

Strengthening the Global Framework for Leveraging Sport for Development and Peace

A BACKGROUND PAPER

(Preparing for the themes of ‘mainstreaming of sport in development programmes and policies’ & ‘Monitoring and evaluation of programmes and policies to leverage sport for development and peace’)

Dr Shushu Chen, University of Birmingham, UK

Abstract

This background paper provides a critical review of major issues associated with the design, delivery, monitoring, and evaluation of sport for development and peace (SDP) projects. By referring to the concept of event leverage, it highlights in particular how various issues have hindered the development of sustainable impacts by SDP programmes. It is therefore argued that the use of process tracing frameworks (together with theory of change and theory of action) to assist the design, delivery, monitoring, and evaluation processes of SDP may offer a practical and theoretical solution for addressing the identified issues and for contributing to the development of methodological rigor.

1 Introduction

The use of sport for development and peace (SDP) is a strategy which has attracted support from a wide range of policy bodies including the United Nations (2003), the IOC (2018), European Parliament (2005), and the Federation Internationale de Football Association (2005). Sport is also considered to be a prominent part of the emerging ‘fourth pillar in development aid’ (Develtere & De Bruyn, 2009).

In the context of the UN, the role of sport in development and peace has long been recognised, and sport was officially incorporated into various activities geared towards achieving the Millennium Development Goals since 2000. More recently, replacing the Millennium Development Goals, a new plan for global development (called the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development) was adopted by the UN General Assembly in 2015; in this new plan, the ‘growing contribution of sport to the realisation of development and peace’ is explicitly identified, and sport is described as an important ‘*enabler* of sustainable development’ (United Nations, 2015, para. 37).

Driven by this high level of global attention and policy impetus provided by the UN, there has been a burgeoning research interest in studying the topic of SDP from different disciplines including sport management (Schulenkorf, 2010; Welty Peachey & Burton, 2017), sport sociology (Burnett, 2015), health (Hershow et al., 2015), policy (Giulianotti, 2010), gender (Meier & Saavedra, 2009), education (Janes, 2013), and psychology (Guest, 2013). Various organisations have also engaged with this international ‘movement’ (Kidd, 2008, p. 370) that uses sport to fulfil development and peace-building goals in communities (Gilbert & Bennett, 2012; Svensson, 2017).

After approximately 20 years of development, it would seem that in the field of SDP, a stage has been reached at which theoretical rather than methodical efforts are most needed. Assessment of sport’s contribution to development and peace should be less concerned with the question of whether SDP programmes can generate positive outputs and outcomes, and

more concerned with a more nuanced question of how to effectively leverage SDP programmes in a particular context to achieve particular types of positive outcomes.

Indeed, the increasing need to report *how* and *why* sport can achieve intended outcomes seems to stem from pressure to illustrate some kind of return on foreign donors' investment (Coalter, 2013; Levermore, 2008) as well as from the dearth of good quality empirical studies to support or reject 'evangelical' claims about the value of sport (Coalter, 2010). On the one hand, as critiqued by Coalter (2013), a simple micro-level implementation of SDP intervention seems to provide little impact on complex macro-level outcomes (e.g., poverty reduction). On the other hand, Mwaanga's (2010) examination of a range of HIV/AIDS interventions using the SDP concept delivered in Sub-Saharan African countries reminds us that we have yet to establish a sound theoretical understanding of sport's potential for addressing HIV/AIDS; as a result, the capacity of sport to combat HIV/AIDS is often overstated and local contexts are underappreciated (Mwaanga, 2010). All of this makes it necessary to rigorously evaluate and monitor the effectiveness of SDP programmes (Coalter, 2013; Levermore, 2011; United Nations Evaluation Group, 2013).

In the context of this discussion [about **Strengthening the Global Framework for Leveraging Sport for Development and Peace**], this background paper seeks to provide a critical review of the current development of the field of SDP with particular reference to the concept of leverage, and it will focus primarily on identifying the issues associated with the process of designing, delivering, monitoring, and evaluating the SDP programmes. The paper then discusses how those issues could potentially be addressed by adopting a process tracing framework as well as the concepts of theory of change and theory of action.

