, Stoler (1995, in Darnell, 2012:56) noted that 'spaces and encounters of colonialism were intimately connected to the construction of the northern subject as dominant through race, gender and class'. In this way PCT provides critical understanding of how development initiatives serve particular economic and political interests and those who determine the limits and placement of that development are those with the power and authority (Darnell, 2012). In the South African case, the white minority who were then ruling discriminated against the black majority and chose to develop only where the whites were located.

Lack of, or inadequate, sporting facilities have always been the biggest problem for most, if not all, developing countries (Andreff, 2001, 2006; Matheson and Baade, 2004). Many developing countries today can only boast of national stadiums that are 30 and 40 years old and mostly built during the colonial era with no new plans or projects in sight to replace them. South Africa has been lucky that the stadium it inherited from the apartheid era are still in good condition and they have also strategically hosted major sports events that have made most of those stadium to be refurbished for the sports events. However most of these stadiums do not serve the common populace but the elite athletes (Sanders et al, 2014) and it has been mentioned earlier, most of the average standard sports facilities are located in the white dominated areas where most of the majority black cannot get access to them.

Just like other developing countries, most of the sports federations in the country still rely heavily on government funding for their sports activities that is not always sufficient or guaranteed. South Africa is the only country in Africa known to have a functional Sports Lottery Fund to supplement funding of their sports activities. Andreff (2001) had similarly cited the problem of sports underdevelopment in developing countries due to inadequate funding. For example, physical education in schools, which is very important for sports development, is mostly absent in these countries as their governments have not been able to fully integrate sports in schools and other non-formal educational sectors hence the deteriorating performance of sports in these countries. The financial economy of most countries (developed and developing) has also worsened since 2008, hence most governments are relegating the funding of sports activities to private and non-governmental organizations (Darnell, 2012, Levermore and Beacom, 2012).

Since their comeback to the sporting scene close to two decades ago, South Africa compared to other African countries has been able to perform considerable well in sports and leads in the development of sports (Infrastructure and elite sport performance) in the African continent. This is due to a long history of strategic planning in both sports and tourism development and the legacy that they inherited from the long dominance of the colonial rule (Spencer and Zembani, 2011). In contrast, other African countries have lagged behind due to deteriorating sports and related infrastructures, economic and political instabilities and none existence of strategic planning (Steyn and Spencer, 2011). South Africa's long colonialization where most of the administrative institutions were put in place before their democratic rule could be the reason why it is leading in a better position in terms of their economic position, including sports. Kenya got independent in 1963 more than 30 years before South Africa, Kenya lags behind in sports performance and management.

In schools and other learning institutions, time set aside for physical education (P.E) is not utilized due to shortage of instructors or lack of sports facilities. Though South Africa reintroduced P.E. in schools in 2002, it never considered it important to recruit P.E. teachers leaving the subject to be taught by generalist teachers (Frantz, 2008). Priority is normally given to class work in these learning institutions with limited emphasis on physical activity (Frantz, 2008) and therefore sport is perceived or left for those who do not excel in education.

In sum, South Africa has been performing better than it's compatriots due to its foresight in structuring its sports institutions and having an up-to-date sports policy immediately after their democratic elections that helped in their sports development (SRSA – 2011). This is the reason why, despite being excluded from international sports for almost two decades, the country continued to perform better in most sports at international level compared to its other counterparts in the continent. In 2005 and 2006 they won the titles of both the Rugby World

Cup and African Cup of Nations respectively, tournaments that they had also hosted. They still continue to perform well in rugby at the global level but not football. Modernization theory is useful is explaining why the South African government has invested in sports. Excellent sports performance at international competitions raises the prominence of the country. Sports also brings in development to the country through business, employment amongst others. Whereas dependency theory helps in understanding the various challenges (funding and inadequate sport facilities) that the country faces in developing sports. The following section turns to a discussion of the relationship between African countries and the global sports system with emphasis on the experiences of South Africa.

# The Relationship between African Countries and the Global Sports System

All the South African participants interviewed stated that they had good relations with their respective international sports federations. This was similarly noted of the Ministry of Sports in South Africa who also had good relationships with most of the international sports federations with national affiliates in the country. The participants based their good relations on the benefits they had received from the international federations – opportunities to host several international sports events, and several sport officials from South Africa hold executive positions at the international sports federations (MOSR-SA, SAFA-2). The participants also added that there were occasions where the country had been called upon at the last minute to step in and host some major sports events because other countries could not host them for some reason (SASCOC – 2).

'South Africa hosted the 1996 African Cup of Nations when Kenya who were to host it could not develop its stadia on time for the event and the country was also called upon to host the 2013 edition of the same event when Libya who were to host it could not due to the civil unrest that plagued the country. All this shows the confidence that the global sports bodies have of South Africa; hence their good relationship' (MOSR-SA).

Among the country's sports officials who are also officials in international sports federations are as follows: the president of SASCOC, Mr Gideon Sam, is the vice president of the Commonwealth Games Federation (CGF) and he is also together with two other SASCOC officials; Sam Ramsamy and Tubby Reddy (SASCOC CEO) in various commissions of the

IOC. Mr Sam Ramsamy, apart from being a member of the IOC and IOC's International Relations Commission, is also the Vice President of the International Swimming Federation (FINA).

'There are also other Africans holding high positions in the International Federations e.g. Lamine Diack (Senegal), President of IAAF, Lassana Palenfo (Ivory Coast), vice president of International Judo Federation. Dr. Abdellah Bessalem (Algeria), vice president Amateur International Boxing Federation' amongst others (SASCOC -1).

From the above section, we can construe that South African sports federations had good relationships with their respective international sports federations, as the participants tells of their relationship. The Ministry of Sports in South Africa also had good relationships with most of the international sports federations that their national sports federations are affiliated to. They all connected the good relationship to the benefits they receive from these federations – opportunities to host major international events and several of their officials hold positions in the international sports federations. Though the federations perceive the benefits in terms of technical and financial assistance as an indication of good relations, it does not necessarily need to be so because the financial and technical assistance they get from their international federations is actually the obligation of these international federations in order to develop their individual sport worldwide (IOC, 2013). As the international federation of a particular sport is charged with the promotion and development of their sport worldwide, these international sports federations have no other option but to assist their national affiliates worldwide with both the technical and financial assistance to achieve their primary objectives and the Olympic solidarity movement (IOC, 2013).

Good relations cannot just be determined by benefits that one is entitled to. If these federations were the only ones receiving these perceived benefits then the case would be different. Likewise, being nominated or included in the executive of the international federation is a right and not a privilege as all countries are equal members with the same voting rights and therefore, the executive body should have representation of all the continents who are members so long as they are qualified to be in there. On the other hand, the opportunity to host major sports events is different. This is because the countries competing to host these events are always many in comparison to the events to be hosted (Carey et al, 2011) and therefore some cities or

countries have to bid several times before they eventually succeed to host these events. There is also the ability aspect of hosting these events as not all countries that bid to host these events have the capability. South Africa's successful hosting of several major sports events within a very short time after their independence and also being called upon to host these events when other countries have been withdrawn can be termed as being in good relationship with the international sports federation.

Despite this, when it came to the question of the general global sports system, a majority of the participants felt that the general global sports system did not treat the African constituents in the same way as it did to the other continents. The developing countries have always felt that they were being discriminated against by the GSS – CGF, IOC, and FIFA amongst others. According to SAFA – 1

'The rest of the world particularly Europe tends to frown upon Africa. They always have a very bad impression about the continent until they go to these countries of Africa' (SAFA - 1).

There are some participants who complained that some international sports organizations did not treat all the affiliates equally and gave an example of FIFA who, apart from only giving Africa five slots for the FIFA World Cup, also only employed few people from the continent in the management positions at the FIFA headquarters (SAFA - 2; MOS-SA). The participants felt that since the continent comprises of 54 of the 208 FIFA affiliate members, they should have equal opportunities as the other continents in terms of benefits from the organization (SAFA - 2). Although the participants voiced these concerns the African continent had five members on the FIFA executive committee at the time of conducting the research, namely: Mr Issa Hayatou (Cameroon) Senior Vice President Lydia Nsekera (Burundi), Constant Omari (DR Congo), Tarek Bouchamaoui (Tunisia), and Hany Abo Rida (Egypt). The other continents' membership to the committee is as follows; Asia 5, Confederation of North, Central American and Caribbean Association Football (CONCACAF) 3, Confederation of South American Football (CONMEBOL) 3, Oceania Football Confederation 1 and Union of European Football Association (UEFA) 8. The distribution of executive membership among the confederations is unequal since there are some confederations with fewer members in FIFA who have more executives within the organization than other confederations with more members.

Though the Senior Vice President of FIFA was from Africa, there is nothing much that the continent gains from FIFA apart from what can be termed as their rights; financial and technical assistance that they are entitled to for the promotion of the sport. What cannot be determined is whether the officials from Africa in the executive are just there in name and numbers only or if they have any real say in the management of FIFA. So arguably there is no difference having a large number of representatives in the executive committee if they do not bring in any improvement to the geographical areas that they represent.

However, there were some interviewees who did not see anything wrong with the global sports system and stated that every organization has its own rules which have to be followed when it comes to hosting the events, or other issues (SASCOC - 1). Some of the South African participants in support of the global sports system felt that the international sports federations were trying hard to support their affiliates in Africa by not only developing sports, but also bringing in projects to eradicate poverty and other social problems facing the continent; through the development of sports centres which offer other social services apart from sports (SASCOC - 1). FIFA and IOC have been using sports to enhance community development in Africa and other developing countries with the help of their commercial partners and the United Nations (UN).

They have been good to Africa. Both IOC and FIFA have put up sports facilities in Africa with the aim of developing the game there. IOC has put up a development centre in Zambia and FIFA has put several centres in Africa for football development (SASCOC-1).

The development of the sports facilities in Africa is good as it will help in the progress of sports in the continent but as Bray (2011: 101) pointed out, both FIFA and IOC are not in the business of assisting developing countries to develop as they are profit-driven organizations 'looking to sell tickets and promote sport globally'. By assisting the African countries in constructing artificial football pitches with the 'Win in Africa with Africa' campaign, FIFA arguably was trying to justify the untaxed profits they accumulated from the hosting of the FIFA World Cup (Pillay and Bass, 2008). Dependency Theory is essential here in helping to understand the exploiter and the exploited relationship, where despite being exploited, the one being exploited needs the exploiter in order to achieve his/her objectives (Bale and Sang, 1996). In this case, South Africa wanted so much to host the event that it had to accept FIFA's bullying and

manoeuvre to introduce a law allowing FIFA to collect untaxed profits (Van der Linde, 2014; Pillay and Bass, 2008).

Apart from the few participants from South Africa who felt that there was nothing wrong with GSS, the rest felt that the GSS has not treated the African countries equally with the rest of the world. In few international sports, there are representations of Africans there but most not. Though FIFA has five members from the continent, the participants feel that this is just a symbol of tokenism as they are still being discriminated on in terms of not being employed in the management positions and the slots in the FIFA World Cup still low compared to their number of African countries affiliated to FIFA.

The relationship between the GSS and the African countries can be interpreted according to PCT where the developing countries are considered not to be equal with the developed countries and therefore discriminated against by these countries. The Global Sports System -FIFA, IOC, and CGF amongst others - have pre-existing structures that developed over time and have created constraints and controls over developing countries. These structures include the rules of the GSS (including the hosting requirements that are too unaffordable to the developing countries), their organizational culture (the way the global sports system does things), and their perception of the developing countries and how they deal with these countries. Cornelissen (2004a) also explained that it is largely under acknowledged that developing countries in general and Africa countries in particular, tend to occupy less favourable positions in global bidding competitions. Cornelissen (2004a) further added that negative perceptions and portrayals about Africa have had direct impact with regards to the continent's access to and allure for global capital. Similarly, Darby (2002) observed that the challenge to the notion of Africa as a peripheral football continent had been evident within the governance of the game. Darby (2002) further added that the growing ties and relations between the African Football Confederation (CAF), intercontinental confederations and the world body have long been typified by conflict, inequality and at times open hostility.

However, the requirements for hosting those events might be prohibitive to the developing countries who do not readily have the infrastructures in place compared to the developed countries and that is why most of them do not try to bid to host them. Whereas those who eventually host them do not necessarily reap the much claimed benefits that are always prophesied (Swart, 2005). For instance, the requirement by IOC for hosting Olympics, whereby a city is supposed to provide all the required infrastructures (sporting, transport,

accommodation, and telecommunication) is unattainable for most of the developing countries. This is because getting space and funding to develop all the required sports and related infrastructures for the Olympics is too expensive and unaffordable to most developing countries and these countries have other basic requirements for their populace that they are yet to meet.

Nonetheless, the recent occurrence with FIFA in the selection of the host countries for the 2018 and 2022 FIFA World Cup tournaments paints a different picture from what has been perceived as fair selection of host cities or nations. There has been an outcry about corruption in the manner in which the eventual winning countries were chosen by FIFA (Withnall, 2014). This shows that not all major sporting events are always awarded justly as the former UK Minister for Sport, Helen Grant called for major sporting events to be awarded in a fair and transparent manner upon the claims of irregularities in the awarding of the hosting rights to Russia 2018 and Qatar 2022 FIFA World Cup tournaments (Anon, 2014d). In sum, it is essential to examine the reason why most African and other developing countries are not bidding to host major sports events as some participants have stated. Could it be that the requirements by the global sports system is way out of their reach or they already know that the system does not favour them hence these countries are not bidding for the events? PCT is useful in explaining that the way in which global sports organizations like FIFA and IOC are structured, and the way in which the bidding process are conducted and decided upon are not favourable to the developing countries. Their hosting requirements are prohibitive to the developing countries (Cornelissen, 2004b; Swart and Bob, 2004) due to the economic challenges that the developing countries face. The high cost of hosting the major sports events and the lack of/inadequate sports facilities faced by these countries can be explained by dependency theory which sees most of these countries continue to depend on developed countries for support of their sports activities (Andreff, 2001; 2006).

When all continents compete at the same level and Africa is treated unfairly, then that is when they can question the unfair treatment. Apart from the issues mentioned above, South African participants seemed to be very happy with the global sports system especially when Sepp Blatter fulfilled the promise of the country hosting the FIFA World Cup. But that does not mean that they should condone any discrimination or unfairness by the same international federation because of what they see as benefits that they are very much entitled to as long as they are qualified just like any other member country. The relationship between the national sports federations, the government of the hosting country and the global sports system is very important when it comes to hosting major sports events as they all have important roles to play in the successful hosting of these events. There should not be a feeling that one of them is taking advantage of the others. In practice due to the demand of the countries that want to host these events, most governments have always been forced by the international sports organizations to make adjustments in the country's laws to accommodate certain rules by these federations in order to host their events - for example, FIFA rules on ambush marketing and tax waiver for FIFA earnings during the FIFA World Cup. The South African government had to comply with this FIFA requirement which did not please many citizens as they had hoped to use the event for their small scale business (Pillay and Bass, 2008). The governments of the hosting countries have to go by the IFs rules because if they do not, other countries will do it. Both FIFA and IOC are in the business of making their profits during the hosting of these events (Bray, 2011) and therefore, it can rightly be said that their relationship with the hosting country can never be on equal basis due to the higher demand for hosting these events and their objectives. However, the global sports system should strive to work with national governments as partners and not to only recognise the national governments when major sports events are to be hosted in these countries because of the business profits that these IFs envisage to gain.

# The understanding of the key actors and agencies in South Africa with respect to the possibilities and challenges of hosting major sports events.

Most of the South African participants acknowledged that every international sports federation has its own requirements when it comes to the hosting of its events. They however, noted that there are some requirements that cut across all the international sports federations that host major international sports events and these are what will be discussed as follows. South Africa is one of the most experienced amongst the developing countries in hosting major and mega sports events (Cornelissen, 2004b). Having hosted several major international sports events, the South African actors have been able to learn through experience what it entails. As mentioned previously, the country has a fully-fledged unit in charge of hosting events and a hosting policy to provide guidelines for hosting of sport and other related events (SRSA – 2011). The national sports federations are also aware of the requirements by the government agencies and SASCOC before they can bid to host any international sports event (MOSR - SA and SASCOC -2).

Throughout the interviews, most of participants reiterated the importance of government support and goodwill in the hosting of these events. When asked what is required by the international federation for a country to host a major sports event, SAFA 2 explained that

'The most important issues are proper planning and government support must be there. If the government is not fully supporting the event do not try to go ahead with it' (SAFA 2).

Similarly, SASCOC -2 stressed the need for government support and cautioned against venturing in hosting a major sports event without government support and commitment.

'Government goodwill for support is the most important and without it even when you have enough money, you can't host the event' (SASCOC -2).

Without the government support, the events cannot be hosted as all international sports federations make it a mandatory requirement before any city or country can be given the hosting rights. National government support is needed for underwriting the expenditure of the sports events, providing entry visas, and providing security for the participants, officials and sports tourists amongst other issues. For instance, Kenya lost the opportunity to host the 1996 African Cup of Nations, which was eventually hosted by South Africa, due to lack of government support. This can also bring a bad reputation for a country with the IF in the future should it need to host the same event.

Funding was noted to be a critical factor in the hosting of major sports events. Many countries have shied away from these events due to inadequate funds. EC - SA advised that,

'Having the right funding to be able to employ the correct consultants to manage and maintain the correct international campaign is very important in winning the bid to host major sports events'.

All the participants stated that having the right number of sports infrastructure for the particular event to be hosted was another very important issue when it comes to hosting of major sporting events.

'If it is the FIFA World Cup that a country wants to host, it should have nine to twelve international standard stadiums, amongst other requirements. South Africa constructed nine new stadia and refurbished three stadia for the 2010 World Cup which cost the government approximately ten billion South African randsapproximately £515 million' (SAFA-1).

On constructions of sports stadiums for major sporting events, EC - SA also advised that countries should not to wait to get an opportunity to host a major sports events in order to start constructing massive stadiums at one go. Instead they should start targeting smaller events and developing their stadiums slowly as they build up to host the major sports events. This would help them construct their facilities at their own pace and cheaply as opposed to waiting till the last minute where they would be overwhelmed and stressed about completion time and the costs would also be considerable. Due to the difficulty encountered by most aspirants for hosting major multi sports events (Commonwealth and Olympic Games), EC - SA felt that the IOC should move out of the city bid to the nation bid so that the sports infrastructures could be spread countrywide without concentrating on one city. The issue of city bidding is not a problem to developing countries only as it also affects the developed countries. Finding one city that can host many types of sports for multi sports events has been a major problem for most countries as it can involve displacement of people if there was no prior arrangement where such large piece of land was not preserved beforehand. The recent withdrawals of bids for winter Olympics affected the IOC and the organization was having problems finding cities willing to host the 2022 Winter Olympics due to high costs and opposition from within the countries (Wilson, 2014).

SAFA-1 further added that the other issue was the cost of maintaining the sport stadia developed for these events and advised that before constructing the facilities, the cost of maintenance should also be considered. Due to the concern of the environment, SAFA 1 proposed that the event owners should be required to include as a condition to the prospective event organizers, a mandatory report of how they were going to use the sport facilities constructed beyond the event when awarding the hosting rights for their sports events. This would discourage the wastage of resources in building massive stadia that cannot be used after the event is over therefore becoming a burden to the local authority in terms of its maintenance.

In addition to sports facilities of international standards, there should be other facilities like good and adequate accommodation for participants and officials, good transport networks and connections for air travel. South Africa had to refurbish its roads and airports were also upgraded for the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. When asked what countries aspiring to host major sports events should do, SAFA -2 emphasized that:

'These countries will have to get very strong support from their government, sports infrastructures and other sports related infrastructures which are the key things'.

The economic status of a country is very important in determining the kind of event the country is able to host as it is able to define the country's capability to fulfil all the mandatory requirements and others distinctiveness that distinguishes it from the rest of the competitors. According to SAFA-1, most countries that bid to host these events are able to fulfil the requirements of the events owners and it is the 'other uniqueness from other competitors' that makes it win. Most countries that host these events, normally host it to tell the world the status of their country; the improvement of status (from developing to developing country).

'It is the countries that have the capability and required resources that can comfortably compete to host these events as countries can bid to host these events unsuccessfully several times before they finally win the right to host them and all these processes cost a lot of money' (SASCOC- 1).

SASCOC- 1 cautioned that it does not make any sense trying to bid to host these events when the basic human needs of the citizens have not been met otherwise it will be doing injustice to the people of the country. This is a major challenge to most developing countries who wish to host major sports events as most of them do divert funds meant for the social sectors (health, education, and housing) to host the events to these events and this is regarded as not fair to the common people who rely on the government to fulfil their basic needs.

The participants agreed that past successful experience from hosting major sports events is very important in the decision to award a city or country the right to host the international sports events and advised that it is always good to start small and build up to the higher events. This is also one of the requirements by the international sports federations. South Africa's success

in hosting several major sports events and eventually hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup, the participants felt qualifies it to bid for the Commonwealth or the Olympic Games (SASCOC-2). The experience of the country in hosting major international sports events also gives it a head start among other competitors who might not be having the same experience at the bidding stage.

Political stability of a country was also cited to be an important element in hosting major international sports events. EC - SA explained that the IOC avoids countries with elements of political instabilities as it cannot afford to award its events to a country that is unstable as they do not want negative criticisms from the start.

'Most event owners look for environments with no risks or for minimum risk environments to host their events. So they go to prospective host that gives the minimum risk' (EC - SA).

Community support is another very important requirement by the international sports federations. An international sports federation would not want its event (brand) to be spoilt by the strikes of an unhappy community. So the community should be enlightened on what the event is all about, what they will gain and what is expected of them (EC - SEN).

# Challenges faced by South Africa when hosting international sports events

All the South African participants noted that the main challenge that South Africa faced from its experience of hosting international sports events, especially the 2010 FIFA World Cup, was the negative international media coverage when the country was preparing to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

'The biggest challenge was the negativity that surrounded the South Africa hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup; where the country's capability of putting up all the required facilities on time was doubted, security issues, and that things will not happen the way they should be'( SAFA 1). SAFA 1 explained that there were situations where the country was declared to be full of crime and there were questions of lack of security. SAFA – 1 further added that there was pressure on South Africa to make sure that when they said they were going to do something, something was done. EC – SA also pointed that '*we all live in a Eurocentric world where the people making decisions have never been to Africa yet they claim to know about it so it is actually about having the wrong perception*' PCT is essential in understanding how the developing countries continued to be portrayed in negative, derogatory and stereotyped manner (Levermore, 2009). According to Said (1993), there is a distinction between the West and the East, where those from West are perceived to be 'rational, peaceful, logical and cannot do any wrong, whereas those from East (Periphery) are alleged to be the direct opposite of the West. This helps in explaining, as represented in orientalism, the uneven power relationship between the developed and developing countries (Said, 1993).

The global media who are a key aspect of the pre-existing structures, also report from the perspective of the developed countries. Hence, whenever the developing countries win the bid to host major sports events, there is usually negative media coverage about their incapability to host these events as was the case for the 1968 Mexico Olympics and the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa (Bolsmann, 2010). Similarly, Cornelissen (2004b) noted that post-colonial discourse highlights the fact that the predominant Western portrayal of the African continent is always shown in a negative manner and nothing that is happening or done in the continent given positive media coverage. This is why most of the developing countries especially the African countries (Morocco and South Africa) came up with 'African discourses' to frame their bids for the 2006 and 2010 FIFA Men World Cup. In this case, PCT is useful in discussing and analysing the disproportionate nature of growing a major sports events industry, with competition between developed and developing states often taking place on an uneven basis (Cornelissen, 2004a, 2004b).

Funding is also a major challenge to many countries both developed and developing when it comes to hosting major sports events and South Africa has not been an exception. EC - SA noted that funding was a major challenge for African countries:

'I honestly do not think that the African government have the money to host these events. If an African country is told that if they want to host the Olympic Games, it will cost them over US \$ 30 billion, none of them will be willing to spend all that money for hosting those games and they have other domestic issues that they need to fund' (EC - SA).

The country is still not able to fund the sporting activities of all their recognised sports federations and this also affects some federations who want to host sports events (SASCOC-2, MOSR – SA). SASCOC -2 added that it was only the big sports like Football, Rugby and Cricket that were able to get sponsors. This has also caused them not to host some sports events that have not been able to attract additional sponsorship from corporate bodies (SASCOC-2).

Due to poor economic reasons, major institutions that have been sponsoring sports are also having the same problems and therefore have to concentrate on their mandate before thinking of sports and other corporate social responsibilities (SAFA-1). SAFA -1 further explained that besides sports, there are also events like arts and music that also depend on the same sponsors for funding. Dependency theory is useful here again in explaining the relationship between economic underdevelopment and sports. Countries that are still struggling to meet the basic needs of their citizen do not always have the funds to support sports development in their countries hence their dependence on corporate companies, NGOs or developed countries to support their sports activities (Andreff, 2001; 2006; 2008). This does not necessarily mean that the governments do not care about sports but they do not have the capacity to fully support them as they might wish. In Africa, most sports federations rely totally on their government to fund their sports activities. Andreff (2001) also explained that there exists a very strong correlation between the level of economic development of a country and the level of its sporting performance and development. Lack of proper training and sports facilities affects the performance of athletes and teams in major international competitions. High economically advanced countries perform well in sports due to their ability to invest in good sports facilities and good training.

Maintenance of sports facilities was also cited as one of the challenges being faced currently in South Africa.

The stadia are underutilised and costs for maintaining them has been very high hence there has not been any team or company willing to lease or maintain them (SAFA-1).

When SAFA-1 opinion was further sought on the worthiness of the South African 2010 stadium construction and their benefit to the country, SAFA-1 explained that some have been used well and some not for various reasons. According to SAFA-1, the bigger cities like Johannesburg, Cape Town, and Durban and to a lesser extent Port Elizabeth, the stadia have been used exceptionally well though not just for sports but for other purposes such as concerts, conferences, and church functions. Conversely, EC - SA felt that the stadiums had been too costly and were not worth their cost as they were not serving their purpose. Similarly, York (2014) reported on the situation of the South Africa's 2010 World Cup stadia that are being seriously underutilised while costing the government enormously on maintenance costs and cautioned Brazil, who hosted the 2014 FIFA World Cup and are yet to host the 2016 Rio Olympic and Paralympic Games, to learn from South Africa. EC – SA further added that the stadiums constructed for the 2010 World Cup were too many and were overpriced by the contractors who colluded among themselves to charge more. MOSR- SA also corroborated on this issue of corruption by saying that the matter is currently under investigation. Kingsbury (2004) also noted that corruption and poor leadership in most developing countries has been a major cause for their underdevelopment. SASCOC -1 advised that when deciding to put up mega projects, the organizers should only come up with projects that are sustainable, able to leave a legacy and good for the economy of the country. The sustainable projects will be able to cater for their own maintenance and not be a burden to the country and at the same time be a tangible legacy for years to come.

MOS- SA stated that most senior level sports federation officials are purely administrators and do not have qualification in event management. This makes them neglect very important issues in their international sports event and very often causes embarrassment and therefore need training on events management.

'Government officials always have to step in to check out their programmes and help in organising their events due to their inefficiency in managing events' (MOS-SA).

African countries have also been cited to be naïve when it comes to bidding to host major sports events (EC – SA; EC – SEN). EC-SEN went on to explain that most of the officials think that just having sports facilities is all it takes to host these event not understanding that there is more to hosting these events than just having the sports facilities. Many countries can assess the hosting requirements from their federations or other world sports bodies' websites but the problem is whether they understand them and the motive behind the requirement (EC – SA). A lot of them seem not to understand as can be seen from how their politicians always rush to announce that they are going to host the Olympics or the FIFA World without assessing the requirements and the possibilities (EC- SA).

The above findings show that South Africa, through the hosting of various events, has been able to gain valuable experience and therefore can be a case study for other African and developing countries that wish to host these events. They were able to start with small events as they built up to bigger events and this meant that by the time they were hosting the sport mega event (FIFA World Cup), they already had some of the infrastructure in place and therefore did not have to start from scratch as most countries do. This factor is also shared with Brazil who on their road to 2014 FIFA World Cup and the Rio 2016 had started by hosting the 2007 Pan America Games (Curi et al, 2011). Brazil also went further by having a continuity plan by using the legacy of 2014 World Cup stadiums to help in hosting the 2016 Rio Olympics therefore reducing in the costs of constructing new stadia.