2 SDP: current issues and challenges

In examining the field of SDP, an important initial point to make is perhaps the distinction between 'sport plus' and 'plus sport' (Coalter, 2007a). The approach of 'sport plus' aims to develop sustainable sporting organisations to achieve objectives such as enhancing sport participation, providing training to sports leaders and coaches, and developing physical literacy and basic sporting skills. The 'plus sport' approach by contrast centres on the concept of 'development through sport' and recognises the potential of sport, for example, to address a broad range of social issues (e.g., gender equity). This approach starts with considering a certain social or development issue and then designs programmes using sport as a vehicle to address the issue.

Regardless of the types of approaches used, there is a risk of accepting the 'exceptionalism of sport' (Black, 2010; Coalter, 2010; Giulianotti, 2004). Sport by itself is not a silver bullet that holds a solution to problems (Coalter, 2010); creating change requires a clear vision and strategic planning for sustainable community development (Schulenkorf, 2012). This point relates closely to the core concept of event leverage (Chalip, 2004; O'Brien, 2006).

The notion of leveraging has been well articulated in sporting events literature: Namely, in order to generate positive impact and legacy from the hosting of an event, strategic management processes and tactics must be formed and implemented (Chalip, 2004; O'Brien, 2006). The general consensus in the literature of event leverage is that events themselves do not constitute interventions (O'Brien, 2006); we should adopt an attitude geared towards 'making things happen' (Schulenkorf, 2010, p. 120), rather than take it for granted that positive event legacies and impacts will be generated by themselves (Smith, 2009).

Recent changes in SDP-related policy discourse published by the UN (with sport now considered to be ‘an *enabler*’ of sustainable development instead of a ‘*means* to promote education, health, development and peace’) exhibit awareness of leveraging; sport is no longer perceived as an automatic recipe for development and peace but, rather, as needing the backup of additional actions to fully maximise the opportunities stimulated by SDP programmes.

Another prominent point identified in the leveraging field is the importance of the formulation of collective community and the building of alliances. As emphasised by Chalip (2001), event leverage should start with the tightening of the linkages between different agencies that are responsible for various elements of event development. An effective coordination network between an array of public and private organisations – such as local agencies, businesses, communities, and various levels of government – is needed to ensure that a positive legacy is leveraged. SDP programmes could therefore be considered as the ‘seed capital’ (O’Brien, 2006, p. 258), which then requires detailed strategic planning and the formulation of collective international cooperation networks.

2.1 The design of SDP programmes

Having illustrated the potential benefits of taking a leveraging strategy for SDP, we now move on to highlight some primary SDP issues, by tracing the process of SDP programme design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation. In general, the quality of the design of SDP intervention is not rigorous enough (Levermore, 2008). There are clear signs of ‘evangelical’ SDP thinking when designing SDP programmes (Mwaanga, 2010). As a result, theoretical articulation of the logic underpinning SDP programmes has been kept to a minimum; there was limited questioning about cause and effect, or about the ways in which sport can contribute to the leveraging of positive social outcomes.

The second issue with the design of SDP programmes concerns their ‘short-term’ nature (Armstrong, 2007; Hognestad & Tollisen, 2004; Lindsey, 2017). As noted by Kidd (2011), the temporariness characteristic of SDP programmes directly influences the creation of lasting and substantial impacts (Chansa, Sundewall, McIntyre D, Tomson, & Forsberg, 2008).

The third issue with SDP programme design is associated with overreliance on foreign funding in the designing and delivering of SDP programmes (Kidd, 2008). Several scholars revealed that local communities unable to continue delivering activities after the completion of initial funding (Donnelly, Atkinson, Boyle, & Szto, 2011; Lindsey, 2017; Schnitzer, Stephenson, Zanotti, & Stivachtis, 2013). The ‘donor-driven’ nature of development projects in general (Hope, 2013, p. 624) and of SPD programmes more specifically is considered to be problematic (Akindes & Kirwin, 2009).

Funding of this nature then leads to another important issue, namely that SDP programmes and activities are often tailored towards fulfilling the objectives of foreign donors – rather than those of the local community – and neglect the interests, challenges, and cultures of the implemented communities (Giles & Lynch, 2012; Lindsey, 2017) as well as failing to engage local stakeholders in meaningful dialogue (Hartmann & Kwauk, 2011; Oxford & Spaaij, 2017). As confirmed in Langer’s (2015) systematic review of SDP programme evaluations in Africa, two-thirds of reviewed interventions (n=24) were designed and implemented by international and national governing organisation, rather than by local actors, while international bodies were the main drivers of the programme in Africa.

2.2 *The delivery of SDP programmes*

In terms of programme delivery, the current development of the SDP field still faces some challenges which require additional effectors. First, it is still not clear how SDP projects can be integrated into existing organisational networks at the local level (local government, civic groups, schools, etc.). This challenge remains unresolved due to the fragmented implementation (Darnell, 2008; Hayhurst, 2009; Kidd, 2008; Lindsey, 2017). There is a lack of communication in general between different levels within a country receiving development aid, and this situation leads to issues such as duplication in the programme's design and a failure to make the most of existing resources (expertise, facilities, or equipment).

A second challenge in SDP programme delivery involves ensuring that a project transfers skills and knowledge to local organisers so that when nonlocal experts leave, the project does not collapse. In fact, existing research has already noted the benefits of building local capacity, benefits that are beyond the common focus of SDP initiatives-based approaches, for example regarding the training of local staff to deliver specific SDP activities (Lindsey, 2017).

A third challenge for SDP programme implementation is related to the alignment of projects with locally and nationally defined priorities so that projects can gain and retain local and national political support; and, eventually, local stakeholders can be empowered to take ownership of interventions (Schulenkorf, 2012; Svensson & Hambrick, 2016). In Swatuk, Motsholapheo, and Mazvimavi's (2011) analysis of SDP interventions implemented in the Botswana region, they also highlighted the importance of conducting a thorough contextual analysis of local conditions prior to the design of SDP interventions, and the need to integrate SDP policies and practice into existing local-level structure. This view is consistent with the theory behind leveraging, that there is a need to consider existing local strategies, resources, and sociocultural and political conditions more broadly in order to achieve effective event leverage (Beesley & Chalip, 2011).

2.3 *The monitoring and evaluation of SDP programmes*

In terms of issues regarding monitoring and evaluation of SDP programmes, the first one to note is a lack of rigorous and reliable evidence in support of SDP programmes' effectiveness which has been repeatedly identified (Burnett, 2010; Coalter, 2013; Cronin, 2011). Langer's (2015) review of SDP programme delivery in Africa found no available evidence to support or reject the claim that sport had a positive impact on development in Africa, and SDP programmes have thus far failed to measure final and impact outcomes.

Secondly, previous research has indicated some potential epistemological issues regarding the employment of standard, quantitative research methods for measuring outcomes and impacts (Levermore, 2011; Lindsey & Grattan, 2012). There are two relevant issues existing: One is that, because the planning of SDP evaluations tends to be an 'after-thought' or a 'post-rationalisation' process (Levermore, 2011, p. 341), this rules out the possibility of conducting meaningful comparative analysis, due to a failure to capture baseline data. The second relevant issue is that sport is not 'a conducive environment/good' (Levermore, 2011, p.341); providing a neat experimental comparison seems virtually impossible in most practical contexts (with the exception of a limited amount of experimental sport science research, e.g., physiology). The instrumental approaches to research and evaluation seem to be less effective in revealing the real contributions of SDP interventions on the one hand (Kay, 2009), and they fail in practice to challenge the relationships of power and the existing structures which are fundamentally important for transforming societies (Darnell, 2012).

Thirdly, the short-term outlook of SDP programme design also affects the evaluating of certain impacts that take a long time to surface, such as health outcomes (which are one of the main outcomes reported in SDP interventions, Langer, 2015). Taking HIV-related SDP interventions as an example, Langer (2015) reported that the reviewed evaluations often focused on assessing intermediate outcomes (e.g., changes of HIV-related knowledge) rather than on changes of behaviour.