The major sports events so far hosted by South Africa are notably single sports events. The requirements and logistics for hosting multi-sports events are more complex compared to the single sports events as they are normally hosted in one city, involves many different sports participants and require several special sport facilities for each sports event. Single sport events on the other hand are hosted in several cities or towns within a country and the sports facilities used are similar as it is only one sport being competed for. South Africa has once bid unsuccessfully to host the 2004 Olympics in Cape Town and never tried to host the games again which makes it difficult to determine why they did not succeed. Most developing countries are finding it difficult to host Olympics and Commonwealth games because of the exorbitant requirements that are beyond the reach of most of them. In support, Swart and Bob (2004) explained that many developing countries have problems in accessing resources and information with regards to hosting these events. They further added that international biases in decision making and persistent inequalities in the global world hinders developing countries

from competing at the same level with the developed countries when it comes to hosting these events. As modernization theory helps explain, the main motivation for developing countries in hosting these events is to develop their infrastructures in order to compete with other countries in international trade (Bray, 2011; Cornelissen, 2004a, 2007, 2008; Horne, 2007; Horne and Manzenreiter, 2006) and the single sports events are therefore more favourable to them.

Bray (2011) cautioned that though hosting major sporting event can sometimes be a useful development tool for most countries, the economic gains projected can only be achieved from careful financial management and planning, and the use of existing stadiums and sports facilities. Most developing countries lack in sports and related infrastructures (Matheson and Baade, 2004) hence the exorbitant expense they incur to host these events compared to the developed countries. Nevertheless, there have been cases of developed countries also withdrawing at the bidding stage from hosting these events (both single and multi-sport) due to the non-transparent bidding processes, costs of bidding and hosting the events (Jarvie, 2014). The selection process for the highest events - FIFA World Cup and the Olympic Games - are always shrouded with controversy due to the secretive nature of the host selection process which is done through secret balloting, this shows the problem of simply applying modernization theory. The combination of modernization theory with the dependency and postcolonial theories helps to understand the challenges faced by the countries aspiring to host major sports events. The bidding process is also accompanied by vigorous lobby, voter buying (Cook and Ward, 2010; Jennings, 2006) and power dealings and negotiations (Horne and Manzenreiter, 2002). As a result, countries that have good bid documents but cannot afford to bribe due to ethical reasons or financial issues either lose out or refrain from hosting these events. Duval (2014) noted that it was time that both global sports bodies and others open up the selection process to public scrutiny to get the confidence of the contestants and those aspiring to host these events. Several countries that initially intended to bid for the 2022 Winter Olympics; Oslo - Norway, Krakow - Poland and L'viv - Ukraine withdrew from the bidding process citing economic problems while other aspirants like Munich - Germany and At Moritz and Davos -Switzerland withdrew their planned bids for the same games after their citizens voted no in the referendum organised for the same (Grohmann, 2014). The dependency theory is important in explaining how the countries exist within the wider global system which is characterised by global capitalism where liberal economic theory (which includes the international Banks and financial institutions) dominate and serve the interests of the rich countries (Allen, 2012). As a result of the entire system, there is international division of labour, class distinction and global capitalism and these also serves the interests of the rich countries but promote dominance and exploitation of the developing countries (Allen, 2012). The global sports system is also characterised by the dominance of the developed countries as already mentioned earlier, who control the economic, technological, knowledge, and political and controls the levels of power of global sports (Maguire, 2011).

With these new developments, there is need for the global sports system to review their structure and hosting processes to be suitable to all their members. Some flexibilities or reviews in bidding process or hosting requirements would help some developing countries host these games as the cost, especially the bar set by Sochi Winter Olympics of US\$ 51 billion (Wilson, 2014), is out of reach for most countries. For instance, the flexibility of FIFA in its rotational decision for the hosting of the editions 2010 and 2014 FIFA World Cup helped the African continent to host its first World Cup. If the same could also be emulated by IOC and CGF, we may soon also see Africa hosting the Commonwealth and Olympic Games, if they could have most of the requirements of hosting the multi-sport events. EC - SA proposed that IOC and CGF should change from city to nation bid so that developing countries could benefit by developing their sports and related infrastructures all over the country. Similarly, Duval (2014) stated that some newly rich countries were spending too much money on these events (Sochi -US\$ 51billion) and have turned the Olympic games from mega events to giga-events by developing gigantic infrastructures that end up not only wasting a lot of money on these events but also breaking down the economy of some of these countries. Duval (2014) gave an example of the 2004 Athens Olympics which spent so much on the games and ended up making Greece bankrupt. This practice not only discourages other countries with the interest from hosting the same but also have negative environmental, economic and social impacts to the hosting country. Duval (2014) advised that the global sports bodies should review their bidding system by putting a cap on the amount of money to be spent on bidding and hosting of major sports events and also having transparent selection process for the host cities. Placing a cap on the amount to be spent for bidding and hosting major sports events will be beneficial to both the event owners and the bid contestants. The event owners will have more countries bidding to host their events which will be to their advantage economically in terms of hosting fees, while every country bidding will be competing at a more equal platform as opposed to when richer countries spend so much money to bid and host and thus scaring away potential bidders. With these proposals put in place, the developing countries may be motivated to bid for these events

and corruption in the selection of host cities which is always complained of will cease (Jennings, 2006).

The bidding process is another tricky issue as there is no right or wrong way to go about it but all depends on how a country strategically sells itself to the decision makers as most contesting countries have all the requirements needed but it is the country that has more to offer to the participants that becomes a winner in the bidding process (Cook and Ward, 2010). The competitive nature of the bidding process makes the contestants make unattainable promises and build new stadiums with 'luxury seating, cutting-edge technology, and lavish hotels' to impress the judges (Bray, 2011:101). The bidding process is also too costly that most developing countries cannot afford to go through it once more after being unsuccessful in the first attempt.

If FIFA had not decided that the tournament be hosted on a rotational basis by competitors from one continent each four years, it is not known if South Africa would have been able to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup. This move benefited both South Africa and Brazil as they would have gone through stiff competition from other continents had these rule not have been put in place. They might have also taken a long time before hosting the events at the time that they intended to so. On the other hand, the continuous changing of FIFA events awarding rules has negatively affected member countries wishing to host the FIFA World Cup as was witnessed during the award of the 2018 and 2022 FIFA World Cups. The unsuccessful contestants of the 2022 editions did not expect the winner of the event to be announced concurrently with that of 2018 event and felt cheated (Morris, 2012). It is also open to corruption and abuse as it is changed to suit the country that is favoured to host the event and once the purpose is fulfilled it is changed once again without members discussing and agreeing about it or being notified in advance. Hence, there need for each edition of the games to be done separately and the process of bidding, evaluation and nomination of the hosting cities or countries to be done separately by different officials of the international sports federations to eliminate any loophole for corruption or abuse (Duval, 2014).

Contesting countries from Africa always feel that because the continent has not been able to host such sporting events before gives them the right to be favoured to host these events without competing fairly with other contesting countries (Swart and Bob, 2004). This could be seen from the narrative used in the 2004 Cape Town Olympic bid and the 2006 and 2010 FIFA World Cup bids by Morocco and South Africa. It is true that developing countries have many

disadvantages against them when it comes to hosting of major sports events. However, they should work hard and compete at the same level as other countries, then when they are discriminated against they will have a right to complain.

#### Knowledge transfer process with respect to hosting of major sports events

Due to their experience in hosting major sports events and having recognised the importance of hosting the same events, South Africa has a department in charge of hosting major events (Sports, Arts and Culture). The department is charged with firstly, providing institutional and intra – governmental support to events approved in line with their Bidding and Hosting of International Sports and Recreational Events Regulations. Secondly, implementing the Bidding and Hosting Regulations to the stakeholders as required. Thirdly, coordinating intra - government support needed with regards to bidding and hosting of sports and recreation events. Fourthly, the department helps in obtaining cabinet approval for an event that has a lengthy process that can go for about six months. Fifthly, they promote Sport Tourism to South Africa using Ekhaya Hospitality Centres at major international events to promote the same- E.g. 2011 Rugby World Cup in New Zealand, 2011 All African Games in Mozambique, 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games in the UK and 2014 Commonwealth Games in Scotland. Lastly, the department provides event and protocol insight to the LOCs in areas that involve government dignitaries and the diplomatic community (MOSR-SA).

When the participants were asked how and where the key actors seek information about bidding and hosting of major sports events, they indicated that they get it from their respective international sports federations, event consultants and the last host of the event that they wish to host (SAFA-1; EC – S A).

'The best point of reference is normally the last event that was hosted that gives a great idea of what the standard was and then you can build from there'(EC - SA).

EC - SA also added that most major events have a knowledge transfer system where the prospective host visits the current hosts during the preparation and hosting period to learn from them. They also stated that during the hosting of major events in the country they were able to use their own sport events consultants.

South Africa has a whole industry of specialist consultants built over time since the first major sports event in 1995. FIFA and IOC normally bring in their own consultants in key areas to the countries hosting their major sports events (EC - SA).

South Africa has been able to build on their hosting experience with every major sports event that they have been able to host since they first hosted the 1995 Rugby World Cup. The country's experience in hosting these major events has also enabled it to create relationships with major stakeholders in the industry like the event owners, event consultants and other players in the industry which is very important in the bidding process (Ingerson and Westerbeek, 2000). The country has also been able to develop a database for the experienced personnel that they have been using for these events and will always refer to it whenever they need them.

Having institutional frameworks for hosting sports events clearly shows the importance the hosting of major sports events to the South African government and has acknowledged that it is important to have a specific department for events in order to strategically prepare for them. Brighenti et al (2005) recognised that hosting of major sport event involves a lot of processes that can take years; conception of the idea, feasibility studies, preparing a bid, bidding process and eventual hosting of the event, hence the need for a permanent division dealing specifically with the issues of events. The country has earmarked to host a number of major sporting events amongst them is the Durban 2022 Commonwealth Games (Anon, 2014b) in which its sole opponent, Edmonton (Canada) later withdrew due to lack of sponsorship (Anon, 2015; Nkatlo, 2015). Jarvie (2014) suggested that in order for Africa to host events like the Commonwealth Games, it would be sensible for CGF to consider its values; humanity, diversity and destiny and let other areas (continents) that have not hosted to do so. Since, Durban are currently the only aspirants for hosting the 2022 Commonwealth Games, there is a possibility of South Africa once more being the first country in Africa to host the event in the continent.

The country also has a fully functional event policy that is always updated periodically (MOS - SA) and it is among the few countries that have an event policy. The policy gives guidelines on the expectations (financial and in kind) from the government with regards to supporting the hosting of major international sports events (Mc Cloy, 2009, Westerbeek et al, 2002). Apart from financial, the policy also gives regulations that the sports federations have to meet before they are given the go ahead to host this games (MOS –SA). This is important as both the major

stakeholders – government and federations will be able to know what is expected of them and sports federations will have knowledge of what is required of them before they forward their intention of hosting such events to the government. The government also has to control the kind and number of people coming to the country for these events for security of both its citizens and the event participants. This is because once the government allows any event to take place, the security of all the participants will be its responsibility (SASCOC-2). Brighenti et al (2005) underscored the importance of having an official policy for hosting sports mega-events and cautioned against deciding to bid for a sports event as a matter of chance.

South Africa was able to achieve several infrastructural legacies through several major events hosted in the country. The most notable were those of the 2010 FIFA World Cup which include transport and telecommunication networks, international standard stadiums, upgrading of hotels. These tangible legacies will be useful for the country in enhancing their development in the country (Coakley and Souza, 2013). There was also intangible legacies achieved as the diverse populace were more united and patriotic. The country's image was also enhanced globally which will enable it to attract more tourists since there were no security issue as the international press had initially forecasted (Bolsmann, 2010). However, the major problem currently faced by the stadiums built is the underutilization of these facilities and the high maintenance cost of the same (York, 2014). EC-SA advised that when investing in major sports events, countries should strive to have long-term legacy usage of the same. South Africa should have had a continuity plan of continue staying at the world stage. EC- SA elaborated that the plan should have been having another event like Commonwealth Games following the hosting of the 2010 World Cup immediately and thereafter Olympics. This would have meant that the stadia will be in continuous use and the country also constantly being at the World stage. Brazil's hosting of the Pan American Games in 2007, 2014 FIFA World Cup and following after with the 2016 Rio Olympic Games (Curi et al, 2011) is a classic example of this.

#### Legacies achieved from the major sports events hosted

The participants mostly reiterated that the 2010 FIFA World Cup held in South Africa enabled the country to develop world class sports facilities and the road networks which they praised as having improved greatly (SAFA-2, SASCOC-2). The football federation was also able to acquire a modern office building (SAFA House) for its headquarters. Other benefits included -52 Football centres with artificial turf facilities benefitting communities around the country, five Football for Hope Stadiums and bursary assistance for needy students. The intangible

benefits included the country's image being enhanced globally which they managed to achieve despite the negative publicity that they first encountered as they were preparing to host the event. There was also the sense of patriotism and national cohesion among the citizens (SAFA - 2). The participants acknowledged that there were legacies that the country achieved from hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup which they highly appreciated, they however conceded that the cost of the event was massive and it is still affecting the country economically.

'The stadiums built are much underutilised and their maintenance costs are very exorbitant hence it has not been possible to get permanent lease for them' (MOSR – SA).

Conn (2013) also reported how more than two and a half years after hosting the FIFA World Cup, the country is still divided by huge inequality, poverty and social struggle and there are questions whether the World Cup really produced a lasting legacy worth the billions that was spent. Similarly, MOSR- SA also reported of the corruption cases among the construction companies that built the stadiums that are still under investigation. The only problem with legacy in most developing countries is that they have not provided sufficient funding to maintain those infrastructures, manage them and use them after the events (EC-SA). Legacy needs to be maintained in order to last and this leads back to the advice of SASCOC - 1, who pointed out that before deciding to embark on the development of a project, its sustainability, importance to the citizenry, and how it is going to help the economy must be determined. EC-SA explained that when a country decides to use sporting events for image enhancement or raising its profile internationally, it should have funds to sustain it by continuously hosting higher events in order to continue being in the limelight. In this way the sports infrastructures will continue being used well and also leave a legacy. This sentiments were also shared by Coakley and Souza (2013) who cautioned that legacies and positive developmental outcomes do not occur automatically for the hosts and for the benefits to be equitable and sustainable, they must be planned, funded, organized, and strategically connected with existing structures and the everyday lives of the local residence.

Most of the participants stressed the need of planning early and documenting all the decisions and plans. According to SAFA-1,

'It is about being ready and prepared and ensuring that the task at hand is understood. If it is the FIFA World Cup that a country wants to host, it should be ready to have nine to twelve international standard stadiums, amongst other requirements' (SAFA-1).

In the preparation, preliminary feasibility studies should be done in advance so that the country is aware of all the requirements and expectations, the impact that the event is going to have on the country's finances and the whole country should also be understood including both negative and positive impacts of hosting the event. After understanding all the impacts and still feel like hosting, then the country should be prepared to work hard to see that they win the bid to host the event and finally host the event (SAFA 1).

Central government support and goodwill was an important lesson that the actors and agencies of South Africa learnt. Without it, no global sports body would give the hosting rights to a country as no matter, how prepared in terms of funding a federation can be, there are other issues that go beyond funds that only the government of a country can do; the most important of which is entry clearance to the country and security. If the government does not support the event, it is better not to go ahead with it (SASCOC-1).

The identification and establishment of necessary structure for hosting purposes should be in place as early as possible. This ensures that all the necessary requirements are identified and sourced on time (SAFA-1). SAFA -1 further recommended that all the necessary units should be contained in that structure and the organization should not be bureaucratic in nature.

Every member should work towards one goal – Team work was strongly stressed as an essential strategy of achieving the common goal of successfully hosting an international sports event. Every member once in the local organising committee should work together as a team irrespective of their profession. SASCOC – 1 cautioned that

'Any infrastructure to be developed for the sport event must have a legacy for the citizen of the country. The projects should also be sustainable. All these projects and the events must be seen to be going to help the economy' (SASCOC – 1).

EC - SA stated that South Africa spent so much on the construction of many stadiums which they did not need hence the problems they are currently facing in maintaining them.

'There was no continuity plan after hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup. If you are going to put yourself on the World stage, you should have a continuity plan of staying there. So in the continuity plan, South Africa should have had an event like Commonwealth Games following up the World Cup almost immediately and thereafter the Olympic Games' (EC - SA).

The critical factors for winning a bid to host major sports events according to EC - SA are: having the right budget to be able to employ the correct consultants, to manage and maintain the correct international campaign; being able to do a lobby exercise which is convincing to the people who are decision makers that you have a solid bid and that you are going to do what you have promised that you are going to do. EC - SA further added that there has to be a holistic plan that the government wants to sell to the international community which can be to increase Foreign Direct Investment (FDI), to profile tourism, create a major event infrastructure, or create a long term of hosting major events legacy and not just one – offs i.e. hosting several successive events following each other so that there is a legacy for the sports infrastructures. The following gives a brief discussion on the work responsibilities and experience of the South African sports officials which can then be compared to the case in Kenyan in the next chapter.

The South African participants who were interviewed were those working directly or indirectly with the sports event management in their organization and were also fulltime employees of their respective organizations. Though the South African Ministry of Sport and Recreation does not organise sports events directly, they do assist the sports federations by; coordinating intra –government support needed with regards to bidding and hosting of sports and recreation events, implementing the Bidding and Hosting Regulations, obtaining cabinet approval for an event which has a lengthy process of planning and preparation that can go for more than six months and providing event and protocol insight to the LOCs amongst others (MOSR SA). On the other hand, the federation officials who deal directly with the sports federations organize all sports events (local and international), congress, conferences, and special events (SAFA-1).

All the South African participants (SAFA and SASCOC ) are sports officials and their federations apart from having elected officials also have fulltime employees who have been working in the area of events management with their respective organizations for more than 14 years (MOSR – SA, SAFA – 1; 2, SASCOC -1; 2).

All the participants had the experience of working in the sports federation for more than 10 years although few of them had training in events management. They have post graduate sports qualifications and have learned about events management through experience. When we compare their qualifications with the sentiments of Barcelona and Rose (2004), we can deduce that the South African officials have different qualifications among themselves which helps in the different management areas that they work in (operations, administration, public relations, events and logistics) and the fact that they work full time for their federations helps in meeting their management requirements when needed. Their working fulltime also helps in the officials' committing themselves fully to the federations.

#### Conclusion

This chapter examined the relationship between South African actors involved with sports events and the global sports system, their understanding of the possibilities and challenges of hosting major sports events in the country and the knowledge transfer process with respect to hosting major sports events.

It was established that the sports federations had good relationships with the global sports system, which could be attested by the opportunities that they had been given for hosting major sports events, and a number of their officials incorporated in the executive committee of some international sports bodies. The benefits that these federations get from the global sports system are actually their entitlement just like the rest of the members from other continents. However, when generally giving their perception of the general sports system, they voiced their concerns of not being treated equally with members from Europe and North America especially when it came to having slots for major sports championships, hosting of major sports events or even being employed at the international federation headquarters. Though this might be the case, the sports officials from Africa can still use their officials elected at the international federation executive to articulate their issues and fight for their rights. It is through teamwork and abandoning individuality that they can work together for developing sports in the continent.

The South African actors having had the opportunity of hosting several sports events understood very well the possibilities and challenges of hosting these events and have strategically established a division within the Ministry of Sports to deal with all matters of bidding and hosting of sports events. However, apart from the continental multi – sport event (All African Games hosted in 1999), South Africa has only hosted single sports events and has yet to host a global multi – sport event (Commonwealth or Olympic Games). The same applies to the other African countries and developing countries. Nonetheless, the reason for these countries not hosting major multi-sport events is not entirely their fault.

The requirement for IOC and CGF for their events to be held in one city as opposed to several cities within a country is quite prohibitive to most developing countries especially when it involves different types of sports infrastructures being developed in one city. These international federations should relax their rules according to their values to ensure that these events are also hosted in other member countries. For instance, for a brief period FIFA operated a continental rotation system that helped South Africa host the first African World Cup in 2010. IOC and CGF can move away from the city building to nation building so that local governments in several cities can team up and share the costs for the games. The IOC has indicated a willingness to do this in its 20+20 agenda adopted in December 2014.

There are several lessons to be learnt from the experiences of South Africa and perhaps the most important one applicable to Kenya and other developing countries was to start by hosting smaller events and building up to the bigger ones. By doing this, the sports infrastructure will be developed gradually and be more affordable without overburdening the public purse. This also gradually builds up the experience that most event holders require. Another lesson was the importance of having a continuity plan once a country decides to enhance its image globally through hosting of major international sports events. This is because if you are going to put yourself on the world stage, you should have a continuity plan of staying there by hosting several successive sports events. Lastly, though hosting of international sports events can sometimes be a useful development tool, countries can only gain economically through careful financial management and planning, use of existing stadiums and sports facilities, and investment only on essential internal infrastructure (Bray, 2011).

Interviews with South African officials suggested that there were generic factors that are relevant for any country considering hosting a major sport event and also most pertinent or challenging for developing countries. Hosting major sports events is a mind-set that the government needs to actively promote as it is not a one-off event but a long-term process. A country wishing to host major sports events has to plan by starting with smaller events then followed by the bigger events (Cornelissen, 2004b). This will make the sporting infrastructures available by the time of hosting the bigger events. This also means that the stadiums get to have a legacy as they will not be for one-off events but would have served the hosting of several sports events (EC- SA).

The need for planning early and documenting all the decisions and plans was recommended for countries hosting major sports events. This is about being ready and prepared and ensuring that the task at hand is understood. The prospective hosts of any major sports event should gather all the information on the requirements and make sure that they understand them very well (SAFA 1). Brighenti et al (2005) advised that the group preparing the bid must be well structured right from the beginning of the process, with special attention being paid to the allocation of tasks and the internal structure should be designed in such a way as to facilitate the future organisation of the event.

In the preparation, the impact that the event is going to have on the country's finances and the whole country should also be understood including both negative and positive impacts of hosting the event. After understanding all the impacts and still feel like hosting, then the country should be prepared to work hard to see that they win the bid to host the event and finally host the event (SAFA 1). Government support and goodwill was an important lesson that the actors and agencies of South Africa learnt of. Without it, no global sports body would give the hosting rights to a country as no matter how prepared in terms of fund a federation can be, there are other issues that go beyond funds that only the government of a country can do; the most important of which is entry clearance to the country and security. If the government does not support the event, it is better not to go ahead with it (SASCOC-1).

The identification and establishment of the necessary structure for hosting purpose need to be in place as early as possible. This would ensure that all the necessary requirements are identified and sourced on time. All the necessary units that should be contained in that structure should be in place as early as possible. Every member should work towards one goal as team work was strongly stressed as an essential strategy of achieving the common goal of successfully hosting an international sports event. Every member, despite their profession should work together once they are in the local organising committee (SAFA 1). Any infrastructure to be developed for the sport event must have a legacy for the citizens of the country. The projects should also be sustainable. All these projects and the events must be seen to be going to help the economy, any infrastructure to be developed for the sport event must have a legacy and the projects should also be sustainable (SASCOC- 1).

Once a country has decided that it wants to use major sports events for tourism, development purposes, or enhancing its national image, it should have a continuity plan after hosting the first major sports event. This is because if you are going to put yourself on the World stage, you should have a continuity plan of staying there. So in the continuity plan, South Africa should have had an event like Commonwealth Games following up the World Cup almost immediately and thereafter the Olympic Games' (EC – SA).

The three theories of social development have been useful in understanding the accounts of hosting of sports events in South Africa contained in this chapter. The interviews with SA officials illustrated that hosting sports events are perceived as helping to modernise the country, however some of the issues with modernisation are highlighted by the problems that SA has faced. Thus dependency theory is useful in highlighting the economic issues SA faced in hosting events and relationships with international sports bodies and post-colonial helps explaining the cultural factors; that is the negative media representations that the country faced when bidding and preparing to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The next chapter discusses Kenya and, taking the experiences of South Africa into account, the possibilities of that country hosting major sports events.

### Chapter 7

# KENYA AND THE POSSIBILITIES OF HOSTING INTERNATIONAL SPORTS EVENTS

## Introduction

This chapter is based on the responses of the Kenyan participants, placing emphasis on the voice of these groups of people in sports federations and the Ministry of Sport. The interviews with 18 Kenyan participants were analysed to understand the meaning of these groups' perspectives on the possibilities and challenges of hosting major sports events in Kenya and other developing countries.

The chapter starts by examining the relationship between the Kenyan sports actors and the international sports federations, including global sports bodies. It thereafter explores the understandings of key actors and agencies in Kenya with respect to the possibilities and challenges of hosting major international sports events. The chapter investigates the knowledge transfer process with respect to the hosting of sports events by examining how and where key sports actors in Kenya seek to obtain information about bidding and hosting. The chapter also examines the experiences and qualifications of the Kenyan sports actors in order to determine their capability in managing and hosting major sports events. Lastly, the chapter critically discusses the findings with regards to the available literature on the hosting of major sports events and the analysis throughout the chapter is underpinned by the three theories of development - modernization, dependency and PCT.

#### The Relationship between Kenya and the Global Sports System

The research found that there were good working relationships between the national sports federations and their respective international sports federations. Nearly all of the participants from the sports federations were happy with their relationship with both their respective continental and international sports federations, which they termed to be good and cordial. For example, SF KE – 3 said their relationship with the International Paralympics Committee (IPC) was good due to the benefits that the IF brought them:

'Our relationship with IPC is quite good and cordial. The Kenya National Paralympic Committee was able to participate quite well in the London 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games because of the help in terms of finance and trainings received from International Paralympics Committee' (SF KE - 3).

SF KE - 4 alluded to their appointment as an official of the International Handball Federation as an indication of good relations.

'The relationship is very cordial because to get appointed as a member of any of the international federations commissions or even as an official is not easy. So unless there is good working relationship, it is not easy to get the appointments. For example in the International Handball Federation committee where I serve, there are only two Africans (Kenyan and Senegalese). East Africa is not very popular in handball, so when it comes to a point where they appreciate one's work and is chosen to be a member of international commission, means there is good working relationship. (SF KE – 4).

SF KE -7 mentioned the regular participation of the country's athletes in events organised by their IF created good relations and indicated respect by their IF.

'The relationship is very good and our federation is one of the respected federations by IAAF since the country produces very good athletes that support IAAF events like the Diamond league. There are always one or two Kenyans participating in those events worldwide' (SF KE - 7).

Generally, from the responses, we can deduce that the Kenyan officials cite the benefits that their respective IFs gives them as a sign of good relations. Dependency theory helps in understanding the relationship between the IFs and their respective national federations, where both have something to gain from each other (Bale and Sang, 1996). In this case, the IF through the financial and technical support to their national affiliates are able to be assisted by the national federations in promoting and developing the sport in their respective countries. When the participants from sports federations were further questioned on why they perceived their relationships with their international federations to be very cordial / good, most of the sports federations' participants termed the relationship to be good due to the support they receive from the international federations in terms of technical and financial aid, their officials being nominated or appointed as executives of the international body, constant communication with the international federation, regular participation of Kenyan teams in world events, IAAF Diamond events and national federations being given the opportunity by their international federations to host one of the international sports events. The assistance given to sports federations whether due to the obligation of the IF towards their affiliates or as grants, forms a kind of dependency for the federations and makes them to continue relying on the same organizations for support instead of working hard to maintain themselves. The participation of the national federations in the events of the IFs also helps promote the events of the IFs and shows that both the national federations and the IFs need each other in order to meet their objectives i.e. they are both dependent on each other to achieve their objectives (Bale and Sang, 1996). These good relations are not however uniform across all IFs and the specific case of FIFA will be discussed later in the chapter.

#### Negative perceptions of the global sports system

When the participants were further probed on how they perceived the global sports system as a whole, mixed reactions emerged since they were now giving their views on the global sports federations generally and not their individual / respective IFs. The majority of Kenyan participants felt that African countries were very disadvantaged. They claimed that African countries do not have much say in the running of the international sports federations since there are very few, or no members in some of these international bodies from African countries (MOS KE - 3). According to the participants, this meant that the African issues are not articulated well or they are not given the recognition that they should have. It was also felt by some that African countries have not been given equal opportunities with other continents when it comes to sports like football or management jobs at the IF offices, and yet when it comes to international federation elections like FIFA, that is when they are recognised because of their numbers (SF KE -9).

It is the western world that still has a low opinion of Africa and undermines it. There are many qualified African officials who can be in those positions but there must be a disconnect somewhere (SF KE - 9).

As mentioned in the previous chapter, CAF has five of its members in the FIFA's executive including a senior vice president but the participants still feel that the continent is discriminated against. Many of my respondents suggested that the nomination of these officials were just a mere token as there is nothing much that the continent gains from FIFA apart from what can be termed as their rights; financial and technical assistance that they are entitled to for promotion and development of the sport in their countries. FIFA and IAAF are among the very few IFs that have a number of elected officials from Africa in their executive committee. Both FIFA and IAAF have five officials each from Africa in their executive board while most of the other IFs do not. This translates into one fifth of membership across the six continental groupings, yet the African countries still feel that they are being discriminated against. For instance, the African countries have always been discontented with the number of slots allocated to them for the FIFA World Cup which they feel is too few compared to the members who are affiliated to FIFA. Equally, in FIFA, the United Kingdom which is supposed to be one country has four voting rights while the rest of the other countries have one voting right each which has been a source of contention with other countries and more especially with the African countries (Darby, 2002).

There is the possibility that though the African officials might be having positions in these committees, they may not be adding any value to Africa hence the negative perceptions of most of the participants. Apart from the 2010 FIFA World Cup, the other major FIFA tournaments held in Africa have been the Under-20 World Cup hosted in 1977 in Tunisia, 1999, in Nigeria and 2009 in Egypt, and the Under-17 World Cup hosted in 1997 in Egypt and 2009 in Nigeria. Both tournaments have each taken approximately 10 years before being hosted in Africa again. Similarly, none of the FIFA Women's World Cups have ever been hosted in Africa. Compared to FIFA, IAAF has had four senior World Cross Country and two World Youth Athletics Championships events hosted in Africa. The success of African (especially Kenyan) athletes in athletics might be the reason why there has been a sustained influence of the African officials within the IAAF.

#### Positions of power within the GSS

The management of most of the global sports bodies is controlled by the developed countries as there are few executives from these federations from Africa and other developing countries as mentioned in the previous section. FIFA and IOC presidents have mainly been from Europe and to a small extent North America but never from Africa or Asia. FIFA at least had a president from Brazil (South America) who got the position after the developing countries of Africa, Asia and South America teamed up and voted him in due to the discriminative Eurocentric reign that had been in place since FIFA's inception (Darby, 2002). The current FIFA senior vice president is from Africa, yet like the South African interviewees, the Kenyan participants still feel that the IF has not treated them equally with their counterparts from Europe and the America.

There have been several cases that have made the African countries feel that they are not treated equally as their counter parts in the developed countries. For example, Musumba (2015) reported how the Commonwealth Boxing Council, instead of holding elections as required in December 2014, decided to nominate an official from Australia to the presidential position and gave the African contestant who had vied for the same, a lower position as the African ambassador to the council. This case appears to support some of the participant's concerns as a democratic election process that was to take place was ignored and an official from a developed country was favoured against one from a developing country.

Bale and Sang (1996: 170) argue that countries like Kenya, despite being part of the global sport system, could be seen to be marginalised and cannot be equated as equal partners with other existing members due to the unfavourable terms in which they take part in all areas pertaining to sports. Despite all the issues raised against GSS with respect to discrimination, most of the South African participants, compared to the Kenyan participants, were more favourable to the GSS. This could suggest that either South Africa has benefitted more from the GSS or alternatively, they are more favoured by the GSS over other African nations. Likewise, most of the international major sports events hosted in Africa- 2010 FIFA World Cup, 2003 Cricket World Cup, and 1995 Rugby World Cup amongst others - have been hosted in South Africa and this could be one of the reasons why most of the participants had positive remarks about the global sports system. It can also be suggested that South Africa have developed further their systems/policies towards sport that has enabled a better relationship.

PCT highlights the fact that the relationships between the developed and developing countries have not been cordial due to the historical injustices of the colonial system (Cornelissen, 2004b), where the former conquered and inhabited the latter's territories and took away their natural resources (Leys, 1975; Sayer, 1998). The negative perception of the developing countries by the developed countries has been carried on into the international system where the former are still discriminated against and rarely treated equally by the developed countries (Cornelissen, 2004b). It is in this vein that the GSS which is dominated by the developed countries also views and treats the affiliates from the developing countries as their subordinates. There is a mixed situation in the Kenyan relationship with the GSS, where there are few national federations who interact well with the GSS (e.g. Athletics Kenya with the IAAF and IOC), whereas there are a majority who feel discriminated against by the GSS. Thus PCT cannot be used to make complete sense of the situation. Dependency theory underlines how IAAF is dependent on Kenya and other African nations for their athletes' participation in IAAF events, whereas the African countries are dependent on IAAF and the IOC for sport aid, sport scholarships and prize money (Bale and Sang, 1996). In this case, both theories cannot do without the other if we want to understand the situation.

South Africa has some good relationships with the GSS and this may be due to the actions they have taken with regard to sport systems and policy. Thus the theories of development cannot be applied in a blanket way. There are differences in the interactions between individual organisations in the GSS and developing countries which shows that we cannot see the GSS as one homogeneous set of organisations and developing countries also as one homogeneous set of countries. It is their interactions that are important. Therefore, it can be suggested that one single grand theory cannot explain the complexity of the situation in the Kenyan case.

Athletics Kenya can be singled out as the only federation that has been successful both in their management and performance in the Kenya. It is due to Kenya's dominance in middle and long distance running/ athletics that puts them in favourable position with both their respective IFs; the IAAF and the IOC. Athletics is among the top events that most people watch at the Olympics and Commonwealth Games. For example, there are particular major international races like the 3000 metres men's Steeple Chase that cannot be hosted without Kenyan athletes participating in them whether it is the IAAF Diamond Prix, IAAF World Championships, Commonwealth Games or the Olympics (Bale and Sang, 1996). This means that the federation has more interaction with the GSS than other national federations in the country hence their

success and good relations. Therefore, for IAAF events to meet the quality that they deserve, it has to be dependent to some extent on the exemplary athletes who dominate in each of their events.

On the issue of the composition in the executive of the global sports system, respondents SF KE -7, 10 and 11 all stated that officials should not be nominated or appointed as executives in the international sports federation just because they belong to a certain continent as this was not right. They argued that if the African officials wanted to be in the management of the international sports federations, they must first prove their capabilities by showing what they have done for their national federation and their sport, before they can earn a place in those institutions.

The international federations are meant to treat all members equally irrespective of their countries of origin but this has never been practiced as the developed countries continue to dominate these global sports bodies and discriminate against the developing countries due to their advantaged position (Darby, 2002). Maguire (2011) explained that when the aggrieved party can take it no more, they will always resist the dominant party, seek revenge and seize power from them. According to McKay (2004), post-colonialism features dominant development institutions and policies as being majorly Eurocentric, with the developed countries continuely viewing the developing countries negatively. Similarly, Cornelissen (2004a) explained that developing countries in general and Africa countries in particular, tend to occupy less favourable positions in both the GSS and in the bidding for major sports events. Correspondingly, these sentiments have been shared by Darby (2002) who noted that the challenge to the conception of Africa as a peripheral football continent had been evident within the governance of the game. He further added that the relations between the African Football Confederation (CAF), intercontinental confederations and the world body have long been characterised by conflict, inequality and at times open hostility.

#### Relationship with FIFA

The Kenyan Ministry of Sports has excellent relationships with most of the other international sports federations, but their relationship with FIFA has not always been good. The Ministry officials indicated that their relationship had not been good for a long time and had resulted in the Kenyan football team being suspended from FIFA several times (MOS-KE 1).

'The Ministry has very good relationships with most of the international sports federations except our relationship with FIFA has been frosty and an on and off basis. There was a time when the relationship was very poor and reached a stage where the country wanted to quit FIFA membership and stay out to re-organize football in the country. This was occasioned by being suspended several times by FIFA after being accused of political interference' (MOS-KE 1).

The participant further added that

'While FIFA wants national governments to invest money in infrastructure, security, programme and all that pertains to the development of football to that country, but when the national governments wants to step in whenever called upon by fans when there is mismanagement of funds in football federation, FIFA takes this as government interference' (MOS-KE 1).

The participants from the Ministry expressed their discontent with FIFA whom they claimed was high handed and tended to micro manage most of their national federations. The official claimed that this situation was not prevalent in Kenya only but could also be seen between FIFA and other national governments of some developing countries that seem to work well with other international federations like the International Olympic Committee (IOC). Several African and developing countries have either been suspended or threatened with suspension whenever they questioned any wrong doing by their national football federations (Nicholson, 2013). South Africa was threatened with suspension by FIFA when they questioned the match fixing scandal involving their football federation. The same sentiments on the attitude of FIFA towards the governance of football in most African and Third World Countries was shared by SF (II) KE-1 and SF KE – 5 who strongly stated that

'I have always disagreed with FIFA as they are using double standards. For example when a country wants to host FIFA World Cup, they demand for government full support yet whenever the same government queries the use for the public money given to national football federation for football activities, FIFA cites government interference. So if FIFA does not want the government to question the misuse of their public funds by the football federations for football activities, then FIFA should fund all football activities in member countries' (SF (II) KE-1).

Likewise, SF KE - 5 voiced the following

'This has happened in various countries where the government of the country comes in to ask for accountability of funds given to federations by national government or even the international federations and this is termed as government interference by the international federation. In this case the laws of the land should take its cause as this is a criminal offence. Once a person has been proved guilty in a court of law then the law should take its cause and the international federation should respect this' (SF KE – 5).

SF KE -5 further added that

'The international federations should also respect the Sports Bill or the constitution of some countries instead of always siding with the wayward international federation when they have committed crimes' (SF KE - 5).

The Kenyan government's relationship with FIFA has not been cordial for a long time due to the later accusing Kenya of government (political) interference after it took legal action against the Football Kenya Federation officials who had been accused of widespread corruption and also replaced the federation officials with a caretaker committee to handle football matters in the country (AfriCOG, 2011; Munro, 2005). There had been a public outcry about mismanagement, corruption and the illegal sale of players to foreign agents hence the Kenya government taking those actions against the federation (AfriCOG, 2011; Munro, 2005) did not

go well with FIFA. Most people and fans do not understand why FIFA condones such illegal actions from some of its affiliates and instead takes sides with them. Most of the global sports bodies do not seem to respect state laws of their national affiliates. Foster (2012) explained how global sports institutions created transnational laws that are autonomous to govern international sports and therefore not being liable to national legal systems. It is this law that most global sports institutions like FIFA use to harass national governments to abide by their whims and to keep themselves from any legal issues with the state governments (Garcia and Henk, 2013). PCT helps in understanding the domineering relationship of FIFA over the African countries.

However, there are two respondents (SF KE - 10 and SF KE - 11) noted that the global sports system and the African countries both needed each other since these international sports federations assist the African national sports bodies with funding, technical expertise and equipment to develop sports in these countries. Whereas, the international sports bodies need the African countries vote as it is the largest continent in the world with many countries and to help in developing their sports across the continent. It is up to the African countries to come up with proper plans on how to get the best from the relationship. Dependency theory is essential in highlighting that there can be a two way dependence between the master and the subordinate where they are both dependent on the other in order to meet their respective objectives (Bale and Sang, 1996). In sports it can be explained by how both the GSS and the national affiliates need each other; exploiter - exploited relationship (Bale and Sang, 1996). For development of a particular sport globally, the IF need the national affiliates to promote and develop the sport in their respective countries and to competitively participate in these sports at international level. On the other hand, the national affiliates need their respective IFs to assist with financial and technical assistance for the development of these sports and to organize events where their athletes can compete globally with other countries and be able to evaluate their progress.

During the follow-up interview with the Ministry of Sports to find out the current status of their relationship with FIFA, the Ministry officials confirmed that the relationship was now better and their national teams are participating in all FIFA sanctioned tournaments but the Ministry was still not happy with what they considered as the high handedness of FIFA particularly to developing countries. According to MOS-(II) KE 1,

'A lot of Third World countries feel rubbed the wrong way by FIFA and they feel that it does not behave the same way with the developed countries. FIFA must help in drawing a line with what is due to the national government of member countries and what is due to them, if federation officials contravene the laws of the country (criminal or civil), then FIFA must not support them but help in making sure that the offender is made to pay for his / her crime by not interfering'.

The official's concern is that FIFA should recognise and appreciate the role the national governments play in the development of football in their countries and also respect the laws of the member countries. When the federation officials were asked if international federations should work with national governments in the development and good of sports, most of them agreed and SF (II) KE-1 explained that

'most governments in developing countries own most sport facilities and there are also other issues like security and immigration that is in the control of the government that makes it very important for international sports federations to work together with the government for the development of the sports. Even if federations have their own facilities and funds, they must still work together with the government because of the issue of providing security, visas for the teams that come to the country etc.' (SF (II) KE-1).

The participant further added that

'The country's law should always prevail as when the sports events end; teams will go back to their own countries. The members have to abide by the laws of the country as the tournament will end and life must go on' SF (II) KE-1.

We can establish from the participants remarks that FIFA has mostly been interfering with national issues of developing countries and the latter's governments feel that FIFA cannot behave in the same way with the developed countries. FIFA does not respect the sovereignty of most developing countries and feel that they can do anything that they want. The diffusion of the game of football in Africa was originally used as a mechanism of maintaining socio-

cultural conditions that were favourable to the colonial agencies and despite the independence of most of the African countries, FIFA still uses the same system to undermine most of the African national governments. The African countries and other developing countries have also used football to unite and resist the imposition of unfair treatment accorded to them (Darby, 2002). Hence, PCT is useful in understanding how the relationship between FIFA and the African countries has always been that of former imposing dictatorial rule to the later, while later challenging and resisting the former.

The Kenyan federation officials indicated that their relationship with their international federations were very cordial because of the benefits that they get from them. The financial and technical support that the national federations receive from their respective IFs are the obligations of the international federations to their national affiliates which the latter are entitled to irrespective of their relationship. According to the IOC charter (IOC, 2013), under article number 26 which explains about the mission and role of the International Federations (IFs) within the Olympic Committee, the IFs are expected to ensure that their individual sports are developed throughout the world and to provide technical assistance to their national affiliates in the practical implementation of the Olympic Solidarity Programmes amongst others. So in order to fulfil this mandate, the IFs that are able, do provide financial assistance for the development of their sports to their national affiliates, outside offering technical assistance for the same. However, there have been cases where giving sports aid and assistance in the form of financial and technical support have been used as a form of making the peripheral countries continue being dependent on the core states and the IFs like IOC and FIFA (Henry and Al-Tauqi, 2008). Most of the assistance is not given free as there is always something in return expected from the beneficiaries. This practice is mainly used when the leadership of IFs need something from the periphery and semi-periphery countries. For instance, during the campaigning for FIFA's presidency by both Joao Havelange and Sepp Blatter in 1974 and 1998 respectively, they courted the African and the other developing countries by promising them more slots in FIFA's World Cup tournament and development projects amongst others in return for voting in favour of them (Darby, 2002; Armstrong, 2007). Though this was done on an individual basis and both Africa and Asia gained by getting more slots for the World Cup, development projects (FIFA Hope Projects) and South Africa finally hosting the FIFA World Cup, it can still be seen as an example of how the IFs have used the African and other developing countries for their own benefit. PCT applies here where the developing countries are exploited for what they are able to offer. In this case, they are denied their right and only

given in exchange of their votes. This also highlights the cultural processes within the global organizations which relate to PCT as the developing countries continued being dictated to and dependent upon the IOC and FIFA for their sporting needs (Darby 2002). Sports assistance (financial or technical) is a way of getting development through sports where those assisted get to improve their performance in sports and use it as a career which improves their living standard should they become successful. The major sports event industry, apart from other issues, is mainly dominated by the developed countries as most of their headquarters of most international sports federations are mainly based in Europe and most of their officials also originate from there. This gives them complete control over the industry and therefore developing countries are not likely to compete on the same level with these countries when it comes to winning the bids to host these events (Cornelissen, 2004a). It is with reference to the above that South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup final was widely viewed as an important litmus test for the African continent as the country's success or failure would determine if the African and other developing countries would be relied on to host major sports events (Cornelissen, 2004a).

The complex nature of the relationships between Kenya and the GSS was further highlighted by SF KE - 6, who noted that in the spirit of sports, Africa is really being favoured and noted that there are more African teams in the World Cup and FIFA made sure that World Cup came to Africa. This participant further added that IOC and FIFA have been putting development projects in Africa. The global sports system was now focusing on Africa and supporting Africa. The IOC has put up a development centre in Zambia; similarly, FIFA has put several centres in Africa for football development. Both IOC and FIFA put up these facilities to help the youth of these countries to develop and sustain themselves through sports (Levermore and Beacom, 2009; Coalter, 2007). Modernization is linked to development aid from developed countries to developing countries and it is always given with the expectation of something in return from the receiver (Matunhu, 2011). The IFs like FIFA and IOC have gained some much untaxed profit from their sports events hosted on their behalf (Pillay and Bass, 2008) that they have to give something back in terms of social responsibilities to needy nations that need to develop their sports. These IFs have also partnered with humanitarian NGOs like the UN and UNICEF to use sport for development in developing countries in order for them to be linked with the good causes of this international NGOs and not be seen as only seeking for profit from their events (Darnell, 2012; Levermore, 2009). The next section analyses the understanding of Kenyan actors and agencies with respect to hosting major sports events.

# The understanding of the key actors and agencies in Kenya with respect to the possibilities and challenges of hosting major sports events

Kenya's experience of hosting major sports event

Having offered a contextual analysis of the nature of the relationship that Kenya and other developing countries have with the GSS, this section turns to the possibilities and challenges of hosting major sports events in these countries. The key actors and agencies with respect to the hosting of major sporting events in Kenya are the national sports federations, national government, sponsors, civic bodies and the local authorities, a fact that most of the participants understand very well. Most of the sports federations organize national sports events annually with the assistance of the Ministry of Sports and it is only very few associations (Athletics Kenya, Kenya Rugby Union, Cricket Kenya, and the Kenya Golf Union) that are able to organize their events without relying on the government (SF KE 2). This is because these federations are managed professionally and have been able to get sponsorships for hosting their events (SF KE 2). Apart from the Ministry of Sports assisting national sports federations to host national and international sports events, there are some events that the Ministry solely hosts without collaborating with the sports federations. These are grassroots sports events that it organizes to recruit youths for the sports centres established by the Ministry at the district and the county level (MOS KE -1).

The Ministry hosts on its own sports like football, netball, volleyball, karate. These events are hosted on its behalf at the district and provincial level by its sports officers at the grassroots level. The events are hosted by the officers among themselves (fellow colleagues) in order to tap talent. These events are done independent of sports federations (MOS KE - 1).

According to MOS KE - 3,

The Ministry normally assists national sports federations to host national and international championships. These International championships that they are assisted to host range from regional/zone, continental and international level ( $MOS \ KE - 3$ ).

Continental and other international sports events are regularly hosted in the country by very few federations. These federations either host a regional, continental or international

championship in a year (SF KE -1; 10, MOS KE - 2). Few Kenyan Sports Federations have hosted worldwide events, the exceptions were identified by MOS KE 2 listed when he listed the major sports events that Kenya hosted in the last ten years.

Regional championships are hosted almost every year by the sports federation in collaboration with the Ministry of Sports.

Continental Volleyball Championship for junior men and women

Almost every year, Kenya hosts regional or continental Basketball Championships.

2012 African Senior Swimming Championships,

2010 African Senior Athletics Championships.

2009, 2011, 2013 Regional (CECAFA) Football Championships

2008 African Canoe and Kayak Championships

2007 World Cross Country

2003 Cricket World Cup co-hosted by South Africa and Zimbabwe,

Annual Kenya Safari Sevens Rugby International Tournament

Annual Kenya Golf International Tournament.

To date Kenya has only hosted four major sports events; the 2010 African Athletics Championship, the 2007 World Cross-Country Championship, the 2003 Cricket World Cup (when hosts South Africa agreed to have Kenya host two matches, though only one match was played after New Zealand gave a walk-over due to security matters) and the 1987 All Africa Games in Nairobi. The other major sports events hosted in Kenya are; the annual Kenya Open Golf Championships, that invites players from the European circuit, the Safari Rally Motoring Championship, a permanent feature in the World Rally Calendar and the annual Safari Sevens Rugby International Tournament. In 1999, Kenya hosted the International Cricket Council Knock-out Championships in Nairobi, bringing in the world's leading cricket nations. South Africa, on the other hand, is experienced in hosting major sports events having hosted several World Cups (Cricket, FIFA, and Rugby), World Championships and other continental championships (Cornelissen, 2004b). The country is currently the sole bidder for the 2022 Commonwealth Games after Edmonton – Canada withdrew (Anon, 2015) and if successful, it will once again be the first African country to host the games after hosting the first FIFA World Cup in 2010.

#### Government support

While discussing the vital requirements for hosting major sports events, my interviewees stressed that there should be a strong government commitment to support championships. This has to be done in writing as there are sensitive things like security, visa issues, and overall expense underwriting which only the national government can do. According to SF KE – 5,

'Basically when a sport federation bids for any international sport tournament, the international federations (FIFA, IOC) always ask the national federation to assure them that national government will assist in meeting most of the costs (availing the sports facilities, security, protocol, accommodation, and transport for officials' etc.). The government of the hosting nation should give a commitment in writing that they will be able to assist in these requirements i.e. underwrite the cost of hosting the international tournament. So the government has to work in collaboration with the national federation to assure the international federation that the country will be able to host the tournament'.

According to SF KE -2,

'In order to host World Cup, Olympics or even other major international sports events, there must be full commitment and good will from the government and unnecessary bureaucracy of the government should not be there'.

The Kenyan actors seem to know most of the requirements with respect to hosting major sports events, the challenges and possibilities of hosting the same. Though they do not have experience of hosting major sports events, they acknowledge that the most important requirement is the goodwill and support of the national government, and then the availability of international standard sports facilities of the sport event being hosted. According to the IOC charter, the national government of the applicant city has to submit to the IOC a legally binding document in which the government undertakes and guarantees that the country and its public authorities will comply with and respect the Olympic Charter (IOC, 2013: 68). Lack of government support cost Kenya the opportunity to host the 1996 African Cup of Nations football tournament that was eventually hosted by South Africa (Anon, 2014c). The international sports federations have this rule in order to clear themselves from financial burden associated with hosting of major sports events should there be cost overruns. South African participants also reiterated the importance of having government support before deciding to host major sports events (SASCOC 1, 2; SAFA – 1, 2, MOSR – SA). According to SASCOC 2, lack of government support made them withdraw from bidding for the 2020 Olympic Games.

With the knowledge of the requirements for hosting international sports events by the international sports federations, all the participants unanimously agreed that government support was the major requirement for hosting major sports event. After having government support, the government will ensure that all other requirements are available since they cannot commit themselves to signing the agreement with the IFs if they cannot avail the other requirements; sports infrastructures, security, visas, transportation, accommodation amongst others. Major sports events are vital features in the progression of countries to international or global societies as they assist countries in advancement to the global level through the infrastructures developed to host them. The infrastructures help in boosting the economy of a country both through business and tourism. Equally, Horne and Manzenreiter (2006:2) pointed out that mega-events 'have also had an important role in the transformation of the modern urban environment, as a conveyor of architectural design tradition'. However, in as much as the major motivation of hosting major sports events in developing countries is for development purposes, as has been discussed earlier, there have been occasions where the massive infrastructural developments for the events have not benefitted the countries but became a burden, due to high maintenance costs (Manzo, 2012; Labuschagne, 2011). The following section will discuss the major challenges hindering Kenya from hosting major sports events.

#### The major challenges hindering the hosting of major sports events in Kenya

This section discusses the range of challenges hindering the hosting of major sports events in Kenya. Some of these are economic in nature and, therefore, can be best explained using dependency theory, and others are cultural in nature (discrimination being evident in a range of cultural processes and the power relations between the GSS and developing countries) and can be better explained using PCT.

#### Lack of funding

Inadequate funding is the main challenge hindering most developing countries, including Kenya, from hosting major sports events (Andreff, 2008, 2001). Sport is still considered as a luxury and recreational activity in most African and other developing countries and therefore, when it comes to funding, it is not given priority.

'The percentage given to sports is very low as it is lumped under social services sectors where most services fall. So it ends up getting very minimal allocations. It can be less than 1% of the total GDP' (MOS KE - 3).

In support to the above statement, SF KE - 7 added that,

'Funding was a major challenge since most countries in Africa rely heavily on government support for sport activities which if available normally takes time to be released due to bureaucracy issues' (SF KE -7).

In government budgets, other issues like defence, health, education, agriculture, and tourism are given priority before sports. Funds allocated to sports activities is very inadequate that the public sometimes have to sustain local clubs or parents supporting their children in catering for their sports equipment and private training (Obonyo, 2013; Republic of Kenya, 2012). South Africa, though unlike Kenya, has a Sports Lottery Fund for financing sports activities but still have funding problems as the Sports Lottery Fund is not able to fund all the sports federations. AfriCOG (2011) cited lack of funds in the sports federations as the reason why there have been instances in the country where some executive officials personally fund the sport activities of their clubs and federations. In addition, due to lack of financial stability of most sports federations in the country, some federations have been electing as members of the

executive, people with 'good financial means' to support the club or federation, an element that has ended up being justification for the same officials to steal from the federations in order to recoup the money 'invested' by them to these federations (Republic of Kenya, 2012). A number of federations in the country have continuously been accused of corruption and mismanagement of their federations hence the unending wrangles in most of them especially the Football Kenya Federation (Munro, 2005; AfriCOG, 2011). Though financing sport federations can be a good benevolent gesture on the part of officials who care for the development of the sports, this can also end up with abuse of office since the official personally financing the federation would feel that he / she is above the law and not answerable to the board or other executive members. Dependency theory helps in understanding the economic inequality and dependency of these countries on developed countries in meeting their objectives including hosting major sports events.

#### Necessity for Basic Needs

Africa and other developing countries still have problems with fulfilling the basic needs for their citizens and therefore however much they want to spend on sports activities, they still have to ensure that the essential basic needs are met. This has mainly put off many countries that have interest in hosting major sports events from doing so. The famous Mexican painting of *'No queremos goles, queremos frijoles'* ('we do not want goals, we want beans') on one of its stadium during its hosting of the 1986 FIFA World Cup in Mexico (Andreff, 2001:251) is a classic example of civil society resisting these events to be hosted in their country. If basic human needs have not been met there is a fear that basic social services to the public will be interfered with in order for the games to be hosted. Most of the sports federations in developing countries rely wholly on the government for funding while the government also have other obligations to fulfil. So this adds to the problem.

Kenya's economy is still not strong and the priority areas are the social services like health, security, food, and education. Sport is still considered as a recreation issue in most African countries. So the major challenge is funding (MOS KE 3).

Even though some participants had felt that the African countries were not taking sports seriously, this might not be the case since most African and developing countries have economic challenges that hinders them from meeting their basic needs let alone investing in sports development (Andreff, 2008, 2006, 2001). This highlights a tension between investing in sport and dealing with serious economic and social challenges. That is why many countries and NGOs have come up with bilateral agreements and SFD projects to help these countries develop their sports (Darnell, 2012; Levermore, 2009). It is easier to say that African countries and other developing countries should stop relying on the developed countries for support of their sporting activities as was stated earlier by the few participants.