Fourthly, in addition to concerns over evaluation quality, there is also an issue of political influence and will associated with the process of monitoring and evaluating SDP programmes (Harris & Adams, 2016; Straume & Hasselgård, 2014), whereby the so-called evaluation evidence is perceived to be useful when it supports and reinforces policy beliefs or programme commitment (Coalter, 2017). Such top-down western-led exercises (Kay, 2009) suffer from criticisms such as lack of accountability and overly controlled research findings (Sanderson, 2000). Consequently, we have seen overstated evaluation results (Botcheva & Huffman, 2004; Kidd, 2008) and sometimes underreported findings (Kruse, 2006). There have also been accusations of cultural insensitivity and of local voices being neglected in the evaluation process (Levermore, 2011).

Although there exist some evaluation tools and manuals readily available for the purposes of SDP evaluation (cf. Burnett & Hollander, 2006; Coalter, 2006), we argue that the methods on offer require substantial updating in order to address current issues associated with the process of SDP programme design, delivery, monitoring, and evaluation analysed above. Indeed, the subject of evaluation has developed significantly in the mainstream literature since 2010 with the rise of causal case-study methods (Beach & Pederson, 2016). The debate on process tracing (Bennett & Checkel, 2014), for instance, is one important contribution to the topic. In addition, incited by Darnell and Black (2011) to take on board ‘a more sophisticated understanding of the distinctive characteristic of sport-based initiatives’ (p. 371), development studies scholars are encouraged to adopt a realist approach (Coalter, 2007b; Picciotto, 2015) – to identify real causal relationships between inputs, throughputs, outputs, and outcomes – and to clarify what causal mechanisms have worked in a given SDP programme to generate changes. In response, we propose the use of a process tracing framework for SDP evaluation, in conjunction with referring to theory of change and theory of action, in order to improve internal validity and the understanding of SDP’s causality.

3 Process tracing, programme theory, and action theory

The process tracing approach (George, 1979; George & Bennett, 2005), concerning theory building and theory testing, is viewed as particularly useful for measuring and testing hypothesised causal mechanisms (Beach & Pedersen, 2013; Bennett & Checkel, 2014). The approach seeks to identify whether ‘there is actual within-case process-related evidence of a theorised mechanism actually operating as predicted in the chosen case’ (Beach, 2018, p. 66).

Central to the process tracing framework is the concept of *theory*. Theory refers to a set of explicit or implicit assumptions about actions required to solve a policy problem and about why the problem will respond to such actions (Chen, 1990). In the context of programme, assessing theory (called programme theory) involves evaluating both *processes* and *outcomes* on which a programme is based (Chen, 1990). The need for assessing not only outcomes but also processes of programmes has been highlighted in the field of SDP (Coalter, 2009), as there is little value in understanding whether or not a programme works if the reasons why such success has been achieved are not addressed and understood (Chen, 2015). Indeed, actions within a programme can cause success or failure to achieve outcomes, but success in invoking

a causal mechanism will vary from one context to another (Elster, 1998; Mayntz, 2004). For example, the prescribing of a particular drug may reduce an unwanted medical condition, but this may be dependent on the context. Prescribing drugs which are administered in a hospital context overseen by qualified nurses can have a positive effect in terms of countering difficulties in remembering to take the drug at a particular time and so on. Contexts (namely whether a patient is being treated in hospital or as an out-patient and, thus, whether or not the patient is responsible for taking their own drugs at prescribed intervals) can thereby have a marked influence on whether or not a drug regime is successful. This contextual awareness is pertinent to our argument above regarding the need for taking into consideration existing local strategies, resources, and sociocultural and political conditions when undertaking the design, delivery, monitoring, and evaluation processes of SDP programmes.

In reaching an understanding of programme theory, Funnell and Rogers (2011) suggested that, to complete the development of a programme theory, one should pull together the theory of change and the theory of action. There is a clear distinction between ‘theory of change’ and ‘theory of action’. While theory of change refers to the central mechanism by which change comes about for individuals, groups, and communities, theory of action indicates how interventions are constructed to activate, or facilitate, the intended change (Funnell & Rogers, 2011). Although a theory of change approach has become accepted as a basic foundation for most types of impact evaluation (United Nations Evaluation Group, 2013), this concept remains underemployed in the field of SDP. As highlighted above, various local stakeholders associated with SDP programmes have yet to be engaged in meaningful dialogue. The development process of theory of change and theory of action therefore offers an opportunity to foster open communications between programme makers, programme operators, and programme evaluators; in turn, this process makes sure that there is a consistency in the assumptions made and actions taken.