Sports has the potential to lead to modernization, though it is a gamble for countries like Kenya when they have basic needs to meet. It can still be argued that both developed and developing countries are yet to completely satisfy the basic needs of their citizens. The potential short-term and long-term gains that will be gained by a country after successful hosting of a major games event will be determined by the feasibility studies and strategic planning that the country does in the preparation for both bidding and hosting the games (Swart, 2005). Countries do take risks in hosting these events even when they have other important issues to consider first. It is the potential gains that all countries try to get given that in the last four to five decades economic market changed from manufacturing to new growth areas like tourism, events and sports (Cornelissen, 2004b; Black, 2008). Industrialization and urbanization are among the determinants of social development in line with the Rostow stages of growth (Rostow, 1960; Gruneau, 1988). Countries have used hosting of major sports events as a major reason for rehabilitating of remote and backward areas of society into what can be termed as modern and urban. The cities in the developed world - Barcelona, Manchester, and Sydney used these events for the rehabilitation of their cities (Cook and Ward, 2010; Malfas et al, 2004). Developing countries normally use hosting of major sports events for development purposes in the areas of transport and communication networks, stadium construction, and other related areas that bring both tangible and intangible benefits that would best be fast tracked through the hosting of these events (Levermore, 2009). Developing countries who eventually succeed in hosting these events, usually aim to signal to the world that they have attained some kind of development or are modern. Modernization theory also helps in understanding the importance of sports in the society and why those interviewed viewed it as important despite the tensions with funding for critical activities such as education and health.

# Availability of adequate sports facilities

All the participants established the lack of sports facilities as the main challenge for the country since it only has one international standard sports stadium. This problem is not only unique to

Kenya but also prevalent in South Africa and other developing countries. One of the elements essential to modern development is the development of widespread infrastructures of communication (Levermore, 2009). Hosting of major sports events has the potential to enable a country to fast track the rehabilitation and improvement of all related infrastructure that will support the hosting of these events and this can stimulate the economic growth of business in a country to modern development (Levermore, 2009). Yet Kenya lacks in adequate sports facilities as explained by SF KE - 4

'The available sports facilities are also very few and in need of refurbishment to international standards. For example Kenya only has one indoor sports facility yet there are very many indoor games played during multi event games like the Commonwealth Games or the Olympics' (SF KE - 4).

When compared to Kenya, South Africa is further ahead as it has average standard facilities in some regions whereas Kenya as mentioned earlier only has one international standard stadium in the capital city while the rest of the seven regions in the country do not have average standard facilities. This issue was exemplified by SF (II) KE -1 who described the state of Kenyan stadia as follows:

'Kenya still have stadiums that were built in the colonial era and its only two stadia that it has built in the last 50 years post-independence. The government has never tried to rehabilitate the ones built before independence' (SF (II) KE 1).

The country hosted the 1987 All African Games, a multi-sport event, very successfully, '*yet it has failed to use that opportunity to sustain the two once beautiful stadia it had built for the event*' (SF KE -1) which would have helped it to build up for other bigger events (SF KE -5). Due to the improvement of sports all over the world, technology, and the tremendous increase in the number of sports disciplines in major sports events, the country currently cannot even host another All African Games any time soon unless it acts urgently on its deteriorated sport infrastructure (SF KE -3). These sentiments were also shared by SF-9 KE, who advised that

'it is only when the government invests in sports facilities, spread all over the country, and then we can talk of hosting the African Cup of Nations or FIFA World Cup' (SF KE -9).

However SF KE -2, cautioned that

'When investing in such sports facilities for the major sports events, countries should also think of what happens to those facilities after the event. For example, most of the South Africa's World Cup stadiums have not been adequately utilised after the World Cup'.

This links to Horne's (2007) point that hosting sports events require international standard infrastructures to be put in place for the same but most countries have been finding it difficult to maintain these stadia due to the high costs involved hence most of them become a burden to the country. Most developing countries only wait until they want to host major sporting events to start developing their sports infrastructure. The construction of sports infrastructures for major sports events in these countries takes the bulk of funds meant for hosting major sports events in developing countries compared to the developed countries (Bray, 2011; Matheson and Baade, 2004). This is because the facilities are either inadequate or non-existent therefore these countries have to start from the beginning in developing them as opposed to developed countries that already have some of the facilities in place when they want to host these sports events (Black, 2010; Black and Van der Westhuizen, 2004; Matheson and Baade, 2004). So what do these countries need to do in order to host these events and also gain from the much talked about events without overburdening their public? Cornelissen (2004b) advised that developing countries should aim for smaller events that will help in developing facilities and also gain valuable hosting experience that will help them progressively build up for the bigger (mega) events. Hosting of smaller events will also result in the development of other sports related infrastructures like transport networks, hotels, telecommunication that will boost both business and tourism hence improvement of the community around. Likewise, it is always believed that the infrastructural developments for sports events enhances the visibility of a country for tourist attraction and at the same time elevating it as a modern country.

## Availability of adequate accommodation

Most of the participants also cited inadequate accommodation and most of the available infrastructures and facilities needed to be upgraded and refurbished and new ones constructed.

'During the 2010 Africa Senior Athletics Championships hosted in Kenya, the standard of hotels needed were not enough for the participants and the payments for their use took a long time. So in order to host the World Cup, Olympics or even other major international sports events, there must be full commitment and good will from the government and unnecessary bureaucracy of the government should not be there' (SF KE – 2).

In order to host these events, there should be adequate standard accommodation for athletes, technical officials, management officials and sports tourists who come for the purpose of the sport event. The standard and category of accommodation, depends on the requirements of the IF of the event to be hosted. For example, FIFA normally requires 5 star hotel accommodation for some of their officials (FIFA, 2014). While some IFs are not extravagant and are content with standard accommodation of athletes and officials.

# Developing policy for hosting major sports events

At the time of hosting the above events, Kenya did not have an events policy or a sports policy, which is very essential for the management of all involved in sporting activities. The Kenya Sport Act (discussed earlier in chapter 5) does not have provision for the hosting of international sports events or major sports events nor does it mention the issue of hosting of sports events (national or international). When the interviewees from the sports federations were asked what the major provisions on the Sports Act were touching on hosting of international sports events in the country, SF KE – 4 explained that

'The Act is silent on the issue of hosting of international sports events and the federations do not know what is expected of them on the same. For example, the federations are not sure who is to take care of the athletes as they prepare them for international championships because this is not taken care of in the Sports Act' 'there are no provision of hosting of the events in the Act but though the Act was silent, the organization of international sports events falls under the Ministry of Sports and the Sports Fund will be funding the sports activities and participation of sportsmen and women in international events and hosting of international events' (SF KE – 3).

This means that all the actors assume that all issues of hosting of any international sports events will be taken care of by the Ministry of Sport irrespective of the Sports Act being silent on it. The Ministry officials when asked what guidelines they follow when hosting international sports events, they stated that whenever an international sports event is to be hosted in the country, they normally use a cabinet memorandum which is specifically meant to give guidelines for the particular event to be hosted and ceases at the end of the event. According to the Kenyan Sport Act (2013:687), 'the National Sports Fund will be funded by the proceeds from any sports lottery, investments and any other payment required to be paid to the Fund which will be used for sports persons and sports organization and any other requirement required under the provisions of the Law'. The Sport Act only mentions one of the functions of Sports Kenya will be to 'inculcate the sense of patriotism and national pride through sports and recreation, create awareness on matters of national interest through sports events' (Kenya Law, 2013:680). The Act does encourage the sports federations to bid for hosting of major international sports events, whereas it does not give guidelines on how these federations are to go about bidding for the events or what guidelines to be followed when hosting these events. South Africa having hosted several major sports events recognized the need to have a hosting policy for regulating and guiding on the hosting of events in their country (SASCOC -2; MOSR - SA). Having guidelines on how major sports events are to be hosted and funded by the government is very essential as most of the federations rely entirely on the government for funding of all their sports activities in the country. The events also bring in both economical and developmental benefits to the country, therefore the government should recognise its importance and come up with policy guidelines for hosting these events.

#### Security

The security of all the participants of major sports events is very important to the event right owners and the hosting country hence it being one of the major requirements for hosting the events. Since the 1998 twin bombings of United States embassies in Nairobi and Dar e-s Salaam, there have been a number of terrorists' attacks from extremists linked to Al-Shabaab which have escalated since 2011 when the Kenyan government deployed its military in Somalia to fight the Al Shabaab terrorists (Press Association, 2014). These attacks have caused a number of major international events hosted in the country to be boycotted by some teams due to insecurity reasons; during the 2003 Cricket World Cup co-hosted with South Africa and Zimbabwe, New Zealand refused to honour their match with Kenya citing security reasons (Cornelissen, 2011). According to SF (II) KE-2

'Kenya of recent has not been lucky because of the various attacks by the Al Qaeda terrorist group in the country and for the last four years, ICC has not allowed any international matches to be played in the country despite the Kenyan officials assuring them that other international federations have been allowing the country to host their international tournaments. The federation has also appealed to the government to intervene on their behalf but so far we have not been successful' SF (II) KE-2.

The International Cricket Council (ICC) is one of the sports federations that have refused to host their international matches in the country due to insecurity reasons, despite Kenyan authorities assuring it of its safety and Kenya has been forced to play their home matches in other countries (SF II KE – 3). With the security threats from Islamic extremists and sports federations side-lining the country from hosting major sports events, the question remains on how the country could salvage itself from these threats and be able to win the affection of the international community to host the international sports events. Libya could not host the 2013 Africa Cup of Nation due to civil unrest in the country and the event had to be moved to South Africa. (MOSR – SA). Auer (2014) reported that since the overthrowing of Moammar Gadhafi in 2011, Libya has been plagued with civil war that has seen it withdraw from hosting both the 2013 and 2017 African Cup of Nations. Libya had swapped their chance to host the 2013 edition of the African Cup of Nations with South Africa so that they could host the 2017 edition due to the civil war in Libya. But since there is still war in the country, they also had to relinquish the rights to host the 2017 championship too.

South Africa was also hounded with the insecurity issues in the advent of hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup by the international media (Bolsmann, 2010) yet they managed to host a successful World Cup with no incident of insecurity. There were also major concerns of high terrorism threat with the Athens 2004 Olympics and several teams threatened to withdraw and the Greek government had to accept assistance in terms of security planning, training and intelligence from the combined effort of the Olympic Advisory group and representatives of various nations' security forces (Taylor and Toohey, 2007). In order to succeed in issues like terrorism that affects so many people who might not been targeted at, countries have to depend on each other in order to counter such atrocious acts. Kenya will have to learn from South Africa and Athens if they have to host a successful event without security incidents.

## Inadequate Qualifications of the Kenyan Sports Officials

In order to determine the level of managerial competence and effectiveness of the sports officials from both the Ministry of Sports and sports federations in the country, the officials were asked the number of years they have been with the sports federations / institutions in which they are currently working for, their terms of employment, their education level and if they had any training in event management besides sports related training. This was also done in order to evaluate the competence of the officials in sports events management and their readiness to work together in ensuring that the country was able to win and successfully host one of the major sports events (Brighenti et al, 2005). The research found that most of the Kenyan sports federations' officials were working as volunteers and not paid or full time employees of their national federations. This is due to the fact that most of the national sports federations rely heavily on the government to finance their sports activities hence they cannot afford to employ the officials on fulltime basis (SF KE – 7, SF (II) KE-1). On the other hand, there were five out of 15 officials who had other professions elsewhere (employed or self-employed) and therefore they did not work for their particular federations on a fulltime basis.

The officials were elected into office by the clubs affiliated to the federation for a term of four years which is the normal term of office for all the sports federation in the country and the officials can be re-elected for another term when the four years elapse (Kenya Law, 2013). There were some officials who had been re-elected several times by their federations and have been officials of the federation for more than ten years, while there are some who are in their first four year term of office. Before the enactment of the 2013 Sports Act, sports federation officials could be re-elected as many times as their members wished, but this has changed to a

maximum of two terms in one position, then the official can vie for different positions once the two terms has elapsed (Kenya Law, 2013). The re-election of an official for an additional term in office depends on how the members felt the official handled his/ her duties during the last term in office.

SN	Codes	Education Level and Profession	ORGANIZATION
1	MOS KE – 1, 2013	B.Sc., MBA Sports	Ministry of Sports - Full
		Administrator	Time Official
2	MOS KE – 2, 2013	B.Sc., MBA Sports	Ministry of Sports - Full
		Administrator	Time Official
3	MOS KE – 3, 2013	B.Sc., M.Sc. Sports	Ministry of Sports - Full
		Administrator	Time Official
4	SF KE-1, 2013	M.A Project Management	KNSC – Part time
		- Training Consultant	Official
5	SF KE -2, 2013	O' Levels, C.P.A (K)	KNSC – Full Time
		- Federation Official	Official
6	SF KE -3, 2013	M.B.A (Strategic Management)	KNPC - Part Time
		- Computer Programmer	Official
7	SF KE - 4, 2013	A' Levels	KHF – <b>Full Time</b>
		- Federation Official	Official
8	SF KE -5, 2013	O' Levels	FKF - Full Time
		- Federation Official	Official
9	SF KE - 6, 2013	A' Levels	FKF - Full Time
		- Federation Official	Official
10	SF KE -7, 2013	O' Levels	Athletics Kenya - Full
		- Federation Official	Time Official
11	SF KE -8, 2013	A' Levels	KNPC - Full Time
		- Federation Official	Official
12	SF KE -9, 2013	O' Levels	FKF - Full Time
		- Federation Official	Official
13	SF KE -10, 2013	O' Levels	NOCK - Full Time
		- Federation Official	Official
14	SF KE -11, 2013	A' Levels	NOCK - Part Time
		- Federation Official	Official
15	SF (II) KE-1, 2014	O' Levels	CECAFA - Full Time
		- Federation Official	Official
16	SF (II) KE-2, 2014	B.com	KNPC - Part Time
		- Financial Consultant	Official
17	SF (II) KE-3, 2014	B.Sc. Structural Engineering	Cricket Kenya - Full
		- Engineer	Time Official
18	SF (II) KE-4, 2014	M.Sc. Economics	Kenya Rugby Union -
			Part Time Official

Table 7.1: Education levels of the Kenyan Sports Officials

Table 7.1 above shows the educational levels of the Kenyan sports officials who participated in the study. The majority of the sport federation officials do not have a basic university degree and those who are graduates; none of them have a sports related degree. However, there are some officials who have done some certificate courses on sport management organised by the National Olympic Committee of Kenya (NOCK). All the Ministry of Sports officials who were interviewed had basic degree in Physical Education and Exercise and have been employed with the Ministry for over 20 years (MOS II KE -1; 2; 3).

The sports federation officials interviewed were executive officials who deal with day to day management and decision making in their sports federations. The research findings indicate that most Kenyan sports institutions from club level to national level are managed on a voluntary basis. The main reason, according to the participants, is that most of the federations rely heavily on the government for financial support for their sport activities and therefore cannot afford to employ professional sport managers or their officials on fulltime basis (SF (II) KE-1). The findings also indicated that most of the federation officials did not have basic undergraduate degrees and therefore there is the question of their competence level in managing the sports federations in the country. Out of the 15 sports federation officials interviewed, only five had university degrees while four had Advanced Level High School Certificates and the remaining six had Ordinary Level Secondary School Certificates. As already mentioned earlier in the chapter, sport federation officials with university degrees, have degrees which are not related to sports and are full time professionals elsewhere. On the other hand, all the Ministry of Sports participants have basic degrees in Physical Education and had been teaching physical education in schools before joining the Ministry of Sports where they have worked for over 20 years. Nine out of 15 sports federation officials interviewed worked on a full time basis as volunteers in their respective sports federations and six of these officials were Ordinary Level Secondary School Certificate holders while three were Advanced level High School Certificates holders.

When compared to the Kenya sport federation officials, most of the interviewed South African sports officials had basic under graduate degrees and were all employed as full time employees of their sports federations. The sports federations of South Africa that participated in this research (SAFA and SASCOC) both operated as fully-fledged institutions with qualified professionals in various departments (SAFA-2). Though they both continuously seek sponsorship from the Sport Lottery to supplement their income, they could still get money from their international affiliates and other areas like sponsorship.

Due to lack of financial independence of most sports federations, most sports federations in the country cannot afford to fully pay and retain the services of their educated and competent officials or employ professionally qualified officials and it is only those who are not highly educated and are unemployed who can work voluntarily in the federation. The qualified sports federation officials seek fulltime employment in areas where they can be paid as per their qualifications. Most of the officials who work voluntary for the sports federations rely on the foreign trip allowance and funds from the government and well-wishers meant for sporting activities which they divert for their own personal use hence the massive corruption and mismanagement of sports federations in the country (Republic of Kenya, 2012). Poor and corrupt leadership which is a keen to developing countries has been a major challenge that has hindered their development (Kingsbury, 2004). He advised that a politically stable government is essential for the development in the country in order to attract local and foreign investment. As already mentioned, most of the developing countries are not financially independent and have to depend on developed countries for assistance in funding their sports activities (Andreff, 2006, 2001). Similarly, many sports organizations are greatly dependent on their national governments for financial support of their sporting activities (Hoye and Cuskelly, 2007). However, the dependency on others for any assistance or sustenance does not necessarily bring about improvement or development in one's situation since it allows the assisting country or organization to continue dominating over the dependent, while the dependent one does not have option but to continue being subordinate.

## Lack of Hosting Experience and Institutional Framework for Hosting Major Sports Events

Most of the international sports events hosted in Kenya apart from the 2007 World Cross country championship have mainly been hosted without gaining knowledge from elsewhere i.e. the organizers did not have to travel to the other countries to find out how the events were being hosted or even get the services of event managers or consultants. This is because most of African sports events (regional and continental) did not require competitive bidding and the countries would just be offered the opportunities to host or individual countries requested to host them since many countries were not able to host the events due to lack of or inadequate sports and related infrastructures. Most participants reported that they had been participating

in many international events therefore they would just organize their events from what they see from those events and did not have to travel to other countries to learn (SF (II) KE-2). They further added that they would get the information about the requirement of hosting major sports events from their respective international sports federations. The participants also indicated that they have been hosting their events from what they see happening in the events they take their athletes to participate in and do not travel to previous hosts to learn from them. This means that after getting the requirement from the international federations, the Kenyan sports federations just experiment with what they have seen from the events they have attended, this is in exception to 2007 World Cross Country hosted by Athletics Kenya that they LOC travelled to the previous hosts. In these events they do not acquire the services of international events consultants apart from the technical officials sent by the international sports federations (SF (II) KE -2, MOS KE- 2). This is like a trial and error system and it also tells of the calibre of sports events held in the continent, which cannot be measureable to those of the developed world in Europe or North America.

Most of the major events held in the country have never involved serious bidding. Both the 2007 IAAF World Cross country that was held in the city of Mombasa and the 2017 IAAF World Youth Championship to be held in Nairobi had the contestants stepping down (Xinhua, 2005; Okoth, 2014). The 2007 edition of the World Cross Country had Miami (USA) and Madrid (Spain) bidding for the event but they withdrew in favour of Kenya who had won the championship for a record of 19 times (Xinhua, 2005). While the 2017 IAAF World Youth Championship had Buenos Aires -Argentina and Greensboro - USA bidding to host the event (Anon, 2014c) but both countries also withdrew leaving Kenya as the sole bidder (Super Sport, 2014). It is in the preparation for hosting the 2007 World Cross Country Championship that the Local Organizing Committee travelled to the previous hosts Saint Galmier (France) and Fukuoka (Japan) who hosted the event in 2005 and 2006 respectively. It can rightfully be argued that the country does not have experience in bidding for major sports events and if the two other contestants for the 2007 World Cross country had not withdrawn in its favour, the there is a possibility that the country would not have won the rights to host the event.

Most international sports federations cannot allow their events to be hosted by countries that do not have experience and even if the countries have experience, some global sports bodies still send in their experts to work along with the LOCs to ensure that the events succeed. PCT is useful in understanding how the Northern dominated ISF's have constructed and 'othered' African national sports federations in ways that lead them to seek to marginalise and diminish them. This feeds into Kenya's limited experience in hosting major sports events. For instance, the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup by South Africa was used as a litmus test for testing if they could really be able to host a successful World Cup (Cornelissen, 2004a). Likewise, after the 2012 London Olympics, Mehaffey (2012) reported that all eyes are set on the next Olympics to be held in Rio in 2016 and if the event is successful then Africa can hope to host the 2024 Olympics. Mckay (2004) indicated that the developed countries have never had confidence on the developing countries to be responsible and knowledgeable in anything that they do. Darby (2002) pointed out that the developing countries have continued to depend on the developed countries in many forms and this is an issue that is likely to remain for long and promote their underdevelopment if they do not do anything to change it.

Due to lack of hosting experience, Kenya does not have a department or division in charge of hosting of international sports events and whenever they want to host these sports events, an ad hoc or a steering committee is formed for that purpose and disbands when the event is over (MOS KE - 3). The participants from the Ministry of Sports were asked if the Ministry has ever considered having a separate unit/department in charge of hosting sports events since they currently do not have one. One Ministry official (MOS II KE -1) explained that

'The government has not considered that as the events are not frequent and they keep on changing. Having a standing unit that is in charge of these events will be very costly as they will not be having enough/adequate work to do yet they will keep on earning money for doing nothing'.

When they were further probed on what happens whenever there was an international sports event to be hosted in the country, most of them responded that an ad hoc committee is usually formed comprising of Ministry officials and the sports federation officials to organize the event and disband afterwards (MOS KE -2). The participant further added that it was not economical

to have such a department because the country does not host sports events often so the officials seconded there will be idle most of the time (MOS II KE -1).

This brings in the concern of the inadequate institutional framework for sports events organization i.e. the use of ad hoc committees resulting in no expertise, poor record keeping or knowledge transfer for future and the dual role played by the Ministry officials. The officials are members of the steering or local organizing committee for hosting of international sports events in the country which might pose some level of ineffectiveness and inefficiency in hosting of sports events. South Africa having hosted a number of major sports events, saw the need to have an independent division which together with the national sports federations organizes for the hosting of major sports events. The division also hosts hospitality centres for promoting South Africa as a desired sports tourist destination identified major international sporting events (MOS- SA).

The department also does the following:

*Coordinating intra –government support needed with regards to bidding and hosting of sports and recreation events.* 

Implementing the Bidding and Hosting Regulations.

*Obtaining cabinet approval for an event which is a lengthy process that can go for about six months.* 

Providing event and protocol insight to the LOCs (MOS-SA).

The developed countries managed to get developed through following successful policies of their colleagues who effectively used them for their development (Rostow, 1960). The developing countries could also develop their policies in line with the successful developed countries by identifying countries that have successfully hosted events and borrow policies that can work for them. The other concern is that the officials who are not permanently involved in the management of sports events and keeps changing regularly, are not trained or do not have experience on event management as personnel also keep changing with every event. Brighenti et al (2005) recommended that since preparing to host a major sport event involves a lot of processes that can take years; conception of the idea, feasibility studies, preparing a bid,

bidding process and eventual hosting of the event, it was prudent to have a permanent division dealing specifically with the issues of events. Similarly, Coaffee (2012) noted that when the UK continued to bid unsuccessfully to host the Olympics, it was proposed that the Department of Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS) establish a 'centre of expertise' to evaluate the processes of coming up with a winning bid.

## Discrimination from the GSS

One important issue that the participants did not mention when asked of the challenges hindering them from hosting major sports events but they continuously mentioned when discussing their relationship with the GSS, is the discrimination that they encounter from the GSS and developed countries. The discrimination that they feel from the GSS against them could also be a contributing factor hindering them from hosting the events. As has been mentioned in earlier chapters, the competition to host major sporting events occurs on an unequal basis and this worsens in the case for the developing countries especially African countries that are placed in the lower position (Cornelissen, 2004b). This can be seen from the hosting regulations that favour the developed countries since they have most of the requirements, especially the sports infrastructures, whereas the African countries do not and only start developing them when they want to host the events (Black, 2007, Cornelissen, 2004b). Most of the Kenyan participants felt that the five slots for the FIFA World Cup given by FIFA to the African continent was not enough given the number of countries in the continent and the number of professional players from the continent playing in the English and other European league.

'Africa is a large continent, so when FIFA gives it only five slots for FIFA World Cup, it is not fair. It's high time that more slots should be added to Africa since it produces a lot of players who play professional football in Europe and both UEFA and FIFA gain a lot from them. Due to both the magnitude of the African continent and its contribution of football, it would be fair that more slots be added to it to enable the football development of other African (Central and Southern) countries as it is mainly the North and West African countries that go for the FIFA Men's World Cup tournament' (SF KE – 5). 'The number of slots to the World Cup allocated to the continent compared to the number of African countries affiliated to FIFA is not fair. The only time FIFA recognizes the continent is during election time because if the continent votes as a block then it will be advantageous to the federation hence alluring them'.

As mentioned earlier, the scheduled 2014 Commonwealth Boxing Council election was never conducted, instead the officials were handpicked to positions where the Presidential position was given to an official from a developed nation while an African who was vying for the presidential position was instead given African Ambassadorial position (Musumba, 2015). However, IAAF has very good and mutual interactions with Kenya due to their two-way dependency (Bale and Sang, 1996). The IAAF depends on most of the country's athletes to participate in some of its events and those of the IOC. The country's officials are in the executive council of the IF and the country also gets sports aid and technical assistance from the IF. This therefore, puts Kenya and the GSS in a mixed and complex relationship where a few national federations have good interactions with the GSS as opposed to the majority who have more challenging relationships with the different sports federations.

## Power relations between the GSS and developing countries

The headquarters of most of the IFs are domiciled in developed countries and the majority are managed by officials from those countries (Darby, 2002). Cornelissen also added that it is never acknowledged that developing countries, more specifically African countries, are discriminated against when it comes to bidding for international sports events (Cornelissen, 2004b). PCT also characterises the dominant development institutions and policies as being Eurocentric in nature and being based in the developed countries (Levermore, 2009). Similarly, in sports, most international sports institutions and SFD projects tend to be dominated by the developed countries and are often regarded as tools for neo-colonization by the African and non -European countries (Darnell, 2012; Levermore, 2009; Darby, 2002). The discussion of the findings in this section has shown that there are a number of issues that Kenya must address in order to host major sports events. The following section discusses the possibilities of Kenya hosting the events.

#### Possibilities of hosting major sports in Kenya

The above sections shows the various challenges that hinder Kenya from hosting major sports events, the main challenge being funding. In order to mitigate some of these challenges, the government should increase its funding for sports activities since what it has been funding is very negligible compared to the recognition it has been getting from sports (MOS KE – 1). For example, what has been put aside for sports infrastructure and equipment is very negligible. With adequate funding, most of the economic challenges would be solved.

The normal sports federation management issues range from recruiting, managing and retaining staff and athletes, budgeting, sourcing for sponsorship, event management, and public relations amongst others. Looking at the Kenyan sports federation officials' education level, and what is involved in most national sports federations worldwide which is more than sports (participation and development), it is clear that the sports federations are not proficient in sports related matters compared to the Ministry of Sports officials who only deal with sport administrative issues but do not deal directly with athletes. The fact that sports federations were being managed on a voluntary basis makes these officials not to feel fully part of the organisation as they are not paid for the work they do and they therefore cannot give their best to the organization. The other disadvantage is that their executive officials who are graduates are not available to offer their services to the federation fulltime and therefore even if they had good management skills, they cannot fully use it for the benefit of their federation as they may be only coming to their federations once in a while for meetings or on important occasions. University education is more than just the next level of learning process as it provides not only the high level skills necessary for every labour market but critical skills that are necessary for all professionals in their areas of work (EPI, 2014). By the officials having at least a basic undergraduate degree, it would help them in their everyday work which involves more than just sports issues but business, human resource, marketing, public relations, decision making and general management amongst other issues. In sum, due to the growing need for specialists in the sport industry at both national and international level management of world sport, there is consequently the need for highly qualified managers (Schatzmann, 2014).

## Knowledge transfer process

In order to determine the knowledge transfer process that would be suitable for Kenya, I asked how and where the key sports actors in Kenya and South Africa source and obtain information about bidding and hosting of major sports events and other issues with regard to sport development in their countries. Most of the Kenyan officials seem to know what is required of them in order to host major sports events. Most of which they got to know from their respective international sports federations.

> The country has to first put up a bid, showing its intentions of hosting any international sports events. The country also has to fill in some questionnaire, and the international federation will then send in a team of experts to look at the sports facilities in that country and to assess the capability of that county to host a sports mega event. The country's government also has to give written support for hosting the event (SF KE - 5).