Various studies in the evaluation literature have applied the process tracing approach to seeking out and assessing evidence for the purpose of developing causal explanations (Befani & Stedman-Bryce, 2017; Byrne, 2013). In the context of sport, our recent evaluation has highlighted the usefulness of the process tracing approach as a strategy for identifying the leveraging impacts of the London 2012 Olympics in terms of both sporting and non-sporting impacts (Chen & Henry, 2018). In this evaluation, we focused on examining the causal contribution of hosting the Olympics for achieving intentional impacts through the analysis of two legacy programmes. By particularly referencing programme theory, our evaluation uncovered the logic(s) (explicit and implicit) of stakeholders (actors and institutions) in linking the outcomes sought from the two legacy programmes to the respective contexts and the actions adopted. The principles underlying theory of action helped to guide the process of understanding which specific approaches and actions had been taken by the stakeholders to facilitate, or bring about, the intended outcomes. Particularly, our study showed that employing the process tracing logic to test the theories and to evaluate the weight of the evidence has contributed to evaluation of the Olympic legacy claims.

We therefore put forward our argument that key principles underlying process tracing (particularly by referencing the concepts of theory of change and theory of action) seem to offer some solutions for addressing the aforementioned issues and for contributing to the development of methodological rigorousness. When assessing SDP programmes’ impacts, the results of evaluations are often criticised as being ambiguous in providing causal contribution claims; that is, we still don’t know what sport has contributed towards achieving sustainable development and building peace. In this respect, the process tracing approaches, which build

on a mechanism-based understanding of causation (Beach & Pederson, 2016), can be particularly useful for identifying the precise generative mechanisms in place to produce intended SDP outcomes and how those outcomes are best measured. This understanding of theoretical causality and measurability is critical when designing a SDP programme, because an explicit outline of the causal assumptions and expectations on which policymaking and measures are based will improve programme implementation (by being more explicit than method-driven evaluations in informing programme operators' understanding of what has causal impact and why) and evaluation (in terms of facilitating policy learning). In addition, it is recognised that the utility of process tracing principles in a case-study research design can help with increasing the strength of causal inference (Schmitt & Beach, 2015), which is desirable for case-based types of SDP programme evaluations.

4 Conclusion

In this background paper, we have sought to provide a critical review of major issues associated with employing SDP interventions. We should acknowledge that we have focused predominately on the challenges emerged from the process of designing, delivering, monitoring, and evaluating SDP programmes, rather than on engaging sociological debates.

Forging a positive relationship between sport and development (in terms of generating positive outcomes through sport participation) is not a straightforward process. Provided in appropriate contexts, to appropriate groups, and in the appropriate manner, sport can provide practical examples of positive moves towards an inclusive society (Henry, 2015) and can potentially address social issues; additional efforts are nonetheless required to effectively leverage sport for the achievement of development goals. The major challenges lie in defining the practical details involved in the design and delivery of SDP programmes, in applying rigorous evaluation approaches for capturing such impacts, and in taking on board lessons learned from different SDP programmes.

5 References

- Akines, G., & Kirwin, M. (2009). Sport as International Aid: Assisting Development or Promoting Under-Development in Sub-Saharan Africa? In R. Levermore & A. Beacom (Eds.), *Sport and International Development* (pp. 219-245). London: Palgrave Macmillan UK.
- Armstrong, G. (2007). The global footballer and the local war-zone: George Weah and transnational networks in Liberia, West Africa. *Global Networks*, 7(2), 230-247.
- Beach, D. (2018). Achieving Methodological Alignment When Combining QCA and Process tracing in Practice. *Sociological Methods & Research*, 47(1), 64-99.
- Beach, D., & Pedersen, R. (2013). *Process-tracing methods: Foundations and guidelines*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Beach, D., & Pederson, R. (2016). *Causal case study methods: Foundations and guidelines for comparing, matching, and tracing*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Beesley, L. G., & Chalip, L. (2011). Seeking (and not seeking) to leverage mega-sport events in non-host destinations: The case of Shanghai and the Beijing Olympics. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 16(4), 323-344.
- Befani, B., & Stedman-Bryce, G. (2017). Process tracing and Bayesian updating for impact evaluation. *Evaluation*, 23(1), 42-60.
- Bennett, A., & Checkel, J. T. (Eds.). (2014). *Process tracing: From metaphor to analytic tool, strategies for social inquiry*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Black, D. R. (2010). The ambiguities of development: implications for 'development through sport'. *Sport in society*, 13(1), 121-129.
- Botcheva, L., & Huffman, M. D. (2004). *Grassroots Soccer Foundation HIV/AIDS Education Program: An intervention in Zimbabwe*. White River Junction, VT: Grassroots Soccer Foundation.

- Burnett, C. (2010). Sport-for-development approaches in the South African context: A case study analysis. *South African Journal for Research in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation*, 32(1), 29-42.
- Burnett, C. (2015). Assessing the sociology of sport: On Sport for Development and Peace. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 50(4-5), 385-390.
- Burnett, C., & Hollander, W. J. (2006). *The sport development impact assessment tool for monitoring and evaluation of sport-in-development projects in Africa*. Johannesburg: the Author.
- Byrne, D. (2013). Evaluating complex social interventions in a complex world. *Evaluation*, 19(3), 217-228.
- Chalip, L. (2001). Sport and tourism: Capitalising on the linkage. *The business of sport*, 77-89.
- Chalip, L. (2004). Beyond impact: A general model for sport event leverage. In B. W. Ritchie & D. Adair (Eds.), *Sport tourism: Interrelationships, impacts and issues* (pp. 226-252). Clevedon: Channel View Publications.
- Chansa, C., Sundewall, J., McIntyre D, Tomson, G., & Forsberg, B. (2008). Exploring SWAp's contribution to the efficient allocation and use of resources in the health sector in Zambia. *Health Policy and Planning*, 23(4), 244-251.
- Chen, H. T. (1990). *Theory-driven evaluations*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Chen, H. T. (2015). *Practical programme evaluation: theory-driven evaluation and the integrated evaluation perspective* (2nd ed.). Los Angeles: SAGE.
- Chen, S., & Henry, I. (2018). Assessing Olympic legacy claims: Evaluating explanations of causal mechanisms and policy outcomes (working paper).
- Coalter, F. (2006). *Sport-in-Development: A Monitoring and Evaluation Manual*. Stirling (Online).
- Coalter, F. (2007a). Sports Clubs, Social Capital and Social Regeneration: 'ill-defined interventions with hard to follow outcomes'? *Sport in society*, 10(4), 537-559.
- Coalter, F. (2007b). *A wider social role for sport*. London: Routledge.
- Coalter, F. (2009). Sport-in-Development: Accountability or Development? In R. Levermore & A. Beacom (Eds.), *Sport and International Development* (pp. 55-75). London: Palgrave Macmillan UK.
- Coalter, F. (2010). The politics of sport-for-development: Limited focus programmes and broad gauge problems? *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 45(3), 295-314.
- Coalter, F. (2013). 'There is loads of relationships here': Developing a programme theory for sport-for-change programmes. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 48(5), 594-612.
- Coalter, F. (2017). Sport and social inclusion: Evidence-based policy and practice. *Social Inclusion*, 5(2), 141-149.
- Cronin, O. (2011). *Comic Relief Review: Mapping the research on the impact of Sport and Development interventions*. Retrieved from Manchester:
- Darnell, S. C. (2008). *changing the world through sport and play: a post-Colonial analysis of Canadian volunteers within the "Sport for Development and Peace" movement*. (Ph.D. thesis), University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada.
- Darnell, S. C. (2012). *Sport for development and peace: A critical sociology*. London: Bloomsbury.
- Darnell, S. C., & Black, D. R. (2011). Mainstreaming Sport into International Development Studies. *Third World Quarterly*, 32(3), 367-378.
- Develtere, P., & De Bruyn, T. (2009). The emergence of a fourth pillar in development aid. *Development in Practice*, 19(7), 912-922.
- Donnelly, P., Atkinson, M., Boyle, S., & Szto, C. (2011). Sport for Development and Peace: a public sociology perspective. *Third World Quarterly*, 32(3), 589-601.
- Elster, J. (1998). A plea for mechanisms. In P. Hedstroem & R. Swedberg (Eds.), *Social mechanisms: An analytical approach to social theory* (pp. 45-73). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- European Parliament. (2005). *European Parliament resolution on development and sport. P6_TA(2005)0464*. Brussels: the Author.
- FIFA. (2005). *Football can change the world*. Zurich, Switzerland: the Author.
- Funnell, S., & Rogers, P. (2011). *Purposeful program theory*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- George, A. L. (1979). Case studies and theory development: The method of structured, focused comparison. In P. Lauren (Ed.), *Diplomatic history: New approaches*. Free Press: New York.