The participants were also asked where they get information with regards to hosting major sport events. Most of them who host regional and continental single sport events stated that they get information from their respective international federations. They further explained that they have mostly been hosting from what they see from other past events that they participated in, while those who host international sports events alluded to travelling to the former hosts to get their experience.

In most of the events that we have hosted, we have not travelled to other countries to learn. We just host from the experience of seeing from the events that we have participated in internationally. The Ministry officials also helps us with the hosting as they have the experience (SF KE II -2).

The sports federations that have experience in hosting major sports events agreed that they do visit other countries.

Yes, we do. When hosting the 2007 World Cross-country, the LOC members travelled to Saint – Galmier, France and Fukuoka, Japan that had hosted the events in 2005 and 2006 respectively (SF KE - 7).

South Africa, on the other hand, due to experience in hosting major sports events including mega sports, have been able to have experience consultants who they use to manage the hosting of their events. Whenever, they are bidding to host major sports events, they would travel to different former hosts to learn from them (SASCOC -2). Kenyan actors should therefore learn from experienced African countries like South Africa on the best ways to go on in hosting these events.

#### **Bilateral Relations**

When the Ministry of Sports was asked if they had any hosting relationship with other countries they explained that Kenya had various bilateral co-operation acts on various issues with several countries and within these, the agreement/ co-operation allowed for all aspects of development of sports, which includes hosting of major sports events. They however regretted that the country has never exploited the hosting aspect since it co-hosted the 2003 Cricket World Cup with South Africa (MOS KE II – 1). The Ministry was further questioned if they had specific hosting relationship with South Africa. The participants confirmed that they had good and friendly relationships with South Africa and also indicated that the bilateral agreement between the two countries on sports development was due for signing any moment so that both countries could start to exploit its benefits (MOS KE II – 1).

In the area of sports, Kenya has bilateral agreement with South Africa where there is agreement to have exchange programmes and visits by sports science personnel and in the development of sports science, training and attachment programmes in areas of coach education, curriculum development, sports education, sports management and facility development and management (Ministry of Youth and Sports, 2012). The Ministry also confirmed that they had bilateral agreements with several other countries on sports issues (exchange programmes, research, training for sport officials and athletes) with countries like Brazil, China, Cuba, Germany, South Africa, and South Korea. Sports personnel from the sports federations, Ministry of Sports and universities travel every year to these countries for both long-term and short-term courses. There are also sport exchange programmes and training that involves the athletes with these countries (MOS KE II – 1, 2, 3). It is through such relations that countries help each other and can be able to learn from the other. Dependency theory is important in the understanding the

dependency of most developing countries, especially those of Africa who rely on the developed countries and some developing countries like China and Brazil for their sports activities. Bilateral relations with the developed countries have been useful in training sports officials in these countries (Andreff, 2001). For instance, almost every year a number of sports officials from Kenya are trained at Leipzig University, Germany through the bilateral agreement with the country (MOS KE II – 3).

#### Hosting Regional Sports Events

During one of the follow-up interviews, I enquired from the participants which were the most realistic international sport events that the country could host in the next ten years. Almost two thirds of the participants named the African Cup of Nations (AFCON) and when further asked why specifically that event, they indicated that the event just needed a minimum of four stadia in four different cities or towns as opposed to the Olympics or Commonwealth Games that would need several kinds and numbers of sports facilities in one city.

'The event mainly requires a minimum of four stadia of international standards spread countrywide and it is a single sport event that does not involve different kinds of sports technical personnel' (MOS II KE).

Some of the participants noted that Kenya performs well in track and field athletics and the country had successfully hosted the 2010 African Athletics Championship and the 2007 World Cross Country Championship. They therefore felt that the country should bid to host IAAF World Athletics Championships since they had experience in hosting athletics events. They also added that the equipment and sports infrastructure used for the event was still available for use. In February 2014, the country was chosen to host the 2018 African Championship of Nations (CHAN); a biennial football championship for home based players (Anon, 2014e). Though this event is not as appealing as the African Cup of Nations tournament which includes foreign based professional players, it is still a good starting point for the country as it is now a requirement in the continent for any country wishing to host the African Cup of Nations' (AFCON) tournament (MOS II KE - 3).

Apart from the 2018 CHAN tournament, Kenya will also be hosting the 2017 IAAF World Youth Athletics Championships and lost the bid to host the 2017 Africa Cup of Nations (MOS II KE – 1). The Ministry officials were asked what preparation they were doing in readiness for the 2017 IAAF World Youth Athletics Championships and the 2018 CHAN tournament. They stated that they mainly deal with policy issues such as improving the playing environment all over the country and were also improving the sporting infrastructure all over the country particularly for football as this was going to provide more for the future players beyond the 2018 tournament. Lastly, it will be providing funds for football programmes and exposures to the teams that will be participating in the tournament and beyond including the future World Cup qualifiers (MOS (II) KE – 1). When asked how the country was marketing itself to win the support of the other African countries to host other events that they bid to host, the Ministry officials indicated that in as much as the government supports sports federations for support of their bids and also assist them whenever they seek their help in lobbying through the national governments.

## **Event Hosting Policy**

The omission of the provision on hosting of major international sports events in the Kenya Sports Act is a concern as it either means that it was done out of ignorance or the government of Kenya does not take hosting of sporting events to be important. The government of New Zealand formally acknowledged the importance of the hosting of events in the country in 2006 and established the Major Events Development Fund to help organizations and governing bodies to attract, develop and retain strategically important events (Richardson, 2012). Any country that is serious about hosting of major sports events should strive to have one, as noted by Brighenti et al (2005), who emphasized the importance of having an official policy for hosting sports mega-events and cautioned against deciding to bid for a sports event as a matter of chance. They further added that the sports events policy could allow a region, city or nation to bid for certain types of events strategically in line with their objectives and goals. Kenya could therefore be more strategic and align a sports event policy with wider developmental goals – sports for modernization as this will also help the country develop other sports and not to only depend on middle and long distance athletes.

## Conclusion

A good relationship between the GSS and national governments is very important with regards to hosting of major sports events. One of the requirements for hosting major sports events by the international sports federations is full commitment of the government of the hosting country and there is no way this can happen if the relationship between the two actors (government and international sports federation) is not sound. Since FIFA is the rights owners of the FIFA World Cup, and if Kenya wishes to host the event, their relationship with the world football body has to be good and cordial. It is therefore important that the relationship between international sports federational governments be good for security and business purposes when it comes to hosting international sports.

In order for Kenya to competitively vie with other countries in hosting major sports events, it should also have an institution or division specialising in hosting sports events. This will enable the country to conduct thorough research on issues of bidding and plan much earlier to enable them to come up with a successful strategy. South Africa, who have had the experience of hosting major (including mega) sports events and are currently bidding to host the 2022 Durban Commonwealth Games (Anon, 2014d), has an international liaison directorate under the Ministry of Sports and Recreation whose main function is to coordinate and manage government's support services for hosting identified major international sporting events. The directorate also assists in promoting South Africa as a desired sports tourist destination by hosting hospitality centres at identified major international sporting events (SRSA, 2013).

There is a lot that the country needs to learn about bidding and hosting of major sports events from other developing countries that have succeeded in hosting these events. In order for the Kenyan actors to learn from the experiences of other successful developing countries, it would be of benefit to examine and discuss the qualifications and experiences of their sports officials so as to determine where they have been going wrong and if learning from the successful countries will be of benefit to the country. Developing countries like Kenya should aim for smaller events that will help in developing their facilities and also gain valuable hosting experience that will help them progressively build up for the bigger (mega) events. Hosting of smaller events will also result in the development of other sports related infrastructures like transport networks, hotels, telecommunication that will boost both business and tourism hence improvement of the community around. It is therefore advisable or logical for a country like Kenya that has inadequate sports facilities to go for second or even third order games like the African Cup of Nations or other continental single sports events. These continental sports events are more manageable to host as their requirements are more easily achievable compared to FIFA World Cup, Commonwealth and Olympic Games.

Kenyans were advised to research and identify an event that would be feasible and could easily market the country than going for events that they will spend so much and might not win the rights to host or would be so costly for the country. SASCOC -1 noted that since the country was well known worldwide for middle and long distance athletics, it would be practical for Kenya first to use that leverage to bid for world sports events in track and field such as the IAAF World Athletics Championships and IAAF World Youth Athletics Championships before embarking on other major sports events. According to SASCOC – 1, these events do not need major development of infrastructure given that the country had the experience of hosting both the continental IAAF Athletics Championship and the World Cross Country and therefore had the experience, manpower and equipment from the two events.

This chapter examined the relationship between Kenyan actors and agencies involved with sports events and the global sports system, their understanding of the possibilities and challenges of hosting major sports events in the country and the knowledge transfer process the country can learn from other developing countries that have experience like South Africa.

The Kenyan sports federations have cordial relationships with their respective international sports federations. They also have good relationships with the Ministry in charge of sports in the country. On the other hand, the Ministry of Sport also had good relationships with most of the international sports federations but indicated that though currently their relationship with FIFA could be termed as good, it had been an 'on and off' one where they had almost reached the point out of pulling out from FIFA because of being accused of government interference. The other concern is also the laws that IFs are answerable to since most of them have been forcing most national governments to rescind their decisions against punishing national federations who have committed crimes contrary to their wishes (Forster, 2006).

Despite the cordial relationships, many Kenyan sports federations, felt that the GSS has always been discriminatory against developing countries, most especially the African continent. This was because of the limited slots in the world championships and singled out FIFA. They also stated that there were no or few officials from the continent employed at the FIFA headquarters and very few officials from the continent were at the executive levels of most of the IFs. Whereas, Kenya had very good relationship with IAAF, where the country's athletes dominate in most of the middle and long distance athletics competitions in major sports events organized by the IAAF. Thus, the interviews illustrated the complex relationship between Kenya and organisations within the global sport system. However, there were few participants who felt that the African continent are too dependent on the developed countries and the GSS for their sporting needs and always expecting to be favoured because of their disadvantages. It might be true that there is some discrimination, but the African continent also has to work hard in order to warrant any positions at the IF secretariat and the slots for global championships since that level requires high level competition and it would not be fair to others if the championships quality is compromised in order to allow marginalised groups to be admitted in.

Kenya currently does not have a sports event hosting policy, which is very important for giving guidelines on hosting sports events (Houlihan et al, 2009; McCloy, 2009; Brighenti et al, 2005). A policy also helps in guiding the government and the federations on which events are to be funded by the government and the amount to be given by the government. Brighenti et al (2005) emphasized that it is important to have an official policy for hosting major sports events and

deciding to bid for a sports event should not be a matter of chance. They further added that a sports events policy could allow a region, city or nation to bid for certain types of events strategically in line with their objectives and goals.

Kenya needs to have a well-established institutional framework for hosting major sports events and not an ad hoc committee whenever there is an international sports event to be hosted. Hosting of these events needs proper research and planning well in advance and not just deciding at the last minute to host such event. This is also to enable proper evaluation of the viability of these events to the country. By having such institutions will also help in creating expertise, record keeping and knowledge transfer for the future. Coaffee, (2012) noted that when the UK continued to bid unsuccessfully to host the Olympics, it was proposed that the Department of Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS) establish a 'centre of expertise' to evaluate the processes of coming up with a winning bid.

There are several lessons that Kenya and other developing countries could learn from South Africa and these have been discussed in chapter six. The most important one applicable to Kenya and other developing countries was to start by hosting smaller events and build up to the bigger ones. By doing this, the sports infrastructure will be developed gradually and be more affordable without overburdening the public purse.

Modernization theory is useful for understanding the motivation for developing countries to host major sports events. Hosting of sports events can contribute to the reinvigorating the physical infrastructure of a city or region (Levermore, 2008; 2009) which has the potential to create business and employment opportunities for the community hence standards of living could be improved within the community around the event. Post-colonial and dependency theory of development, on the other hand, can be used to understand the challenges faced by developing countries in terms of development of sports in their countries and their bid to host major sports. The requirements put in place for hosting most of the major sports events are too prohibitive for the developing countries. Most of the developed countries already have these

requirements, so this gives them an advantage over the developing countries. The fact that most of the IFs headquarters are in the developed countries and most of the officials of the IFs also comes from these countries, gives the developed countries great advantage over the developing countries with regards to all issues pertaining to sports. When it comes to bidding also, they have the money to use in swaying the votes to their sides (Jennings, 2006; Cook and Ward, 2010). Since most of the developing officials are absent or few at these IFs, the developing countries issues at the executive level are likely to be ignored or not taken seriously as they do not have enough people to articulate them properly and any proposal they have that does not favour the developed countries may be voted out due to their few members. In IFs that have a number of African officials, there is not much difference that they contribute to the continent apart from just adding numbers.

In summary, there is a mixed and complex relationship between the GSS and Kenyan sport which is difficult to explain purely using either PCT or dependency theory alone. The GSS is perceived by Kenyans to discriminate against them with regard to hosting events and there are elements of dependency but there are differing relationships in different sports federations. On the other hand, Kenya has not put itself in a position that enables it to host major sporting events given that it has not formulated the required policies for hosting these events and developed sports facilities for the same. However, this is to some extent is understandable given the issues it faces with regard to poverty, health, security amongst others. There is a tension in terms of funding sport to enable hosting sports events that might then have positive benefits (as would be suggested by modernisation theory) against funding health, education, and social services, which are influenced by the specific economic and political context of Kenya. Thus we argue that the challenges and issues of hosting major sporting events in Kenya are influenced by GSS structures in interaction with the decisions made by the local agents and agencies of sport in that country. Knowledge transfer from South Africa may enable Kenya to develop appropriate policies to start putting itself in a position where it can host major events, but the experience of South Africa discussed in the previous chapter, also shows that despite being more developed with regard to sports events than Kenya, actors involved in sport still see themselves constrained by the GSS.

#### Chapter 8

#### CONCLUSION

# Introduction

The focal point of this thesis has been to examine the three objectives outlined in Chapter 1. Firstly, we set out to analyse the relationship between African countries and the global sports system (GSS). Secondly, we have critically assessed the understandings of key actors and agencies in Kenya with respect to the possibilities and challenges of hosting major sportsevents. Thirdly, we have begun to investigate the potential for a knowledge transfer process with respect to the hosting of major sports events, using Kenya's relationship with South Africa as an example. To do this, library and archival research has been conducted in the UK and Kenya. Semi-structured interviews have been conducted with key actors and agencies in Kenya and South Africa and two sports mega-event consultants based in Africa. This concluding chapter reprises the key points of each chapter, and thereafter uses Archer's morphogenetic sequence of relationships between structure and agency to draw together and make sense of the empirical findings on Kenya's possibilities and challenges with regards to hosting major sports events. This is then followed by a summary of the contribution to research of the thesis, reflections on its limitations and recommendations for future research.

#### **Thesis Overview**

The thesis began by giving the background of the research and explaining the research objectives. Chapter 2 defined various types of sports events and examined their classification. The chapter critically analysed why cities and countries compete to host major sports events and it then highlighted the theoretical perspectives through which the social outcomes of previous events have been understood. The chapter concluded that the main reason developing countries seek to host major sport events is to enhance their development process. The way in which global sports organizations like FIFA and the IOC are structured, and the way in which the bidding process is conducted and decided upon is not favourable to and is very often prohibitive for developing countries. This is because many developing countries are lacking in the capacity to make available the infrastructure that is needed for these events. The competition to host major sporting events also occurs on an unequal basis and this worsens in the case of developing countries, especially the African countries that are placed at the lowest

position within the international system and the GSS. This ensures that developed countries continue dominating the hosting of sporting events like the Commonwealth and the Olympic Games and unless there is change at both the structural level and individual developing country level, the trend is likely to continue. That is why events such as the Commonwealth and Olympic Games have not yet been hosted in Africa.

Chapter 3 examined the meaning of development and analysed three influential theories of development that are used as the interpretative framework for this thesis; Modernization Theory, Dependency Theory and PCT. The chapter established that the world is a complex and pluralistic place. The chapter identified that each of the different theories of development provide useful insights for understanding major sports events and therefore advocated the use of different aspects of modernization, dependency, and postcolonial theories. The chapter also identified that despite the criticisms of these theories, there are elements could be used to understand why countries compete to host major sports events (from Modernization Theory) and the challenges they face (from Dependency and PCT).

Chapter 4 adopted a critical realist theoretical paradigm adopted to examine the structures and agencies of the global sports system and discussed the research design of the thesis. The research philosophy was explained, and the chosen research approach was justified. The chapter also provided a detailed explanation of the data collection and data analysis process. The research methodology conducted for this thesis involved a two-stage approach which involved two similar phases: the first phase used analysis of archival data, a collection of secondary data and a literature review, whilst the second phase consisted of semi-structured expert interviews. Stage two followed on from the analysis of stage one data, enabling clarification of the initial findings of stage one and the collection of further data. Primary data was collected through a total of 24 semi-structured interviews.

Kenya was chosen foremost because the researcher is from Kenya and has also been a sports administrator in the Ministry of Sports; this therefore enables relatively easy accessibility to key actors of sports and of archival documents and information with regards to sports and major sports events in the country. Due to her position as an inside researcher, she would also be able to verify the information given due to her position and knowledge about sports in the country.

Chapter 5 focussed on the case of Kenya to examine the capability of developing countries with regards to hosting international major sport events. The chapter discussed the history of

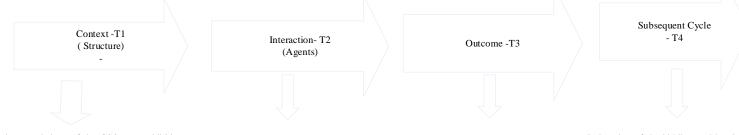
Kenya from pre-colonial and colonial times and how the country developed after independence to its current status. Additionally, the history of sports from pre-colonial times was discussed and how it developed through to the present. It was concluded that the challenges facing sports in Kenya included the lack of adequate funding, lack of adequate sports infrastructure, lack of policy guidelines on hosting of major sports events, lack of suitably qualified staff within the sports organisations and poor sports management in the sports federations. Finally chapters 6 and 7 analysed findings from the empirical research conducted in Kenya and South Africa.

South Africa was used for comparative purposes in this thesis as has been established from the empirical evidence that it is further ahead of Kenya and other developing countries due to its experience in hosting major sports events and development of international standard sports infrastructure. Secondly, the Kenyan and South African governments are in the process of signing an updated agreement to co-operate in the field of sport and recreation and that this thesis is rooted specifically in making sense of this agreement vis-a-vis major sports events. South Africa and Kenya currently share bilateral relations in other areas besides sports. It is hoped that the new agreement will be in force by the end of the 2015. In the area of sports, the two countries are to co-operate in the following areas: training and competition of athletes and teams; training and attachment of coaches; exchange of programmes and visits by sport science personnel and in the development of sport science; training, exchange and attachment programmes in areas of coach education, curriculum development, sport education, sport management and facility development and management; the exchange in technology, infrastructure and programmes in the development of information and research in the field of sport; and any other field and subjects deemed fit and necessary. This agreement could be very beneficial to Kenya in terms of bidding and hosting of major sports events since South Africa has a fully functional division of major events that also coordinates and manages government's support services for hosting identified major events in country (SRSA, 2013). It can help Kenya in setting up such a division, training and exchange programmes for the personnel of the division, and the requirements needed for the division to be functional. Thirdly, South Africa is the only country that has a well-developed policy regarding hosting of international sporting events in Africa and have a clearly defined system and structures for hosting these events. The country has a division within the Ministry of Sports and Recreation that coordinates and manages governmental support services for hosting identified major international sporting events and also markets the country as a sought-after sports tourist destination by hosting hospitality centres at identified major international sporting events (SRSA, 2013). Fourthly, it has been instructive to use South Africa as a comparative case in terms of outlining the relationship between other African countries and the global sports system since it has experience in hosting major sports events and therefore has been having more interactions with the GSS. Lastly, from South Africa, the research was able to learn of the achievements, challenges faced and lessons learnt during the bidding, preparation and final hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Despite the country being ahead of Kenya and most countries in Africa, it also still has problems like any other developing country; inadequate funds for sports activities, inadequate sports facilities, and lack of maintenance of the sports facilities, especially those developed for the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The sports facilities developed for the 2010 World Cup require funds for maintenance which the country cannot afford and there are no clubs also willing to lease these facilities (MOSR-SA, SAFA – 1). The international standard sports facilities in the country are not spread throughout the country but only concentrated in three major provinces, hence the majority of the citizens cannot access them (SASCOC – 2).

## Mapping the Challenges and Opportunities of the Global Sports System

As explained in chapter 4, the thesis adopted a critical realist theoretical approach to examine the structures and agencies of the global sports system. This enabled an investigation of the relationship between the global sports system and the actors and agencies of sports events in Africa. Although countries like Kenya aspire to host one of the major international sports events, the actual reality of hosting these events depends on many external factors that are outside of their control - the events rights owners whose guidelines must be followed, and the competition with other countries that also wish to host these events, amongst many others.

Archer (1995) explained that structure and agency operates between different time periods and this is because structure exists before the action (interaction) that transforms it, while the outcome (structural elaboration) postdates those actions (Archer, 1995). Figure 8.1 below shows the process which is explained in the following paragraphs.



- Hosting regulations of the GSS are prohibitive to Kenya and possibly other developing countries.

- Unequal treatment of Kenya and South Africa in terms of the executive position.

- Competitions to host major sports events occurs at unequal basis and Kenya perceive that they are positioned at the bottom of the Global Sports System.

-However, there's mixed and complex relationship between Kenya and the GSS where few federations interact well with GSS and majority feel discriminated against by GSS. IAAF – favourable whereas FIFA unfavourable In order for the agents (National Sports Federations, Governments) to succeed in achieving the outcome, these agents have to strive to meet some of the pre-existing structures in place that are manageable (the hosting of major events requirements) and find ways of convincing the global sports system to change those that are not manageable. -National policies to be improved to be in tandem with the international ones.

- Kenya to develop the required international sports infrastructures for major sports events.

- Training of the technical personnel, conducting feasibility research for hosting these events in Kenya, and learning from the experiences of countries that have hosted before. The officials from the developing countries who are nominated to be officials in the IFs should work together in order to fight for the development of sports in their areas and their rights also where they are being discriminated. - Relaxation of the bidding and hosting rules to assist the developing countries also host these events.

- Fixed ceiling on the amount to be used for bidding and hosting major sports events

- Countries given chance for countries to co-host their events.

- Major Sports Events hosted by continents in a rotation basis.
- Transparency in the bidding system
- -IAAF creates a favourable image for hosting several major sports events

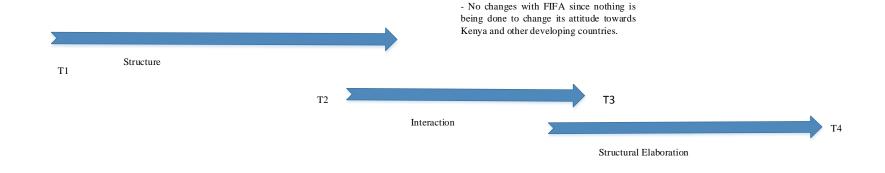


Figure 8.1: The Morphogenetic Sequence of the Relationship between Structure and Agency in the Global Sports System (GSS) (Adapted from Archer, 1995)

#### Structural Constraints

The key agencies, institutions and international federations that comprise the Global Sports System – FIFA, IOC, and CGF amongst others - have pre-existing structures that developed over time and have created constraints and controls over Kenya and possibly other developing countries. These structures (T1 in Figure 8.1) include the rules of the GSS, their organizational culture (their procedures and practices), their perception of the developing countries including Kenya and how they interact with these countries. These unobservable structures cause observable events, and in order to resolve the observable events, the structures that generate these events must be understood. For this reason the thesis embarked on examining the possibilities and challenges of hosting major sports events in developing countries to understand why most of major sports events were not being hosted in the developing countries.

The thesis has explained how the IFs require bidding countries to have a certain number of 'international standard' stadiums in place as one of the major conditions of hosting their international events. These hosting regulations favour the developed countries as most of them have the most important requirements, like relatively up-to-date sports infrastructures in place for hosting the major sports events as opposed to Kenya and other developing countries. The developed countries have more interaction with the GSS since their headquarters are located in the developed countries. For example, FIFA requires bidding countries to have between 8 to 12 international standard stadia, good infrastructure, and adequate five-star accommodation for officials of the global sports bodies, amongst other requirements that are largely out of reach for developing countries. Similarly, the IOC and CGF requirements of a city bidding for their events and having the various types of infrastructure for multi sports activities in one city, are equally prohibitive for developing countries who cannot afford to develop them for simply a short period of time. Most developing countries seek to host these events in order to promote the development of their infrastructures and also benefit economically from the proceeds of these events. It is because of these requirements especially, by the CGF and IOC, that the African continent has not yet hosted their events. When it comes to bidding for sports events, the developing countries have to start constructing their sports infrastructure from the beginning and are therefore disadvantaged by the bidding process. If they win the right to host major sports events, they will also need to spend relatively much more compared to the developed countries. There has been an excessive increase in the spending on bids and hosting of the major sports events by some countries highlighting the mismatch between hosting these

events and the goal of stimulating long-term economic growth. These prohibitive requirements and cost of the bids has made most of the developing countries keep out of the bidding contest.

The developed countries were the founders of most of the international federations of modern sports and it is through colonization by these countries that the developing countries got to learn these sports. In some well-documented cases modern sports were imposed on the developing countries and they were forced to abandon their traditional sports (Bale and Sang 1996). The developing countries only joined the IFs after their independence from their colonial masters (developed countries). Hence, the developed countries have always felt that they are the rightful owners of these IFs. The Kenyan and the South African officials claimed that the GSS discriminated against the developing countries since they are the ones controlling the GSS. This can be seen from the earlier example given from the Commonwealth Boxing Council which instead of holding elections as scheduled, nominated an Australian who was contesting for the presidency of the council with a Kenyan to be the president and the Kenyan nominated as an ambassador for Africa (Musumba, 2015).

PCT highlighted the fact that the colonial ties between developed and developing countries have considerably shaped and will always affect the way in which the developing countries are perceived and treated by the developed countries (Cornelissen, 2004b). This imbalance is heightened mostly by the continued dependency of the developing countries on the developed countries for foreign aid and for the funding of their sports activities. Thus pre-existing structures create mechanisms of constraint to developing countries' bidding and hosting of major sports events. The empirical evidence presented in the thesis demonstrates this situation for Kenya in comparison to South Africa. Aspects of their experiences will be similar to other African and developing countries but we cannot generalise without further research on other countries, research which is sensitive to particular economic and political contexts in different countries. We argue that use of a critical realist framework and elements of modernization theory, dependency theory and PCT has helped to broaden our understanding of the possibilities and challenges facing other countries aspiring to host major sports events.

However, there is a mixed and complex relationship between the GSS and Kenyan sport which is difficult to explain purely using PCT and dependency theory. The GSS is perceived by most Kenyans to discriminate against them with regards to slots to World Cup Championships and hosting of sports events. There are also elements of dependency on the GSS for financial and technical assistance for sports activities in the country. The complexity in the Kenyan situation can also be seen in its relationship with the GSS. There are a few national federations that interact well with the GSS (e.g. Athletics Kenya with the IAAF and IOC, KNPC and IPC), whereas there are a majority that feel discriminated against by the GSS. Thus PCT alone cannot be used to make sense of the situation.

Kenya has not put itself in a position that enables it to host major sporting events given that it has not formulated the required policies for hosting these events and developed sports facilities for the same. However, this is to some extent understandable given the issues it faces with regard to poverty, health, education, and security amongst others. There is tension in terms of funding sport to enable hosting sports events that might then have positive benefits against funding health, education, security etc. which are influenced by the specific economic and political context of Kenya. Thus we see that the challenges and issues of hosting major sporting events are influenced by GSS structures interacting with the decisions made by the agents and agencies of sport in Kenya. Despite these, there are actions that the local Kenyan agents can take in this context and these are discussed next.