- George, A. L., & Bennett, A. (2005). *Case studies and theory development in the social sciences*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Gilbert, K., & Bennett, W. (2012). *Sport, Peace, and Development*. Champaign, Illinois: Common Ground Pub. LLC.
- Giles, A. R., & Lynch, M. (2012). Postcolonial and Feminist Critiques of Sport for Development. In R. J. Schinke & S. J. Hanrahan (Eds.), *Sport for Development, Peace and Social Justice* (pp. 89-104). Morgantown, WV: Fitness Information Technology.
- Giulianotti, R. (2004). Human Rights, Globalization and Sentimental Education: The Case of Sport. *Sport in society*, 7(3), 355-369.
- Giulianotti, R. (2010). The Sport, Development and Peace Sector: A Model of Four Social Policy Domains. *Journal of Social Policy*, 40(4), 757-776.
- Guest, A. M. (2013). Sport Psychology for Development and Peace? Critical Reflections and Constructive Suggestions. *Journal of Sport Psychology in Action*, 4(3), 169-180.
- Harris, K., & Adams, A. (2016). Power and discourse in the politics of evidence in sport for development. *Sport Management Review*, 19(2), 97-106.
- Hartmann, D., & Kwauk, C. (2011). Sport and Development: An Overview, Critique, and Reconstruction. *Journal of Sport and Social Issues*, 35(3), 284-305.
- Hayhurst, L. M. C. (2009). The power to shape policy: charting sport for development and peace policy discourses. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 1(2), 203-227.
- Henry, I. (2015). *A research briefing as requested by the European Parliament's Committee on Culture and Education: The role of sport in fostering open and inclusive societies*. Brussels: the Author.
- Hershow, R., Gannett, K., Merrill, J., Kaufman, B. et al. (2015). Using soccer to build confidence and increase HCT uptake among adolescent girls: A mixed-methods study of an HIV prevention programme in South Africa. *Sport in society*, 18(8), 1009-1022.
- Hognestad, H., & Tollisen, A. (2004). Playing against deprivation: football and development in Nairobi, Kenya. In G. Armstrong & R. Giulianotti (Eds.), *Football in Africa* (pp. 210-226). Basingstoke: Palgrave.
- Hope, K. R. (2013). Implementing the Sector Wide Approach for Improved Aid and Development Effectiveness: Assessing the Swaziland Experience. *Perspectives on Global Development and Technology*, 12(5-6), 622-638.
- IOC. (2018). *Social development through sport*. Lausanne: the Author.
- Jeanes, R. (2013). Educating through sport? Examining HIV/AIDS education and sport-for-development through the perspectives of Zambian young people. *Sport, Education and Society*, 18(3), 388-406.
- Kay, T. (2009). Developing through sport: evidencing sport impacts on young people. *Sport in society*, 12(9), 1177-1191.
- Kidd, B. (2008). A new social movement: Sport for development and peace. *Sport in society*, 11(4), 370-380.
- Kidd, B. (2011). Cautions, Questions and Opportunities in Sport for Development and Peace. *Third World Quarterly*, 32(3), 603-609.
- Kruse, S. E. (2006). *Review of kicking AIDS out: Is sport an effective tool in the fight against HIV/AIDS? Report to NORAD*. Zambia: the Author.
- Langer, L. (2015). Sport for development – a systematic map of evidence from Africa. *South African Review of Sociology*, 46(1), 66-86.
- Levermore, R. (2008). Sport in International Development: Time to Treat it Seriously? *The Brown Journal of World Affairs*, 14(2), 55-66.
- Levermore, R. (2011). Evaluating sport-for-development: Approaches and critical issues. *Progress in Development Studies*, 11(4), 339-353.
- Lindsey, I. (2017). Governance in sport-for-development: Problems and possibilities of (not) learning from international development. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 52(7), 801-818.
- Lindsey, I., & Grattan, A. (2012). An ‘international movement’? Decentering sport-for-development within Zambian communities. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 4(1), 91-110.
- Mayntz, R. (2004). Mechanisms in the Analysis of Social Macro-Phenomena. *Philosophy of the Social Sciences*, 34(2), 237-259.

- Meier, M., & Saavedra, M. (2009). Esther Phiri and the Moutawakel effect in Zambia: an analysis of the use of female role models in sport-for-development. *Sport in society*, 12(9), 1158-1176.
- Mwaanga, O. (2010). Sport for addressing HIV/AIDS: Explaining our convictions. *Leisure Studies Association Newsletter*(85), 61-67.
- O'Brien, D. (2006). Event business leveraging The Sydney 2000 Olympic Games. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 33(1), 240-261.
- Oxford, S., & Spaaij, R. (2017). Critical pedagogy and power relations in sport for development and peace: lessons from Colombia. *Third World Thematics: A TWQ Journal*, 2(1), 102-116.
- Picciotto, R. (2015). Have development evaluators been fighting the last war...and if so, what is to be done? In B. Befani, B. Ramalingam, & E. Stern (Eds.), *Towards systemic approaches to evaluation and impact* (Vol. 46, pp. 6-16). Oxford: IDS Bulletin.
- Sanderson, I. (2000). Evaluation in complex policy systems. *Evaluation*, 6(4), 433-454.
- Schmitt, J., & Beach, D. (2015). The contribution of process tracing to theory-based evaluations of complex aid instruments. *Evaluation*, 21(4), 429-447.
- Schnitzer, M., Stephenson, M., Zanotti, L., & Stivachtis, Y. (2013). Theorizing the role of sport for development and peacebuilding. *Sport in society*, 16(5), 595-610.
- Schulenkorf, N. (2010). The roles and responsibilities of a change agent in sport event development projects. *Sport Management Review*, 13(2), 118-128.
- Schulenkorf, N. (2012). Sustainable community development through sport and events: A conceptual framework for Sport-for-Development projects. *Sport Management Review*, 15(1), 1-12.
- Smith, A. (2009). Spreading the positive effects of major events to peripheral areas. *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events*, 1(3), 231-246.
- Straume, S., & Hasselgård, A. (2014). 'They need to get the feeling that these are their ideas': trusteeship in Norwegian Sport for Development and Peace to Zimbabwe. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 6(1), 1-18.
- Svensson, P. G. (2017). Organizational hybridity: A conceptualization of how sport for development and peace organizations respond to divergent institutional demands. *Sport Management Review*, 20(5), 443-454.
- Svensson, P. G., & Hambrick, M. E. (2016). "Pick and choose our battles" – Understanding organizational capacity in a sport for development and peace organization. *Sport Management Review*, 19(2), 120-132.
- Swatuk, L. A., Motsholapheko, M. R., & Mazvimavi, D. (2011). A Political Ecology of Development in the Boteti River Region of Botswana: locating a place for sport. *Third World Quarterly*, 32(3), 453-475.
- United Nations. (2003). *Sport for Development and Peace: Towards Achieving the Millennium Development Goals - Report from the United Nations Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace*. Geneva: the Author.
- United Nations. (2015). *Transforming our world: The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*. New York: the Author.
- United Nations Evaluation Group. (2013). *Impact evaluation in UN Agency Evaluation Systems: Guidance on selection, planning and management*. New York: the Author.
- Welty Peachey, J., & Burton, L. (2017). Servant Leadership in Sport for Development and Peace: A Way Forward. *Quest*, 69(1), 125-139.