## Interactions

The T2 stage involves the agents in the global sports system. These agents are the national sports federations in collaboration with their national governments who are the hosts of the sports events in their respective countries. These federations are also the link between the international sports federations and their national government. The national or local government mainly have responsibility for administrative support and government guarantees which are attached to the bidding and hosting agreement. This also includes underwriting event expenses, providing security, visa facilitation and all the required protocols. Both Kenyan and South African governments' actively engage in the hosting of international sports events and South Africa having hosted a number of major sports events has a separate department for major events, whereas Kenya does not have and only constitutes temporary ad hoc committees to help in organizing international sports events whenever the need arises.

The major issue in the thesis was examining why developing countries were not hosting major sports events. The reason for this lies both within these countries and the global sports system. The global sports system has requirements that are beyond the developing countries while it appears that many of the developing countries do not have the requirements for hosting these events. The relationship between the national federations and the GSS is important when it comes to hosting these events. There is also the performance of a national federation in the sports that it wants to host at the international level.

These agents have problems with the pre-existing structures of the global sports system as mentioned previously. In order for the agents to succeed in achieving the outcome (T3), these agents have to strive to meet some of the pre-existing structures in place that are manageable (the hosting of major events requirements) and find ways of convincing the global sports system to change those that are not manageable. Kenya does not have experience of hosting major sports events apart from the two international sports events it has hosted - the 2007 IAAF World Cross Country and the 2010 IAAF Senior African Athletics Championships. These events did not require competitive bidding as the other two contestants withdrew in favour of Kenya for the 2007 World Cross Country. The country has yet again won the right to host the 2017 IAAF World Junior Athletics Championships after two contestants (Argentina and USA) withdrew their bids for the championships. Kenya has a number of challenges that hinders it from hosting major sports events: lack of international standard stadia, sports federations relying heavily on government and their respective sports federations for funding, lack of policy with regards to hosting of international sports events, lack of experience in bidding and hosting major sports events, security threats, and perhaps most importantly, lack of an institutional framework for hosting international sports events in the country. The country also lacks professional sports personnel and educational infrastructure for developing appropriately qualified sports officials. These issues need to be resolved by the country's agents regardless of the global sports system in order for the country to host these sports events. Consequently, the agents should also start with the internal problems first before engaging with the external (structural) ones.

Structural influence by agents does not always bring about results immediately due to resistance at the structural level. In this case, it is the global sports system that normally resists change from the normal way they do things as this will be limiting their powers. It took the developing countries time and concerted efforts for their struggles to bear results – for example to get more World Cup slots from FIFA (Darby, 2002) and the chance to host the World Cup in Asia and Africa. Hence, interaction does not always bring change immediately. Thus, structural influences most of the time extend beyond the Interaction stage due to resistance of the dominant group (the global sports system) or remain because of the interests of the powerful (Archer, 1995), in this case, the developed countries who the system favours.

Conversely, between stages T2 and T3 agency can exercise two independent influences, one temporal and the other directional, which can hasten the interaction process, delay it or prevent the elimination of the previous structures (Archer, 1995). The co-operation among the developing countries, including Kenya, in pressurizing the GSS to listen to the complaints or use their officials already there to articulate their needs could hasten the interaction process. The non-cooperation among the continental officials could delay the process. While not intervening and waiting for the GSS to decide when to give Africa an opportunity to host major sports events will prevent the elimination of the prior structures altogether.

## Outcomes

The agents (sports federations and their respective governments) of the countries that want to host major sports events will start solving their internal issues by ensuring that the required elements are in place: sports infrastructures, the policies concerned with sports and major events improved and in tandem with the international ones, training of technical personnel, conducting feasibility research for hosting these events in their countries, and learning from the experiences of countries that have hosted events before. The officials from the developing countries who are nominated to be officials in the IFs should work together in order to fight for the development of sports in their areas and their rights also where they are being discriminated.

The good relations between IAAF and Kenya have to be maintained or enhanced for the mutual benefit of both the country and the GSS, while that of FIFA needs to be improved further than what is currently (cordial though it has been an on – off relationship) for the development of football in the country. The desired outcome will depend on time and the interaction process taken by the Kenya and other developing countries as they embark on the process of hosting major sports events.

## Structural Elaboration

Achieving the desired outcome does not come easily due to resistance from the dominant group and the national actors have to continue intervening by working with other colleagues from developing countries so that they can influence on the GSS to relax some of their prohibitive requirements. If the interaction is effective, then the transformation of the existent structures and other new social possibilities will take place before the structural elaboration stage (T4), while the interaction process is still in place (Archer, 1995). This stage is also a subsequent cycle, as the desired outcome has been achieved and a new morphogenetic cycle begins i.e. it is the new T1 as 'it introduces new sets of conditional influences upon the interaction which are constraining as well as facilitating' (Archer, 1995:79). The following are some of the desired changes that would hasten the possibilities of developing countries hosting major sports events. Firstly, the global sports system should relax the bidding and hosting rules to assist the developing countries to also host these events. FIFA's previous rotation system where by continents were given turns to bid for their events would be appropriate as this will give every continent a chance to host these events. Dependency theory is useful in understanding how FIFA's actions which were specifically used to help both South Africa and Brazil host the 2010 and 2014 FIFA World Cup respectively was for mutual benefit for both FIFA and these countries.

Secondly, the GSS should put a ceiling on the amount to be used for bidding and hosting their events so that all contestants can compete on an equal platform. Thirdly, GSS should give a chance for countries to co-host their events just like FIFA did for the 2002 Japan and South Korea FIFA World Cup, UEFA has also done the same for its events. GSS should also extend the projects of sports and participation to help developing countries host these events. The relationship between IAAF and Kenya will create a favourable image for hosting other bigger major sports events and other IF and GSS (FIFA, CGF) would be able to emulate this after witnessing the successful hosting of 2017 World Youth Athletics Championships in the country. In summary, there is a mixed and complex relationship between the GSS and Kenyan sport – this is difficult to explain purely using PCT and dependency theory. The GSS is perceived by Kenyans to discriminate against them with regard to hosting events and there are elements of dependency but there are differing relationships in different sports federations.

Consequently, the following are therefore the concerns that Kenya needs to solve both at the internal and the external level for it to competitively host events. Firstly, the country lacks in the relevant policies for effective sports management and hosting of sports events. This hinders it from making proper planning and necessary decisions when it comes to issues with regards to hosting these events. Some of the federations also have poor management systems and hence there is potential for the abuse of office (corruption and mismanagement of their sportsmen). Secondly, Kenya also lacks an adequate sports infrastructure, therefore, it cannot bid to host some of these events. If the country wants to host these events, it has to start developing its sports infrastructure. Thirdly, Kenya and most developing countries are heavily dependent on the global sports system for the funding of their sports activities. This can be from running the

national office, training of their athletes and technical officials, and provision of sports equipment, amongst other things. This therefore makes the GSS not confident in awarding them the rights to host these events since they are not certain of their capabilities to fund the hosting. Fourthly, political stability is very important for hosting major sports events. No country at war or having civil war can be allowed to host these events as the security of the participants is very important to the event owners in the global sports system. Fifthly and lastly, most developing countries lack the confidence in bidding for these events. Both national federations and the Ministry of Sports have to work together in attracting major sports events in the country and ensuring that all the feasibility studies and planning are done well ahead before bidding to host these events.

## **Contribution of the thesis**

The thesis was case study based therefore it is not possible to generalise to other countries, as mentioned earlier, however the notion of the interaction between the GSS and the actors and agencies of developing countries including Kenya and the constraining mechanisms these cause is a theme that could be explored in other developing countries. The thesis has provided five distinctive contributions to the small but growing body of literature on major sports events in developing countries. Firstly, by looking at Kenya in comparison to South Africa, the implications are potentially relevant to other African and developing countries. Previous research has focussed almost exclusively on developed countries. The little research that has been done on Africa focuses mainly on South Africa, creating an incomplete picture of how developing countries, more especially in Africa, have been competing to host international sporting events.

A second important contribution of the thesis is that the research has synthesized a critical realist framework and elements of modernization, dependency and post-colonial theories to help understand the reasons why Kenya aspires to host major sports events and the challenges that hinder it from hosting. The third contribution of the thesis is that it has provided a critical assessment of the key actors and agencies in both Kenya and South Africa with respect to the possibilities and challenges of hosting major sports events. Fourthly, the thesis also examined the challenges that countries in Africa face as they bid to host major sports events. A crucial contribution of this study is the examination of the relationship of African national sports federations with the global sports system. This is important for assessing the way bids are awarded and to evaluate the reasons why most African countries and other developing countries

have not been successful in winning bids to host major sports events. Finally, the knowledge transfer process between South Africa and Kenya has been examined. While there have been studies on the impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa, this thesis is the first of its kind to use South Africa to gather some positive experiences that can be shared with other developing countries in Africa who aspire to host major sports events. This suggests how knowledge transfer may be crucial for Kenya and other developing countries working together and learning from each other in challenging the global system.

There are several possible areas of future research that can be used to extend this thesis, some of which have already been mentioned elsewhere. Additional research could explore via further use of a critical realist framework drawing on elements of modernization, dependency and PCT, to establish if the Kenyan context relates to other countries in Africa and developing countries or if Kenya is unique. Future research could also explore ways in which a bidding system for major sports events (CGF, IOC, and FIFA) could be made more favourable to all national federations irrespective of where they are geographically. Further research could also explore a more flexible approach to hosting of a sustainable multi-sport global sports event (e.g. the Commonwealth or Olympic Games) in developing countries. There is also need for further research on the creation of a more transparent and independent selection process for hosting city or nation that will be favourable and understandable to all countries. Finally, more case studies of developing countries could be conducted to explore common and distinct possibilities and challenges facing countries aspiring to host major sports events.

## REFERENCES

ActionAid, (2011). *Real Aid: Ending Aid Dependency*. [Online] Available at: https://www.actionaid.org.uk/sites/default/files/doc\_lib/real\_aid\_3.pdf [Accessed 30 Dec. 2014].

Adjaye, J. (2010). Reimagining Sports: African Athletes, Defection, and Ambiguous Citizenship, *Africa Today*, Vol. 52:2, 27-40.

AfriCOG, (2011). Foul Play! The Crisis of Football Management in Kenya.AfricanCentreforOpenGovernance.Available[Online]<a href="http://www.africog.org/reports/The%20crisis%20of%20football%20management%20in%20">http://www.africog.org/reports/The%20crisis%20of%20football%20management%20in%20Kenya.pdf.Accessed on 25 June 2014

Akindes, G. and Kirwin, M. (2009). Sport as International Aid: Assisting Development or Promoting Under – development in Sub – Saharan Africa? In R. Levermore and A. Beacom (Eds.), *Sport and International Development. Palgrave Macmillan*.

Allen, J., O'Toole, W. McDonnell, I. and Harris, R. (2002). *Festivals and Special Management,* 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed. Queensland, John Willey & Sons.

Allen,S.(2012).DependencyTheory.[Online]Availableat:https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JN6LIMY2ApQ.[Accessed 27 Nov. 2014].

Altheide, D.L. (1996). Qualitative Media Analysis. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Andranovich, G., Burbank, M.J., and Heying, C.H. (2001). Olympic cities: Lessons learned from mega-event politics. *Journal of Urban Affairs*, Vol. 23, 113–131.

Andreasson, S (2005) Orientalism and African Development Studies: the 'reductive repetition' motif in theories of African underdevelopment, *Third World Quarterly*, Vol. 26:6, 971-986.

Andreff, W. (2008). Globalization of the Sport Economy. Rivista Di Diritto Ed Economia Dello Sport, Vol. 4:3, 13-32.

Andreff, W. (2006). Sport in Developing Countries. In Andreff, W. Borland, J. and Szymanski,S. (2006) (Eds.). *Handbook on the Economics of Sport. Edward Elgar*.

Andreff, W (2001): The correlation between economic underdevelopment and sport, *European Sport Management Quarterly*, Vol. 1:4, 251-279.

Andreotti, V. (2006). The contributions of post-colonial theory to development education. *DEA Thinkpieces*.

Anon, (2015) *Edmonton drops 2022 Commonwealth Games bid*. [Online] Available at: http://www.cbc.ca/news/canada/edmonton/edmonton-drops-2022-commonwealth-games-bid-1.2952565 [Accessed 13 Jul. 2015].

Anon, (2014a). *Kenya bid for 2017 World Youth Athletics Championships - The Times of India*. [Online] Available at: <u>http://timesofindia.indiatimes.com/sports/more-sports/athletics/Kenya-bid-for-2017-World-Youth-Athletics</u> Championships/articleshow/33870280.cms [Accessed 7 Aug. 2014]. Anon, (2014b). *South Africa to battle Canada for right to host 2022 Commonwealth Games*. [Online] Available at: http://edition.cnn.com/2014/03/31/sport/commonwealth-games-durban-edmonton-2022/ [Accessed 1 Oct. 2014].

Anon, (2014c). *Seven bids made for 2017 Nations Cup*. [Online] Available at: <u>http://www.bbc.co.uk/sport/0/football/29521040</u> [Accessed 3 Nov. 2014].

Anon, (2014d). Plot to buy the World Cup: reaction from around the world to the Fifa files /TheSundayTimes.[Online]Availableat:http://www.thesundaytimes.co.uk/sto/public/article1416187.ece[Accessed 21 Jul. 2015].

Anon, (2014e). *Kenya chosen as CHAN 2018 hosts*. [Online] Available at: http://www.bbc.co.uk/sport/0/football/26327853 [Accessed 5 Aug. 2015].

Anon, (2012). Kenya hoping to become first African nation to host Olympic Games with 2024bid-Telegraph.[Online]Telegraph.co.uk.Availableat:http://www.telegraph.co.uk/sport/olympics/news/9466307/Kenya-hoping-to-become-first-African-nation-to-host-Olympic-Games-with-2024-bid.html[Accessed 5 Sep. 2014].

Anon. (2010). *BBC Sport - Commonwealth Games 2010: Delhi event hailed a success*. [Online] Available at: http://news.bbc.co.uk/sport1/hi/commonwealth\_games/delhi\_2010/9092727.stm [Accessed 24 Oct. 2014].

Anon, (2008). [Online] Available at: <u>http://www.lusakatimes.com/2008/12/12zambia-</u> withdraws-offer-to-host-2011-all-africa-games/ [Accessed 3 Nov. 2014]. Anon, (u.d). *The Theory of critical Realism* [Online] Available at: http://www.markfoster.net/jccc/critical-realism-jccc.pdf [Accessed 6 Dec. 2014].

Archer, M.S. (1995). *Realist Social Theory: The Morphogenetic Approach*. Cambridge University Press.

Armstrong, G. (2007). The global footballer and the local war-zone: George Weah and transnational networks in Liberia, West Africa. *Global Networks* Vol. 7:2, 230-247.

Aronson, J. (1994). A Pragmatic View of Thematic Analysis. *The Qualitative Report. Vol. 2, No. 1.* Accessed online: www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/BackIssues?QR2-1/aronosn.htmml.
[Accessed 09/05/14].

Atkinson, M. and Young, K. (2008). *Deviance and Social Control in Sport*. Human Kinetics, Champaign, IL.

Atkinson, M. and Young, K. (2002). Terror games: media treatment of security issues at the 2002 winter Olympic games. Olympika: The International Journal of Olympic Studies, 11, 53–78.

Auer, C. (2014). *Libya Out as Host of African Cup of Nations*. [Online] Guardian Liberty Voice. Available at: http://guardianlv.com/2014/08/libya-out-as-host-of-african-cup-of-nations/ [Accessed 2 Nov. 2014].

Bale, J. and Sang, J. (1996). *Kenyan Running, Movement Culture, Geography and Global Change*, Frank Cass and Co Ltd., London.

Barcelona, B. and Ross, C. M. (2004). An analysis of the perceived competencies of recreational sport administrators, Journal of Park and Recreation Administration, Vol. 22:4, 25–42.

Barclay, J. (2009). Predicting the Costs and Benefits of Mega-Sporting Events: Misjudgement of Olympic Proportions? *Institute of Economic Affairs*. Vol. 29:2, 62-66 Blackwell Publishing.

Barget, E and Gouguet, J-J. (2007). The Total Economic Value of Sporting Events Theory and Practice. *Journal of Sports Economics*, Vol. 8:2, 165-182.

Bazeley, P. (2007). Qualitative Data Analysis with NVivo. Sage Publications, London.

Bhabha, H. K. (1994). The location of culture. London: Routledge.

Bhaskar, R. (1978), Realist Theory of Science, Wheatsheaf, Harvester, Coleshill.

Biccum, A. R. (2002). Interrupting the Discourse of Development: On a

Collision Course with Postcolonial Theory, *Culture, Theory & Critique*, 2002, Vol 43:1, 33-50.

Binns, T. (2002). Dualistic and unilinear concepts of development. *The companion to development studies*, 75-80.

Black, D. (2010). The ambiguities of development: implications for 'development through sport', *Sport in Society: Cultures, Commerce, Media, Politics,* Vol 13:1, 121-129.

Black, D. (2008): Dreaming big: The pursuit of 'second order' games as a strategic response to globalization, *Sport in Society: Cultures, Commerce, Media, Politics,* Vol. 11:4, 467-480.

Black, D. (2007): The Symbolic Politics of Sport Mega-Events: 2010 in Comparative Perspective, Politikon: South African Journal of Political Studies, Vol. 34:3, 261-276.

Black, D. and Bezanson, S. (2004). The Olympic Games, human rights and democratisation: lessons from Seoul and implications for Beijing. *Third World Quarterly*, Vol. 25:7, 1245-1261.

Black, D. and Van der Westhuizen, J. (2004). The allure of global games for semi-peripheral polities and spaces: a research agenda. *Third World Quarterly*, Vol. 25: 7, 1195-1214.

Bloomfield, J. (1973). *The role, scope and development of recreation in Australia*. Department of Tourism and Recreation. Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service.

Bob, U and Swart, K. (2010). Sport Events and Social Legacies. Alternation, Vol. 17:2, 72-95.

Bohlke, N. (2006). Benchmarking of elite sport systems. [Online] Available at: https://dspace.lboro.ac.uk/dspace-jspui/handle/2134/12193 [Accessed: 21 Nov 2013].

Bolsmann, C. (2012). Representation in the first African World Cup: 'world-class', Pan-Africanism, and exclusion, *Soccer and Society*, Vol. 13:2, 156-172

Bolsmann, C. (2010). Mexico 1968 and South Africa 2010: Sombreros and Vuvuzelas and the Legitimisation of Global Sporting Events. *Journal of the Society for Latin American Studies*. Vol. 29:1, 93-106.

Boshoff, G.B.E. (1997). 'Barefoot' Sports Administrators: Laying the Foundation for Sports Development in South Africa. *Journal of Sport Management*. Vol. 11, 69-79.

Bowdin, G.; Allen, J.; O'Toole; W., Harris, R. and McDonnell, I., (2011). *Events Management*. 3rd ed. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Bowdin, G.; Allen, J.; O'Toole, W.; Harris, R.; and McDonnell, I. (2006). *Events Management*. 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed. Elsevier Ltd.

Bray, E. (2011). The Curse of Good Hospitality: Why Developing Countries Shouldn't Host International Sporting Events. *Johns Hopkins School of Advanced International Studies* (*SAIS*); Johns Hopkins University Press.

Brighenti, O. Clivas, C. Deletroz, N. and Favre, N. (2005). From initial idea to success: a guide to bidding for sports events for politicians and administrators. Edited by Jean-Loup Chappelet, Chavannes- Lausanne, Switzerland: IDHEAP,

Brown, G., Chalip, L., Jago, L. and Mules, T. (2002). The Sydney Olympics and Brand Australia. In N. Morgan, A. Pritchard, & R. Pride (Eds.). *Destination branding: Creating the unique destination proposition (pp. 163–185)*. Oxford, UK: Butterworth- Heinemann.

Bryman, A. (2004). Social Research Methods. Oxford University Press Inc., New York.

Bryman, A. (1995) Research methods and organisational studies, London, Routledge.

Bryman, A. and Bell, E. (2007). *Business Research Methods*, 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed. Oxford.

Burke, J., Gibson, O. and Gabbatt, A. (2010). Commonwealth Games boycott threat recedes.[Online]theGuardian.Availableat:

http://www.theguardian.com/sport/2010/sep/24/commonwealth-games-boycott-threat-recedes [Accessed 4 Jan. 2015].

Burnett, C. and Hollander, W. (1999). Sport Development and the United Kingdom – South Africa Sports Initiative: A Re-evaluation Report. *Journal of Sport Management* Vol. 13, 237 – 251.

Burns, R. B. (2000). Introduction to research methods, London: Sage Publications

Carey, M., Mason, D., and Misener, L. (2011). Social Responsibility and the Competitive Bid Process for Major Sporting Events. *Journal for Sport and Social Issues* Vol. No. 35:3, 246-263.

Chambers, R. (2004) Ideas for Development. Sussex: IDS. IDS Working Paper 238.

Chavez, C. (2008). Conceptualizing from the Inside: Advantages, Complications, and Demands on Insider Positionality. *The Qualitative Report*, Vol. 13:3, 474-494.

Clark, M., Riley, M., Wilkie, E., and Wood, R. C. (2002). *Researching and writing dissertations in hospitality and tourism*. London: Thomson Learning.

Coaffee, J. (2012). Policy transfer, regeneration legacy and the summer Olympic Games: lessons for London 2012 and beyond. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*. 1–17, *iFirst Article* 

Coakley, J. and Souza, D. L. (2013). Sport mega-events: can legacies and development be equitable and sustainable? *Motriz: Revista de Educação Física*, Vol. 19:3, 580-589.

Coalter, F., (2010). The politics of sport-for-development: limited focus programmes and broad gauge problems? *International review for the sociology of sport*, Vol. 45:3, 295–314.

Coalter, F. (2007). A Wider Social Role for Sport. Who is keeping the Score? Routledge. NY

Coetzee, K. J, Graaf, J. Heindricks, F, Wood, G. (2007). *Development: Theory, Policy and Practice*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Conn, D. (2013). *South Africa plays host again but World Cup legacy still in question*. [Online], the Guardian. Available at: http://www.theguardian.com/football/blog/2013/jan/18/south-africa-africa-cup-of-nation [Accessed 28 Oct. 2014].

Cook, I.R and Ward, K. (2010). Trans-urban networks for learning, mega-events and policy tourism: The Case of Manchester's Commonwealth and Olympic Games projects. *Imagining Urban Futures and Working Paper 8*.

Cornelissen, S. (2011). Mega Event Securitisation in a Third World Setting: Glocal Processes and Ramifications during the 2010 FIFA World Cup. *Urban Studies*, Vol. 48:15, 3221–3240.

Cornelissen, S. (2010). The Geopolitics of Global Aspiration: Sport Mega-events and Emerging Powers. *The International Journal of the History of Sport, Vol.* 27:16-18, 3008-3025.

Cornelissen, S. (2009). A delicate balance: Major sport events and development. In R. Levermore and A. Beacom (Eds.), *Sport and international development* (pp. 76-97). New York: Palgrave MacMillan.

Cornelissen, S. (2008). Scripting the nation: sport, mega-events, foreign policy and state-building in post-apartheid South Africa. *Sport in Society*, Vol. 11:4, 481-493.

Cornelissen, S. (2007). Crafting Legacies: The Changing Political Economy of Global Sport and 2010 FIFA World Cup, South African Journal of Political Science, *Politikon* Vol. 34:3, 241 - 259.

Cornelissen, S. (2004a). Sport Mega-Events in Africa: Processes, Impacts and Prospects. *Tourism and Hospitality Planning and Development*. Vol.1: 1, 39-55.

Cornelissen, S. (2004b). 'It's Africa's turn!' The narratives and legitimations surrounding the Moroccan and South African bids for the 2006 and 2010 FIFA final. *Third World Quarterly*, Vol. 25:7, 1293-1309.

Cornelissen, S. and Swart, K. (2006). The 2010 Football World Cup as a political construct: the challenge of making good on an African promise. *The Sociological Review*, Vol. 54:2, 108-123.

Cornelissen, S, Bob, U. and 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*, Vol. 28:3, 307-318.

Creswell, J., W. (2013). *Qualitative Inquiry & Research Design – choosing among five approaches*. 3rd edition, London: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Approaches*. 3<sup>rd</sup> edition. Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative Inquiry & Research Design – choosing among five approaches.* 2nd edition, London: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2003). Research Design – qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches. 2nd edition, London: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (1998) *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design: Choosing Among the Five Traditions*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Curi, M. Knijnik, J. and Mascarenhas, G. (2011). The Pan American Games in Rio de Janeiro2007: Consequences of a sport mega-event on a BRIC country. *International Review of Sociology of Sport*, Vol. 46, 140-145.

Dagne, T. (2011). Kenya: Current Conditions and the Challenges Ahead. Congressional Research Service. CRS Report for Congress. http://www.fas.org/sgp/crs/row/RL34378.pdf [Accessed: 9 Dec 2013].

Darby, P. (2005). Africa and the World Cup: Politics, Eurocentrism and Resistance. *The Journal of the History of Sport*, Vol. 22:5, 883 – 905.

Darby, P. (2003). Africa, the FIFA Presidency and the Governance of World Football, 1974, 1998 and 2002. *Africa Today*, Vol. 50:1, 3-24.

Darby, P. (2002). African Football and FIFA: Politics, Colonialism and Resistance. Frank Kass, London.

Darby, P. (2000). Africa's Place in FIFA's Global Order: A Theoretical Frame. *Soccer and Society* Vol. 1:2, 36–61.

Darnell, S. C. (2012). *Sport for Development and Peace: A Critical Sociology*. Bloomsbury Academic.

Darnell, S. C. (2007) Playing with Race: Right to Play and the Production of Whiteness in 'Development through Sport', *Sport in Society: Cultures, Commerce, Media, Politics,* Vol. 10:4, 560-579.

Darnell, S. C. and Black, D. R. (2011). Mainstreaming Sport into International Development Studies. *Third World Quarterly*, Vol. 32:3, 367–378.

Darnell, S. C. and Hayhurst, L. (2012) Hegemony, post colonialism and sport-fordevelopment: a response to Lindsey and Grattan, International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics, Vol. 4:1, 111-124.

DCMS/SU (Department of Culture Media and Sport and Strategy Unit). (2002). Game Plan: a strategy for delivering Government's sport and physical activity objectives. London: Strategy Unit, Cabinet Office.

Denzin, N. K. and Lincoln, Y. S. (2003). 'Introduction: The Discipline and Practice of Qualitative Research'. In: N. K. Denzin and Y. S. Lincoln (ed.) *Strategies of Qualitative Inquiry*, pp. 1-45. Sage Publications Ltd, London.

Denzin, N. K., and Lincoln, Y. (1998). *Collecting and interpreting Qualitative materials*. Sage, London.

Department of Sport and Recreation (2013).*Directorate: International Liaison*. <u>http://www.srsa.gov.za/pebble.asp?relid=93</u> [Accessed: 11 Apr 2013]. Duval, A. (2014). *Olympic Agenda 2020: To bid, or not to bid, that is the question!* [Online] Available at: <u>http://www.playthegame.org/news/comments/2014/olympic-agenda-2020-to-bid-or-not-to-bid-that-is-the-question/[Accessed 27 Oct. 2014].</u>

Easton, G. (2010). Critical Realism in Case Study Research. *Industrial Marketing Management*, Vol. 39, 118–128. Elsevier

Elder-Vass, D. (2010). *The Causal Power of Social Structure*, Cambridge; Cambridge University Press.

Elias, N. and Dunning, E. (1986). *Quest for Excitement: Sport and Leisure in the Civilising Process.* Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Ellis, C. (2004). The ethnographic I: A methodological novel about autoethnography.

Walnut Creek, CA: AltaMira Press.

Emery, P.R. (2002). Bidding to host a major sports event: The local organizing committee perspective. *The International Journal of Public Sector Management*. Vol. 15:4, 316-335

EPI, (2014). The Importance of University Education in Developing Countries Educational<br/>Pathways.[Online]Availableat:http://www.educationalpathwaysinternational.org/?page\_id=99 [Accessed 8 Aug. 2014].

Essex, S. and Chalkley, B. (2003). Urban transformation from hosting the Olympic Games. *Centre d'Etudis Olimpics (UAB).* 

Ferkins, L, Shilbury, D, and McDonald, G. (2005). The Role of the Board in Building Strategic Capability: Towards an Integrated Model of Sport Governance Research. *Sport Management Review*, Vol. 8, 195-225.

FIFA, (2014). *FIFA Statutes* 2014. [Online] Available at: http://www.fifa.com/mm/document/AFFederation/Generic/02/41/81/55/FIFAStatuten2014\_E \_Neutral.pdf [Accessed 13 Dec. 2014].

Forster, J. (2006). Global Sports Organisations and their Governance, *Corporate Governance*, Vol. 6:1, 72-83.

Foster, K. (2012). Is there a Global Sport Law? In R. Siekmann and J. Soek (Eds.) *Lex Sportive: What is Sport Law?* ASSER International Sport Law Series, Springler, pp. 35-52.

Frank, A. G. (1969). *Latin America: underdevelopment or revolution*. London: Monthly Review Press.

Frank, A. G. (1967). Crisis in the Third World. New York. Holmes and Meier.

Frank, A. G. (1966). *The development of underdevelopment*. Boston, MA: New England Free Press.

Frantz, J.M. (2008). Introducing Physical Education into Schools: The View of Teachers and Learners. *Journal of Community and Health Sciences*, 3: 2, 39-43

Friedmann, H and Wayne, J (1977). Dependency Theory: A Critique. *The Canadian Journal* of Sociology, Vol. 2: 4, 399-416

Gallo, J. (2009). 'Doing Archival Research: How to Find a Needle in the Haystack', in E. Goodin, R.E. (1996), 'Institutions and Their Design', in R.E. Goodin (ed.), 'The Theories of Institutional Design', Cambridge University Press, UK.

Garcia, B. and Henk – Erik, M (2013). Keeping Private Governance Private: private: Is FIFA blackmailing national governments? Paper presented in the 8th Sport & EU annual conference, Istanbul, Turkey

Geeraert, A. (2013). The governance agenda and its relevance for sport: introducing the four dimensions of the AGGIS sports governance observer. In: Alm J (Ed) Action for good governance in international sports Organisations. Play the Game/Danish Institute for Sports Studies, Copenhagen, pp 9–21 <a href="http://www.playthegame.org/fileadmin/documents/Good\_governance\_reports/AGGIS\_Final\_report.pdf">http://www.playthegame.org/fileadmin/documents/Good\_governance\_reports/AGGIS\_Final\_report.pdf</a>.

Gellweiler, S.M. (2011). Looking Through the Kaleidoscope: Perspectives on the Lived experiences of Sport Event Volunteering. Thesis (PhD). University of Bournemouth. Online Available at: <u>http://eprints.bournemouth.ac.uk/18838/1/PhD\_Thesis\_Susanne\_Gellweiler.pdf</u> [Accessed: 30 May 2013].

Gerring, J. (2004). What Is a Case Study and What Is It Good for? *American Political Science Review*, Vol. 98:2, 341-354.

Getz, D., (2008). *Event studies: Theory, research and policy for planned events*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Getz, D. (2005). Event management and event tourism. 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed. New York: Cognizant.

Getz, D., (2003). Event tourism and the authenticity dilemma. *In:* W. Theobald, ed. *Global Tourism - the next decade*. Oxford: Butterworth Heinemann, pg. 409-427.

Getz, D. (1997). *Event Management & Event Tourism*. New York. Cognizant Communication Corporation.

Getz, D. (1991). Festivals, special events and tourism. Van nostrand reinhold. New York.

Ghauri, P. N. and K. Grønhaug (2005). *Research Methods in Business Studies: A Practical Guide*. Pearson Education Limited, Harlow, Essex.

Girginov, V and Hills, L. (2009): The political process of constructing a sustainable London Olympics sports development legacy, *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, Vol. 1:2, 161-181.

Girginov, V and Hills, L. (2008). A Sustainable Sports Legacy: Creating a Link between the London Olympics and Sports Participation. *The International Journal of the History of Sport,* Vol. 25:14, 2091-2116.

Giulianotti, R. (2004) Human Rights, Globalization and Sentimental Education: The Case of Sport. *Sport in Society: Cultures, Commerce, Media, Politics*, Vol. 7:3, 355-369.

Government of the Republic of Kenya (2007). The Kenya Vision 2030: The Popular Version. http://www.vision2030.go.ke/cms/vds/Popular\_Version.pdf.

Gratton, C. and Jones, I. (2010). Research Methods for Sport Studies. Routledge: London.

Gratton, C., Shibli, S. and Coleman, R. (2006). The economic impact of major sports events: a review of ten events in the UK. *The Sociological Review*, Vol. 54:2, 41-58.

Gratton, C., Shibli, S. and Coleman, R. (2005). Sport and Economic Regeneration in Cities. *Urban Studies*, Vol. 42: 5/6, 985–999.

Gratton, C. Dobson, N. and Shibli, S. (2000): The economic importance of major sports events: a case-study of six events, *Managing Leisure*, Vol. 5:1, 17-28.

Green, M. (2007). Policy transfer, lesson drawing and perspectives on elite sport development systems. *Int. J. Sport Management and Marketing*, Vol. 2: 4, 426-441.

Greene, M J. (2014). On the Inside Looking In: Methodological Insights and Challenges in Conducting Qualitative Insider Research. *The Qualitative Report*, Vol. 9:15, 1-13.

Grix, J. (2012). The Politics of Sports Mega-events. Political Insight, Vol. 3:1, 3-7.

Grix, J and Carmichael, F. (2012): Why do governments invest in elite sport? A polemic, *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, Vol. 4:1, 73-90.

Grohmann, K. (2014). Oslo pullout highlights need for more IOC transparency. [Online] Available at: http://www.reuters.com/article/2014/10/09/us-olympics-osloidUSKCN0HY1IR20141009 [Accessed 18 Oct. 2014]. Gruneau, R. S. (1988). Modernization or Hegemony: Two Views on Sport and Social Development. In Harvey, J and Cantelon, H. (Eds.), *Not Just A Game: Essays in Canadian Sport Sociology*. University of Ottawa Press.

Guba, E. G. and Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). 'Competing Paradigms in Qualitative Research'. In: N. K. Denzin and Y. S. Lincoln (ed.) *Handbook of Qualitative Research*, pp. 105-117. Sage, London.

Guba, E. G., and Lincoln, Y. S. (1985). Naturalistic enquiry. London: Sage Publications

Hall, C.M. (2012). Sustainable Mega--events: Beyond the Myth of Balanced Approaches to Mega-event Sustainability, *Event Management*, Vol. 16, 119–131

Hall, C.M. (2006). Urban entrepreneurship, corporate interests and sports mega-events: the thin policies of competitiveness within the hard outcomes of neoliberalism. Horne, J. and Manzenreiter, W. (Eds.), *Sport mega-events: Social scientific perspectives of a global phenomenon* (pp. 59–70). Oxford, UK: Blackwell Publishing.

Hall, C. M. (1997). *Hallmark Tourist Events: Impacts, Management and Planning*. Chichester, John Wiley and Sons.

Hayhurst, L. (2009). The power to shape policy: Charting sport for development and peace policy discourses. *International Journal of Sports Policy and Politics*, Vol 1: 2, 203–227.

Henry, I. and Al-Tauqi, M., (2008). The Development of Olympic Solidarity: West and Non-West (Core and Periphery) Relations in the Olympic World. *The International Journal of the History of Sport*, Vol. 25:3, 355-369

Herriott, R. E. and Firestone, W. A. (1983). 'Multisite qualitative policy research: optimising description and generalizability'. *Educational Researcher*. Vol. 12, 14-29.

Heslop, L. Nadeau, J. and O'Reilly, N. (2010). China and the Olympics: views of insiders and outsiders. *International Marketing Review* Vol. 27:4, 404-433.

Hiller, H. (1989) Impact and image: the convergence of urban factors in preparing for the1988 Calgary Winter Olympics in G. Symeet al. (Eds.) *The Planning and Evaluation of Hallmark Events* Aldershot: Avebury, pp. 119–131

Hiller, H. H. (1998). Assessing the impact of mega-events: a linkage model. Current issues in tourism, Vol. 1:1, 47-57.

Hoglund and Sundberg, (2008). Reconciliation through Sport? The Case of South Africa. Third World Quarterly, Vol. 29:4, 805 – 818.

Holliday, A. (2007). *Doing and writing Qualitative research* (2nd Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Horne, J. (2011) Building BRICs by Building Stadiums: Preliminary Reflections on Recent and Future Sports Mega-Events in Four Emerging Economies. Available at: <u>http://www.bl.uk/sportandsociety/</u> exploresocsci/sportsoc/mega/buildingbricks.pdf (accessed 26 March 2012). Horne, J. (2008). The four 'Cs' of sports mega-events: Capitalism, connections, challenges and contradictions. Keynote address delivered at Mega-events and Civil Societies conference, 26-27 June, Queen Mary, University of London, UK

Horne, J. (2007). The Four "Knowns" of Sports Mega-Events, *Leisure Studies*, Vol. 26:1, 81-98.

Horne, J. and Manzenreiter, W. (2006). An introduction to the sociology of sports mega-Events. In Horne, J. and Manzenreiter, W. (Eds.), *Sports Mega-Events: Social Scientific Analysis of a Global Phenomenon*, (pp. 1-24). Oxford, UK: Blackwell Publishing.

Horne, J. and Manzenreiter, W. (2004) 'Accounting for mega-events: forecasts and actual impacts of the 2002 Football World Cup Finals on the host countries Japan/Korea', *International Review for the Sociology of Sport* Vol. 39:2, 187–203.

Horne, J. and Manzenreiter, W. (2002). Japan, Korea and the 2002 World Cup. Routledge.

Horne, J. and Whannel, G. (2012). Understanding the Olympics, Routledge, London

Horne, J. Tomlinson, A. Whannel, G. and Woodward, K. (2012). *Understanding Sport: A Social Cultural Analysis*, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition. Routledge.

Hornsby, C. (2011). Kenya: A History since Independence. I.B Taurus.

Hosting Strategy Work Group, (2003). Available at: http://canadiansporttourism.com/sites/default/files/docs/report\_hosting\_international\_sport\_ events.pdf [Accessed: 5 Jul 2013].

Houlihan, B. (2005). Public Sector Sport Policy: Developing a Framework for Analysis, *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, Vol. 40: 2, 163–185.

Houlihan, B. (1991). The Government and the Politics of Sport, Routledge.

Houlihan, B., Bloyce, D., and Smith, A. (2009): Developing the research agenda in sport policy, *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, Vol. 1:1, 1-12

Hoye, R. and Cuskelly, G. (2007). Sport Governance. Elsevier.

Hurworth, R. (2005). 'Interpretivism', In: S. Mathison (ed.) *Encyclopedia of Evaluation*, pp. 209. Sage Publications Ltd, London.

Ingerson, L. and Westerbeek, H. M. (2000). Determining Key Success Criteria for attracting Hallmark Sporting Events, *Pacific Tourism Reviews*, Vol. 3:4, 239 -253.

IHRB, (2013). Striving for Excellence: Mega - Sporting Events and Human Rights. Institute for Human Right and Business. Occasional Paper Series, Paper No 2. October 2013. Available [online] <u>http://www.ihrb.org/pdf/2013-10-21\_IHRB\_Mega-Sporting-Events-Paper\_Web.pdf</u>. Assessed 07 Aug 2014.

International Olympic Committee, (2013). Olympic Charter. Available [Online] http://www.olympic.org/documents/olympic\_charter\_en.pdf. Assessed 21 Jun 2014.

International Olympic Committee (2001). *Olympic Charter*. Lausanne: International Olympic Committee.

Jago, L.K and Shaw, R.N. (1999). Consumer perception of special events: A multi-stimulus validation. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, Vol. 8, 3-14.

Jago, L.K and Shaw, R.N. (1998). Special events: A conceptual and definitional framework. *Festive Management and Event Tourism*, Vol. 5, 21-32.

James, A. (2014). *Message from event hosting market to rights-holders: reform or die.* [Online] LawInSport. Available at: <u>http://www.lawinsport.com/features/item/message-from-</u> event-hosting-market-to-rights-holders-reform-or-die. [Accessed 28 Sep. 2014].

Jarvie, G. (2014). *It is time to let Africa host the Commonwealth Games*. [Online] Available at: http://theconversation.com/it-is-time-to-let-africa-host-the-commonwealth-games-30064 [Accessed 27 Oct. 2014].

Jarvie, G and Sikes, M. (2012), *Kenyans driven to succeed*. [Online] Available at: http://www.scotsman.com/news/grant-jarvie-and-michele-sikes-kenyans-driven-to-succeed-1-2453665 [Accessed 23 Apr. 2014].

Jeanes, R. Magee, J. Kay, T. and Banda, D. (2013). Sport for Development in Zambia: The New or not so New Colonisation? *Native Games, Indigenous Peoples and Sport in the Post-Colonial World*, Vol. 7, 127-145.

Jeffrey, E. I. E. (2012). A Discourse on Andre Gunder Frank's Contribution to the Theory and Study of Development and Underdevelopment; its Implication on Nigeria's development situation, *Greener Journal of Biological Sciences*, Vol 2:3, 52-65. http://gjournals.org/GJBS/GJBS%20PDF/2012/November/Emeh.pdf

Jenkins, W. I. (1978). *Policy Analysis: Political and Organizational Perspectives*, London: Martin Robertson.

Jennings, A. (2006). *Foul! The Secret World of FIFA: Bribes, Vote-rigging and Ticket Scandals*, London: Harper Collins.

Kapoor, I. (2002). Capitalism, culture, agency: Dependency versus postcolonial theory, Third World Quarterly, Vol. 23:4, 647-664

Keim, M. (2006). Sport as opportunity for community development and peace building in South Africa. *Sport and Development*. 97-106.

Kenya Law, (2013). Kenya Sports Act, 2013[Online] Available at: http://kenyalaw.org/kl/fileadmin/pdfdownloads/Acts/SportsActNo25of2013.PDF [Accessed: 17 Dec 2013].

Kenya Tourism Guide (2010). Kenya Tourism Guide 2009 / 2010 Edition 5. Publishers: Kenya Postel Directories. <u>www.traveldiscoverkenya.com</u>

King, N. (2009). Sport Policy and Governance: Local Perspectives, Butterworth-Heinemann.

Kingsbury, D. (2004). Introduction, in D. Kingsbury, J. Remenyi, J. McKay and J. Hunt (Eds), *Key Issues in Development*. New York: Palgrave MacMillan, pp 1-21.

Kingsbury, D. Remenyi, J. McKay, J and Hunt, J. (2004). *Key Issues in Development*. New York: Palgrave MacMillan.

Klenke, K. (2008). *Qualitative Research in the Study of Leadership*. Emerald Group Publishing Limited, Kidlington.

K.N.B.S, (2010). Kenya Census 2009 [online] Available at: http://www.knbs.or.ke/Census%20Results/KNBS%20Brochure.pdf [Accessed: 17 Dec 2013].

http://www.knbs.or.ke/Census%20Results/KNBS%20Brochure.pdf.

Komen, J., (2014). Standard Digital News - Fingers crossed: Kenya prays its bid to host 2017 World Youth event will be approved. [Online] Available at: http://www.standardmedia.co.ke/mobile/?articleID=2000109590&story\_title=fingerscrossed-kenya-prays-its-bid-to-host-2017-world-youth-event-will-be-approved [Accessed 29 Jul. 2014].

Kotz, D. (2000). Globalization and Neoliberalism, Rethinking Marxism, Vol. 12:2, 64-79.

Kvale, S. (1996). *Interviews: An Introduction to Qualitative Research Interviewing*. Sage Publications Inc., Thousand Oaks, CA.

Kvale, S., and Brinkman, S. (2009). *Interviews: Learning the craft of Qualitative research interviewing*, 2nd Ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Labaree, R. V. (2002). The risk of "going observationalist:" Negotiating the hidden dilemmas of being an insider participant observer. *Qualitative Research*, Vol. 2:1, 97-122.

Labuschagne, P. (2011). "Fifa and the 2010 Soccer World Cup in South Africa: A Developmental Perspective." *Africanus*, Vol. 41: 2, 32-45.

Law, C.M. (2002). *Urban tourism: the visitor economy and the growth of large cities*. Continuum. London.

Lebo, J. (2007). The Things Runners Have Built. [Online] Available at: http://assets.sportanddev.org/downloads/the\_things\_runners\_have\_built.pdf [Accessed: 27 Mar 2014].

Lee C. and Taylor, T. (2005). Critical reflections on the economic impact assessment of a Mega-event: the case of 2002 FIFA World Cup. Tourism Management, Vol. 26, 595-603.

Lenskyj, H. J. (2002). The best Olympics ever? Social impacts of Sydney 2000. Albany: State University of New York Press.

Leopkey. B, Mutter, O and Parent, M. (2010): Barriers and facilitators when hosting sporting events: exploring the Canadian and Swiss sport event hosting policies, *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, Vol. 2:2, 113-134.

Levermore, R. (2009). Sport-in-International Development: Theoretical Frameworks in Levermore, R and Beacom, A (2009) (Eds.), *Sport and International Development. Palgrave Macmillan*.

Levermore, R. (2008). Sport: a new engine of development? *Progress in Development Studies* Vol. 8: 2, 183–90. SAGE Publications.

Levermore, R. and Beacom, A. (2012). Re-assessing sport-for-development: moving beyond 'mapping the territory', *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, Vol. 4:1, 125-137.

Levermore, R and Beacom, A. (2009). Sport and International Development. Palgrave Macmillan.

Leys, C. (1996). *The Rise and Fall of Development Theory*. Indiana University Press Bloomington & Indianapolis.

Leys, C. (1975). Underdevelopment of Kenya, the political Economy of Neo-colonialism, 1964-1971, Heinemann Educational Books, London.

Lindsey, I. and Grattan, A. (2012). An 'international movement'? Decentering sport for development within Zambian communities. *International journal of sport policy and politics*, Vol. 4:1, 91–110.

Lonsdale, J. and Berman, B. (1979). Coping with the Contradictions: The Development of the Colonial State in Kenya, 1895–1914. *The Journal of African History*, Vol. 20, 487-505

Mackay, D. (2010). *Shock as Abuja do not bid for 2018 Commonwealth Games but Sri Lanka does*. [Online] insidethegames.biz - Olympic, Paralympic and Commonwealth Games News. Available at: http://www.insidethegames.biz/paralympics/summer-sports/goalball/124-

news/commonwealth-games/gold-coast-2018/9319-shock-as-abuja-do-not-bid-for-2018commonwealth-games-but-sri-lanka-does [Accessed 27 Oct. 2014].

Maguire, J. (2011). Power and the Global Sports: Zones of Prestige, Emulation and Resistance, *Sports in Society*: Cultures, Commerce, Media, Politics, Vol. 14: 7-8, 1010 – 1026.

Maguire, J. (2000). Sport and Globalization. In Coakley, Jay and Dunning, Eric, (eds.), *Handbook of Sports Studies*. Sage Publications, pp. 356–69.

Maguire, J. (1999). Global Sport - Identities Societies, Civilizations. Cambridge: Polity.

Malfas, M., Houlihan, B. and Theodoraki, E. (2004). Impacts of the Olympic Games as megaevents. ICE. Vol. 157: ME3, 209-220

Mallick, O.B. (2005). Development Theory: Rostow's Five Stage Model of Development and its Relevance in Globalisation. University of Newcastle. http://202.202.111.134/jpk/data/gjzrzygl/web%20prepare20110608/paper/Rostow%20Develo pment%20Model%201960.pdf [Accessed: 22 Aug 2013].

Mangan, J. A. (2008) Prologue: Guarantees of Global Goodwill: Post-Olympic Legacies – Too Many Limping White Elephants? , The International Journal of the History of Sport, Vol. 25:14

Manyara, G and Jones, E. (2005). Policy Options for the Development of an Indigenous Tourism Sector in Kenya, In E. Jones and C. Haven-Tang (Eds.), *Tourism SME, Service Quality and Destination Competitiveness*, CABI Publishing. Manzo, K. (2012) Visualising modernity: development hopes and the 2010 FIFA World Cup, Soccer and Society, Vol. 13:2, 173-187

Mason, J. (1996). Qualitative Researching. London: Sage.

Masterman, G. (2009). Strategic Sports Event Management. 2nd Edition. Elsevier Ltd.

Masterman, G. (2004). Strategic Sports Event Management: An International Approach 1st Edition. Elsevier Ltd.

Matheson, V.A. and Baade, R.A. (2004). Mega-sporting events in developing nations: playing the way to prosperity? *The South African Journal of Economics*, Vol. 72:5, 1085-1096.

Matunhu, J. (2011). A Critique of Modernization and Dependency Theories in Africa: Critical Assessment. *Africa Journal of History and Culture*, Vol. 3:5, 65 – 72.

Mehaffey, J. (2012). RPT-Olympics-IOC moves into new territory after London triumph/NewsbyCountry/Reuters.[Online]Availableat:http://af.reuters.com/article/kenyaNews/idAFL6E8JD02Y20120813?pageNumber=1&virtualBrandChannel=0.[Accessed 31 Jul. 2015].

McCloy, C. (2009). Canada Hosts the World: An Examination of the First Federal Sport Hosting Policy (1967). *The International Journal of the History of Sport* Vol. 26: 9, 1155–1170. McDonnell I, Allen J, O'Toole W., (1999). *Festival and Special Event Management*. Milton. John Wiley & Sons Australia, Ltd.

McEwan, C. (2008). Post- colonialism. In Desai, V. and Potter, R. B. (2008) (Eds.). *The Companion to Development Studies* 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition (pp. 124-132). Hodder Education.

McEwan, C. (2001) Post colonialism, feminism and development: intersections and dilemmas. *Progress in Development Studies* Vol. 1: 2, 93–111.

McKay, J. (2004). Reassessing Development Theory: 'Modernization' and Beyond. In Kingsbury, D. Remenyi, J. McKay, J and Hunt, J. 2004 (Eds.). *Key Issues of Development*. New York: Palgrave MacMillan, pp 45-66.

Mehaffey, J. (2012) *IOC moves into new territory after London triumph / Olympics 2012*. [Online] Available at: <u>http://www.reuters.com/london-olympics-2012/articles/2012/08/12/ioc-moves-new-territory-after-london-triumph</u> [Accessed: 5 Sep 2012].

Merriam, S. B. (2009). *Qualitative Research: A Guide to Design and Implementation*. John Wiley and Sons Ltd, Chichester.

Michels, A. and Graaf, L. de (2010): Examining Citizen Participation: Local Participatory Policy Making and Democracy, Local Government Studies, Vol. 36:4, 477-491

Mingers, J. (2000): The contribution of critical realism as an underpinning philosophy for operational research and management science and systems, *Journal of the Operational Research Society*, Vol.51, 1256-1270.

Ministry of National Heritage and Sports, Kenya, (2002) Kenya National Sports Policy.

Ministry of Youth and Sports, Kenya (2012). Agreement between the Government of The Republic of South Africa And The Government Of The Republic Of Kenya On Co-operation In The Field of Sports and Recreation (2012 Draft Copy).

Misener, L. and Mason, D.S. (2009). Fostering Community Development through Sporting Events Strategies: An Examination of Urban Regime Perceptions, *Journal of Sport Management*, Vol. 23:6, 770-794.

Mishra, S., Choudhry, S. and Kothari, M. (2010). The 2010 Commonwealth Games: Who's Wealth? Who's Commons? *Housing and Land Rights Network, South Asia Regional Programme Habitat International Coalition*.

Mitlin, D. Hickey, S and Bebbington, A. (2006). Reclaiming development? NGOs and the challenge of alternatives. *Global Poverty Research Group-Working Paper Series-043*. <u>http://economics.ouls.ox.ac.uk/14040/1/gprg-wps-043.pdf</u> [Accessed: 7 Aug 2013].

Mitra, A. (2014). *An Ethical Analysis of the 2014 FIFA World Cup in Brazil*. [Online] Available at: http://sevenpillarsinstitute.org/case-studies/ethical-analysis-of-the-2014-fifa-world-cup-brazil [Accessed 24 Oct. 2014].

Morris, S. (2012). FIFA World Cup 2022: Why the United States cannot Successfully Challenge FIFA awarding the cup to Qatar and how the Qatar Controversy Shows FIFA needs Large-Scale Changes. *California Western International Law Journal*, Vol. 42, 542-574.

Moses, D. (2012). Understanding Dependency Theory: A Comparative Evaluation of Gunder Franks' Seminal Work in Today's World. [Online] Academia.edu. Available at: https://www.academia.edu/2271357/Understanding\_Dependency\_Theory\_A\_Comparative\_E valuation\_of\_Gunder\_Franks\_Seminal\_Work\_in\_Today\_s\_World [Accessed 1 May 2015].

Mules, T. and Faulkner, B. (1996). An economic perspective on major events. *Tourism Economics*, Vol. 2:2, 107–117.

Munck, R. and O' Hearn, D. (1999) *Critical Development Theory: Contributions to a New Paradigm.* London: Zed Books.

Munro, B. (2005). *Greed vs Good Governance*. 4th World Communication Conference on Sport and Society, November 6-10, 2005 in Copenhagen, Denmark, <u>www.playthegame.org</u>

Musumba, (2015). *AFRICA'S NEW DAWN: Ndolo named the continent's ambassador for Commonwealth Boxing Council.* [Online] Standard Digital News. Available at: http://www.standardmedia.co.ke/sports/article/2000159046/africa-s-new-dawn-ndolo-named-the-continent-s-ambassador-for-commonwealth-boxing-council [Accessed 22 Jul. 2015].

 New Zealand Major Events. (2012). The Major Events Development Fund. Retrieved 31 May,

 2013,
 from

 <u>http://www.med.govt.nz/majorevents/major-events-development</u>

 <u>fund/majorevents-development-fund-1</u>

Nicholson, P. (2013). FIFA caution South Africans about government interference in football
 Inside World Football. [Online] Insideworldfootball.com. Available at: <a href="http://www.insideworldfootball.com/world-football/africa/12253-fifa-caution-south-africans-about-government-interference-in-football">http://www.insideworldfootball.com/world-football/africa/12253-fifa-caution-south-africans-about-government-interference-in-football</a> [Accessed 29 Jul. 2015].

Nielsen, L. (2011). *Classifications of Countries Based on Their Level of Development: How it is done and how it could be done*. International Monetary Fund.

Nkatlo, P. (2015). *SABC News - Sascoc to jet out for the 2022 Commonwealth Games bid: Wednesday 25 February 2015.* [Online] Sabc.co.za. Available at: http://www.sabc.co.za/news/a/bc88e280476fc957a476fc4602d973ea/Sascoc-to-jet-out-forthe-2022-Commonwealth-Games-bid-20152502 [Accessed 13 Jul. 2015].

Obonyo, M. O. (2013). Financing Sports in Kenya: A Case of Kenya Basketball Federation, *Prime Journal of Business Administration and Management* (BAM) ISSN: 2251-1261. Vol. 3:8, 1161-1170,

Obudho, R.A and Obudho, R. A. (1992). The Colonial Urban Development through Space and Time 1895-1963, in W. R. Ochieng' and R. M. Maxon (eds.), *An Economic History of Kenya*, East Africa Educational Publishers Ltd.

Odhiambo, D. A (2011). A Survey of the Challenges Facing Management of Sports in Kenya Hockey Union. Unpublished MBA Dissertation of the Kenyatta University, Kenya.

OECD, (2001) Citizens as Partners: Information, Consultation and Public Participation in Policy Making (Paris: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development Publications on Governance).

Ogborn, M. (2005). 'Modernity and modernization', in P. Cloke, P. Crang and M. Goodwin (Eds.), Introducing *Human Geographies*, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition, London: Arnold, pp. 339-349.

Ogot, B. A., and Ochieng, W. R. (1995). *Decolonization and independence in Kenya*, 1940–1993. London, England: Currey.

Okech, J.E.A and Kememia, M. (2012). Professional Counseling in Kenya: History, Current Status, and Future Trends, *Journal of Counselling & Development, the American Counselling Association*, Vol. 90, 107-112.

Okoth, O. (2014). *Kenya to host 2017 IAAF event: US and Argentine cities withdraw bids for World Youth Championships*. [Online] Standard Digital News. Available at: http://www.standardmedia.co.ke/sports/article/2000141875/kenya-to-host-2017-iaaf-event-us-and-argentine-cities-withdraw-bids-for-world-youth-championships [Accessed 26 Nov. 2014].

Olsen, W. (2002) *Dialectical Triangulation and Empirical Research*. Paper presented at the 6th IACR Annual Conference, University of Bradford, 16–18th August 2002.

O' Neill, M. (2012). High performance school-age athletes at Australian schools: A study of conflicting demands. Thesis (PhD). University of Sunshine Coast, Australia. [Online], Available at: <u>http://research.usc.edu.au/vital/access/manager/Repository/usc:9649</u> [Accessed: 28 Oct 2013].

Opdenakker, R. (2006). Advantages and Disadvantages of Four Interview Techniques in Qualitative Research, FORUM: Qualitative Social Research SOZIALFORS CHUNG Vol. 7:4,

Palys, T (2013). Purposive Sampling. Simon Fraser University. Available at: http://www.sfu.ca/~palys/Purposive%20sampling.pdf [Accessed: 14 May 2013].

Parent, M. and Swan, S. (2013). *Managing Major Sports Events: Theory and Practice*. Routledge, London.

Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative Research & Evaluation Methods*. Sage Publications Ltd., London.

Patton, M. Q. (1998). How to use Qualitative Methods in Evaluation. Sage Publications Inc.

Payne, G and Payne, J. (2004). *Key Concepts in Social Research: Positivism and Realism*, Sage Publications Inc.

Pieterse, J. N. (2010). Development theory. Sage.

Pillay, U., Tomlinson, R., and Bass, O. (2009). *Development and dreams: the urban legacy of the 2010 Football World Cup*. HSRC Press.

Pillay, U. and Bass, O. (2008). Mega-events as a response to poverty reduction: The 2010 FIFA World Cup and its urban development implications. *Urban Forum*, Vol.19, 329–346.

Pomfret, R., Wilson, J. K. and Lobmayr, B. (2009). Bidding for Sports Mega-Events. The University of Adelaide, School of Economics Working Paper Series No: 0089. [Online]

Available at: http://www.economics.adelaide.edu.au/research/papers/doc/wp2009-30.pdf [Accessed 13 Dec. 2014].

Potter, R. B. (2008). Theories, strategies and ideologies of development in Desai, V and Potter, R. B (eds.), *The Companion to Development Studies*, 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed. pp. 67-70. Hodder Education.

Press Association, (2014). *British tourists leave Kenya after Foreign Office warning*. [Online] Available at: http://www.theguardian.com/world/2014/may/16/kenya-british-tourists-foreign-office-warning [Accessed 21 Jul. 2014].

Preston, P. W. (1996). Development Theory: An Introduction. Blackwell Publishers

Preuss, H. (2004). Calculating the Regional Economic Impact of the Olympic Games, *European Sport Management Quarterly*, Vol. 4:4, 234-253.

Rapley, J. (1996). Understanding Development: Theory and Practice in the Third World. Lynne Rienner.

Remenyi, J. (2004). What is development? In D. Kingsbury, J. Remenyi, J. McKay, and J. Hunt, 2004 (Eds.), Key *Issues of Development*. New York: Palgrave MacMillan, pp 22 - 44.

Republic of Kenya, (2012). *Draft Report on Parliamentary Question by Private Notice by the Hon. Boni Khalwale, member for Ikolomani Constituency* on 1<sup>st</sup> December 2011. THE KENYA DELEGATION TO THE 10<sup>TH</sup> ALL AFRICA GAMES, MAPUTO, MOZAMBIQUE, 3<sup>RD</sup> - 18 SEPTEMBER 2011. KENYA NATIONAL ASSEMBLY. Republic of Kenya (2007). The Kenya Vision 2030: The Popular Version. http://www.vision2030.go.ke/cms/vds/Popular\_Version.pdf.

Richards, L. (2009). *Handling Qualitative data: A practical guide* (2nd Ed.). London: Sage Publications.

Richardson, S. (2012). Justification for Government Involvement in the Hosting of Sports Events: Do the Projected Impacts materialise? *Massey University School of Economics and Finance, Discussion Paper 12:2 September 2012.* 

Rintaugu, E.G, Munayi, S., Mwangi, I and Ngetich, E.D.K., (2008). The Grand Coalition Government in Kenya: A Recipe for Sports Development. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, Vol. 1:18. www.ijhssnet.com

Ritchie, J.R.B. (1984). Assessing the Impact of Hallmark Events: Conceptual and Research Issues. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol. 23:1, 2-11.

Ritchie, J., and Lewis, J. (Eds.) (2003). *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers*. London: Sage Publications.

Rivero, O. de (2001). *The Myth of Development: the Non-Viable Economies of the 21<sup>st</sup> Century*. London: Zed Books.

Roberts, K. (2004). The Leisure Industries London: Palgrave.

Roche, M. (2000). Mega-events and Modernity (London: Routledge).

Roche, M. (1994). *Mega*-events and urban policy. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol. 21, 1–19.

Rose, A. and Spiegel, M. (2011). The Olympic Effect. *The Economic Journal*, Vol. 121, 652-677.

Rostow, W. (1960). Stages of Economic Growth, Cambridge University Press.

Rowe, D. (2012). The bid, the lead-up, the event and the legacy: global cultural politics and hosting the Olympics. *The British Journal of Sociology 2012*, Vol. 63:2, 285-305.

Rowe, D. (2003). Sport and the Repudiation of the Global. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, Vol. 38:3, 281-294.

Rubin, A. and E.R. Babbie (2009). *Essential Research Methods for Social Work*. Cengage Learning, Inc., Belmont, CA.

Rubin, H. J., and Rubin, I. S. (2005). The Art of Hearing Data. Revised Ed. London: Sage.

Rukundwa, L. S., and Van Aarde, A. G. (2008). The formation of postcolonial theory. *HTS Theological Studies/Teologiese Studies*, Vol 63:3, 1171-1194.

Saavedra, M. (2009). Dilemmas and Opportunities in Gender and Sport-in-Development. In Levermore, R. and Beacom, A. (Eds.). *Sport and International Development* (pp. 124-55). London: Palgrave MacMillan.

Said, E (1995). Orientalism (London: Penguin).

Said, E (1993). Culture and Imperialism (New York: Vintage).

Sanders, B., Phillips, J and Vanreusel, B (2014). Opportunities and challenges facing NGOs using sport as a vehicle for development in post-apartheid South Africa, *Sport, Education and Society*, Vol. 19:6, 789-805.

Sandiford, P. J., and Seymour, D. (2007). A discussion of qualitative data analysis in hospitality research with examples from ethnography of English public houses. *Hospitality Management*, Vol. 26, 724-742.

Saunders, M., P. Lewis and A. Thornhill. (2009). *Research Methods for Business Students*. 5<sup>th</sup> Ed. Pearson Education Limited, Belmont, CA.

Saunders, M., P. Lewis and A. Thornhill. (2007). *Research Methods for Business Students*. 4<sup>th</sup> Ed. Pearson Education Limited, Belmont, CA.

Sayer, A. (2000). Realism and Social Science. SAGE Publications.

Sayer, G., (1998). Kenya, Promised Land? Oxfam GB.

Schatzmann, V. (2014). *Event organisation and future challenges for the sport industry / GlobalSportsJobs*. [Online] Available at: http://www.globalsportsjobs.com/article/event-organisation-and-future-challenges-for-the-sport-industry/ [Accessed 24 Oct. 2014].

Searle, G. (2002). Uncertain legacy: Sydney's Olympic stadiums, European Planning Studies, Vol. 10:7, 845-860.

Schell, C. (1992). *The Value of the Case Study as a Research Strategy*. Manchester Business School. Available at <u>http://www.finance-mba.com/Case%20Method.pdf</u>.

Short, J. R. (2008): Globalization, cities and the Summer Olympics, *City*: analysis of urban trends, culture, theory, policy, action, Vol 12:3, 321-340

Silverman, D. (2013). Doing Qualitative Research. 4th Ed. London: Sage

Smith, C. and Elger, T. (2013), Critical Realism and Interviewing Subjects, School of Management, Royal Holloway University of London, *Working Paper Series*, SoMWP–1208 [Online] Available at: http://pure.rhul.ac.uk/portal/files/12460828/Smith\_Chris\_Critical\_Realism\_and\_Interviewing \_SOM\_Working\_Paper.pdf [Accessed: 3 Dec 2013].

Smith, A. (2009). Theorising the Relationship between Sport Events and Social Sustainability, *Journal of Sport and Tourism*, Vol. 14: 2-3, 109-120.

Smith, M. (2003). Issues in Cultural Tourism. Routledge. London.

Smith, T (1979). The Underdevelopment of Development Literature: The Case of Dependency Theory, *World Politics*, Vol. 31: 2, 247-288

Sobh, R., and Perry, C. (2006). Research Design and Data Analysis in Realism Research, *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 40:11/12, 1194-1209.

Somekh, B. (1995). 'The Contribution of Action Research to Development in Social Endeavours: A Position Paper on Action Research Methodology', *British Educational Research Journal*, Vol. 1:3, 339-355.

Somekh, B. and Lewin, C. (2004). *Research Methods in the Social Sciences*. Sage Publications Ltd, London.

Spencer, J. P and Zembani, P. (2011). An Analysis of a National strategic framework to promote tourism, leisure, sport and recreation in South Africa. *African Journal for Physical, Health Education, Recreation and Dance (AJPHERD)* Vol. 17: 2, 201-218.

SRSA, (2013). *Department of Sport and Recreation SA / Directorate: International Liason*. [Online] Available at: http://www.srsa.gov.za/pebble.asp?relid=93 [Accessed 24 Nov. 2014].

SRSA, (2011). National Sport and Recreation Plan (Draft 20). Department of Sport and Recreation South Africa.

Stake, R. (1995). The Art of Case Study Research. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Stewart, B.; Nicholson, M. and Smith A. (2004). *Australian sport: Better by design? The evolution of Australian Sport Policy*. London: Routledge.

Steyn, J. N. and Spencer, J. P. (2011). South African tourism: An historic evaluation of macro tourism policies. *African Journal for Physical, Health Education, Recreation and Dance (AJPHERD)* Vol. 17: 2, 178-200.

Stone, D. (2004) Transfer agents and global networks in the 'transnationalisation' of policy, *Journal of European Public Policy*, Vol 11:3, 545–566.

Sugden, J. and Tomlinson, A. (1998). Power and Resistance in the Governance of World Football: Theorizing FIFA's Transnational Impact, Jounal of sport and Sport Issues, Vol. 22:3, 299 - 316

Sumner, A. and Tribe, M. (2008). Development Studies and Cross-disciplinarity: Research at the social science – physical science interface. *Journal of International Development*, Vol. 20, 751–767.

Super Sport, (2014). *Kenya to host 2017 World Youth Champs*. [Online] Available at: http://www.supersport.com/athletics/africa/news/141119/Kenya\_to\_host\_2017\_World\_Youth \_Champs [Accessed 26 Nov. 2014].

Swart, K. (2005). Strategic planning – implications for the bidding of sport events in South Africa, *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, Vol. 10:1, 37-46.

Swart. K and Bob, U. (2004). The seduction discourse of development: the Cape Town 2004 Olympic bid. *Third World Quarterly* Vol.25, No.7, 1311-1324.

Swart, K. Bob, U. Knott, B and Salie, M. (2011). A Sport and Sociocultural Legacy Beyond 2010: A Case Study of the Football Foundation of South Africa. *Development Southern Africa* Vol. 28:3, 415 – 428.

Sylvester, C. (1999). Development studies and postcolonial studies: disparate tales of the 'Third World'. *Third World Quarterly*, Vol. 20: 4, 703-721.

Taylor, T and Toohey, K. (2007). Perceptions of Terrorism Threats at the 2004 Olympic Games: Implications for Sport Events, Journal of Sport & Tourism, Vol. 12: 2, 99–114.

The World Bank, (2014). *China Overview*. [Online] Available at: <u>http://www.worldbank.org/en/country/china/overview</u>. [Accessed 18 Aug. 2014].

The World Bank, (2013). *Kenya Economic Update*. [Assessed: 13 Dec 2013]. <u>http://www.worldbank.org/content/dam/Worldbank/document/Africa/Kenya/kenya-</u> <u>economic-update-june-2013.pdf.</u>

The World Bank (2012). World Development Indicators. [Online] Available at: <a href="http://data.worldbank.org/sites/default/files/wdi-2012-ebook.pdf">http://data.worldbank.org/sites/default/files/wdi-2012-ebook.pdf</a> [Accessed 30 Dec. 2014].

Tipps, D. C. (1973). Modernization theory and the comparative study of national societies: A critical perspective. *Comparative Studies in Society and History*, Vol. 15:2, 199-226.

Tod, A. (2006) 'Interviewing'. In: K. Gerrish and A. Lacey (Eds.) *The Research Process in Nursing*, pp. 337-352. John Wiley and Sons Ltd., Chichester.

Todaro, M. P and Smith, S. C. (2011). *Economic Development*. 11<sup>th</sup> Ed. Pearson.

Tomlinson, A. and Young, C. (2006) *National Identity and Global Spots Events: Culture, Politics, and Spectacle in the Olympics and the Football World Cup.* Albany, State University of New York.

Tongco, M.D.C. (2007). Purposive Sampling as a Tool for Information Selection. *A Journal for Plants, People and Applied Research. Ethnobotany Research and Applications.* <u>http://scholarspace.manoa.hawaii.edu/bitstream/handle/10125/227/i1547-3465-05147.pdf</u> Accessed: 14 May 2013].

Transparency International, (2013). *Corruption Perception Index, 2012*. [Online] available at: <u>http://www.transparency.org/cpi2012/results</u>. [Assessed: 3 Jan 2014]

UNDP (2008). Human Development Report 2007/ 2008. [Online] Available at: http://hdr.undp.org/sites/default/files/reports/268/hdr\_20072008\_en\_complete.pdf [Accessed 30 Dec. 2014].

UK Sport (2012) UK Sport - 2007-2012 Events. [Online] Available at: http://www.uksport.gov.uk/pages/2007-2012-Events/ [Accessed: 30 May 2013].

UK Sport. (2002). Game Plan: a strategy for delivering Government's sports and physical activity objectives.

UK Sport. (1999). Measuring Success 2: The Economic Impact of Major Sports Events. London, UK Sport. Van der Linde, R. (2015). *FIFA Has Abandoned Its World Cup Rotation Policy, And It May Be The Best Thing It's Ever Done For The Developing World*. [Online] Business Insider. Available at: http://www.businessinsider.com/fifa-abandons-its-world-cup-rotation-policy-2014-6?IR=T [Accessed 29 Jul. 2015].

Van der Westhuizen, J. (2004): Marketing Malaysia as a model modern Muslim state: The significance of the 16th Commonwealth Games, *Third World Quarterly*, Vol. 25:7, 1277-1291.

Varrel, A. and Kennedy, L. (2011). Mega -Events and Mega –Projects: Chance2 Sustain. *Policy Brief*, Vol. 3, 1-4.

Veltmeyer, H. (2005). Development and Globalization as Imperialism. *Canadian Journal of development Studies* Vol. 26:1, 90-105.

Vissak, T. (2010). Recommendations for using the case study method in international business research *The Qualitative Report*, Vol.15:2, 370-388. Retrieved from http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR15-2/vissak.pdf. [Assessed: 08 Dec 2013].

Wadawi, J. K. Okech, R. N. Owino, E. and George, B. P. (2011). Integrating the Role of Sports Associations in the Promotion of Sports and Recreation Tourism at the Destination Level: Creating a Partnering Framework for Kenya, *International Journal of Tourism Sciences*, Vol. 11:3, 21-35.

Walter, M. (1999). Globalisation. London. Routledge

Warshaw, A. (2014). FIFA caution South Africans about government interference in football -Inside World Football. [Online] Insideworldfootball.com. Available at: http://www.insideworldfootball.com/world-football/africa/12253-fifa-caution-south-africansabout-government-interference-in-football [Accessed 1 Jul. 2014].

Webster, A. (1995). Modernization Theory'. *Development Studies: An introduction through selected readings*.

Westerbeek, H. M. Turner, P. and Ingerson, L. (2002). Key success factors in bidding for hallmark sporting events. *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 19:3, 303-322.

Whitson, D., and Macintosh, D. (1996). The global circus: International sport, tourism, and the marketing of cities. *Journal of Sport and Social Issues*, Vol. 20, 278-295.

Willis, K. (2005). Theories and Practices of Development, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition. London: Routledge.

Wilson, S. (2014). *IOC faces trouble finding cities to host games*. [Online] Available at: http://wintergames.ap.org/article/ioc-faces-trouble-finding-cities-host-games?fb\_action\_ids=283407491841368&fb\_action\_types=og.likes&fb\_source=other\_multil ine&action\_object\_map=%5B667758039938709%5D&action\_type\_map=%5B%22og.likes %22%5D&action\_ref\_map=%5B%5D [Accessed 18 Oct. 2014].

Withnall, A, (2014). *Qatar World Cup 2022: Calls grow for revote ahead of critical meeting with Fifa tonight*. [Online] Available at: <u>http://www.independent.co.uk/sport/football/news-and-comment/qatar-world-cup-2022-calls-grow-for-revote-ahead-of-critical-meeting-with-fifa-tonight-9469523.html</u> [Accessed 26 Aug. 2014].

Xinhua, (2005). People's Daily Online -- Kenya wins bid to host 2007 World Cross CountryChampionships.[Online]Availableat:http://english.peopledaily.com.cn/200511/14/eng20051114220996.html[Accessed 29 Jul.2014].

Yin, R. K. (2012). Applications of Case Study Research. 3rd Edition: Sage.

Yin, R. K. (2009). Case study research: Design and methods. 4th Edition: Sage.

Yin, R. K. (2003). Case study research: Design and methods. Newbury Park: Sage.

Yin, R. K. (1994). Case study research design and methods. London: Sage.

Young, R. (2003). *Post-colonialism: A very short introduction*. New York: Oxford University Press.

York, G, (2014). *How South Africa can offer Brazil a World Cup lesson*. [Online] Available at: <u>http://www.theglobeandmail.com/sports/soccer/world-cup/white-</u> elephants/article19064519/#dashboard/follows [Accessed 26 Jun. 2014].

Ziai, A. (2011). Post-colonialism and Development: Disparate Tales Reconsidered, *Development and Change*, Vol 42:5, 1297 – 1306

## APPENDIX A



#### **MINISTRY OF YOUTH AFFAIRS & SPORTS**

Tel: +254-020-240068 Fax: +254-020-312351 Email: <u>youthaffairs@treasury.go.ke</u>

When replying please quote:

Ref: MYS/4/2 Vol.IV/48

22<sup>nd</sup> May 2012

Kencom House, 3<sup>rd</sup> Floor P.O. Box 34303-00100 Nairobi, Kenya

The Research Office University of Central Lancashire UNITED KINGDOM

#### DOREEN ODHIAMBO: RESEARCH INTERVIEW

We have received a request from M/s Odhiambo who is a PhD student in your institution in which she intends to carry out interviews among Ministry officials as part of the requirements for her PHD programme on Hosting of Sports Mega events in developing countries.

As a Ministry, we can confirm that the area of study is quite relevant to our mandate and part of our development blue print of Kenya Vision 2030. We have read the informed consent letter and the interview guide schedule and have no objections to her request and mechanisms will be put in place to ensure that she successfully conducts the interviews.

E.D.ALELA FOR: PERMANENT SECRETARY

APPENDIX B



## **INFORMED CONSENT**

## The Hosting of Major Sports Events in Developing Countries:

## What Can Kenya Learn From South Africa?

- Director of Studies: Prof. John Horne, jdhorne@uclan.ac.uk
- Second Supervisors: Dr. Susan Minten, <u>sminten@uclan.ac.uk.</u>

Dr. Jessica Macbeth, jlmacbeth@uclan.ac.uk.

- Student Name: Doreen Odhiambo
- University: University of Central Lancashire, UK
- Class Year: Third Year, PhD Student
- Email: <u>daodhiambo@uclan.ac.uk</u>
- Telephone: +447774779301

## Background

I am a PhD student in the School of Sport, Tourism & The Outdoors at the University Of Central Lancashire, UK, conducting research which is a requirement for fulfilment for the award of the doctorate degree under the supervision of Prof. John Horne and Dr Susan Minten.

You are being invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide to participate in the study, it is important that you understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and ask the researcher if there is anything that is unclear or if you need more information.

## **Purpose of the Study**

The overall aim of my thesis is to examine the possibilities and challenges associated with hosting or staging of sports mega-events in developing countries in Africa, with a specific focus on Kenya. In the entire continent of Africa, it is only South Africa that has hosted a sports mega-event, the FIFA Men's Football World Cup Finals in 2010. The thesis seeks to explore the proposition that Kenya may need to draw on the experiences of South Africa if it aspires to host such an event.

## Procedure

If you volunteer to participate in this study, participation will consist of one interview lasting approximately one hour, at a time and place convenient to you. The interview will focus on several key themes: the relationship between African countries and the global sports system, assessing the understandings of key actors and agencies in Kenya with respect to the possibilities and challenges of hosting sports mega-events and the knowledge transfer process

with respect to the hosting of sports mega-events. This interview will be audio taped to help capture your insights in your own words, unless otherwise requested by you. You will have the opportunity to ask questions during the interview and your questions to be answered. There may be additional follow up/ clarification through email, unless otherwise requested by you. Privacy will be ensured through confidentiality.

## Withdrawal from the study

You will also have the right to withdraw from the study at any time. If you decided that you do not wish to be interviewed after appointments have been set, you can inform the researcher at least 24 hours before the scheduled interview. In the event that you choose to withdraw from the study after being interviewed, you can contact the researcher and all the information that you had provided including tapes will be destroyed and omitted from the final paper.

#### **Benefits and Risks.**

This study will not bring you specific benefits outside of an opportunity to share your views and opinions. Your participation, however, will be of considerable benefit for educational purposes, for it will give the researcher a critical opportunity to develop professional skills and also to learn about sports mega events and opinions. However, we hope that the information obtained from this study will be of benefit to Kenya and other developing countries to understand the possibilities and challenges they might face when they want host sports megaevents. There are no risks associated with participating in this study or costs for participating in the study.

## Confidentiality.

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission. Confidentiality will be maintained by using a pseudonym instead of your name when transcribing the interview. The transcribed data will be coded and interview tapes and pseudonym keys will be kept in a locked drawer. Access to the code to link samples to personally identifiable information will be secured by means of a password protected database and will only be limited to the researcher. The results of the study will be used for academic and publication purposes in academic journals only. If you wish to be made aware of the results, please feel free to contact the researcher. Should you have any questions and concerns about the research or any related matter, please contact the researcher at <u>daodhiambo@uclan.ac.uk</u> or the head of school, Dr. John Minten at jhminten@uclan.ac.uk.

Thank you,

Doreen Odhiambo

Date

# APPENDIX C



# **Interview Guide for Kenya Sports Federations**

## **Interview Record:**

Interviewer:

Interviewee's name:

Interviewee's position:

Place of work:

Interviewee's email address:

Meeting place for interview:

Time and duration:

Date:

## **Topic Themes:**

- 1. Personal Information
- 2. Possibilities and Challenges of hosting sports mega-events in developing countries
- 3. Relationship between African countries and global sports system
- 4. Key Actors and Agencies in Kenya with respect of hosting sports mega-events
- 5. Knowledge transfer process with respect to hosting sports mega-events in Kenya
- 1. Personal Information.
  - a) What are your work responsibilities at the sports federation? Is it paid or voluntary job?

- b) Is your federation involved in the organization of sports events? What category? (Local, National, Regional, Continental or Worldwide)
- c) What impacts does the organization of sports events impact on your workload?
- d) Do you have any specific Olympic-related roles? If so, what are they?

# 2. Relationship between African countries and global sports system.

- a) Are you an official of any continental or international sports federation?
- b) What is your federation's working relationship with your continental or international federation?
- c) What do you think is the relationship of the African countries and the global sports system (Commonwealth Games Federation, FIFA or IOC) and why?
- d) What do you generally think of the global sports system?

# 3. Possibilities and Challenges of hosting sports mega-events in developing countries.

- a) Have you ever been a member of a local organizing committee of a major sporting event hosted in or out of Kenya? What was the event and what was your role?
- b) Has Kenya reached a stage of hosting a sports mega-event such as Commonwealth Games, FIFA World Cup or Olympic Games? Why?
- c) What are the possibilities of Kenya hosting such an event? Any challenges?
- d) Do you think South Africa's performance in hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup has given Africa the opportunity to host a sports mega-event? Why?

# 4. Key Actors and Agencies in Kenya with respect of hosting sports mega-events.

- a) What levels of collaboration exist between your national sports federations and the Ministry of Sports?
- b) Who are the key actors and agencies with respect to hosting of sports mega events in Kenya? Have they hosted any international sports events? (Regional, Continental or International / Worldwide)
- c) What is required of Kenya as a country when it comes to hosting of a sports mega-event from the global sports system?
- d) What is the government of Kenya's defined role when it comes to hosting international sports events?
- e) Compared to other countries that your athletes have participated internationally, how would you rate the major events that Kenya has hosted?

# 5. Sports Knowledge Policy Transfer Process

- a) Do you have a National Sports Policy?
- b) How did you develop your national sports policy(s)? i.e. Reference points (Countries) Why?
- c) What was your mode of engagement with your reference points? Training abroad, Bilateral relations/ agreements, Consultancy, Special support from foreign government(s), Institutions/Organization(s), etc.
- d) Who were/ are involved in sports policy(s) formulation? Why?
- e) What does your sports policy say about hosting international sports events?
- f) Do sports policy makers in your organization travel to countries that have hosted sports mega events before? Why?

g) Which countries do you travel to whenever you need information regarding sports policy issues and who does it?

### APPENDIX D



# **National Olympic Committee - Kenya**

Olympic House, Kenya Road, Upper Hill P.O. Box 46888, 00100, G.P.O. Nairobi, Kenya.

Tel: +254-020-2712347 +254-020-2738109 Fax: +254-020-2712343 Email: nock@iconnect.co.ke Website: www.olympickenya.org

May 25, 2012

The Research Office University of Central Lancashie PR1 2HE PRESTON UNITED KINGDOM

#### **RE:- DOREEN ODHIAMBO: RESEARCH INTERVIEW**

This is to acknowledge that we have received a request from Ms. Odhiambo who is a PhD student at your Institution requesting for an interview with our Organization with regards to Kenya hosting Sports Mega events (Olympics/FIFA World Cup).

This is therefore to confirm that we have read the informed consent letter and interview guide and have no objection with Ms. Odhiambo interviewing our officials.

Thank you

Francis K. Paul Secretary General



 
 Dr. Kipchoge Keino Chairman
 Peter Nderitu
 David S. Okeyo
 Francis K. Paul
 Fridah B. Shiroya

 Chairman
 1st Vice Chairman
 2nd Vice Chairman
 Hon. Seceretary General
 Hon. Treasurer

 Affiliated to: International Olympic Committee, Commonwealth Games Federation and ANOCA
 Commonwealth Games Federation
 And ANOCA

## APPENDIX E

P. O. Box 12705-00400, Nairobi,

Football Kenya Federation

Affiliated to CECAFA - CAF - FIFA

Tel: +254 20 6008577 +254 20 6008544 Tel/Fax:+254 20 6008550 Email: info@fkf.co.ke Website: www.fkf.co.ke

31 May 2012

Professor John Horne Director of Studies School of Sport, Tourism and the Outdoors <u>University of Central Lancashine</u>

Dear Prof. John,

#### **RE: DOREEN ODHIAMBO**

This is to confirm that Doreen Odhiambo has been granted the authority to carry out an interview with the Federation Secretariat in the month of November 2012.

Regard Omondi Aduda L Secretary General - FKF

9 a 11

Cc: National Chairman -FKF

and the second

 Mr. Sam Nyamweya
 Mr. Omondi Aduda
 Mr. Sammy Sholei

 National Chairman
 General Secretary/CED
 Vice-Chairman

All correspondence should be addressed to the General Secretary