

CRITICALLY EXAMINING THE NORWEGIAN SPORT FOR DEVELOPMENT AND  
PEACE CONTEXT: PARTNERSHIPS AND POLICIES

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## ABSTRACT

This study examined the way in which the Norwegian Sport for Development and Peace (SDP) landscape was influenced by the partnerships and policies of five Norwegian organizations involved in SDP. Using multiple instrumental case studies and drawing on partnership and postcolonial theories, study findings showed how human rights advocacy and gender equality promotion were key policy imperatives shared amongst the Norwegian SDP actors. In particular, the results echoed how Norwegian SDP actors approached SDP from a ‘sport first’ perspective (Hasselgård, 2015), where the Norwegian SDP actors upheld the instrumental value of sport and sought to develop sport structures in the areas of operation. Further, the study demonstrated how the actors involved in Norwegian SDP mutually benefitted from the partnerships. For instance, the collaboration between the SDP actors allowed for certain organizations to gain access to funding opportunities where other actors developed organizational legitimacy and status as reputable development actors. The results of this study ultimately revealed how resource-dependency, legitimacy and reciprocity defined the relationships between partners in the Norwegian SDP landscape and how such relations informed the SDP actors’ key decisions concerning its involvement in SDP.

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**LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

<b>Acronym/Abbreviation</b>	<b>Term</b>
IDNSF	International Development department of a Norwegian Sport Federation
IOC	International Olympic Committee
NDA	Norwegian Development Agency
NDIR	Norwegian Department of International Relations
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NMAF	Norwegian Martial Art Federation
SDP	Sport for Development and Peace
UN	United Nations

## CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

The key objective is to basically try to give children, youngsters and especially women and girls the ability to attend [martial art] training. And in that way, help them to empower themselves, and give them something in their daily lives that they can master and something they can achieve and be proud of themselves. (Owen, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board member, December 2017)

The above excerpt is from an interview conducted with a member of a Norwegian Sport for Development and Peace (SDP) non-governmental organization (NGO). The quote offers insight on the way in which the Norwegian SDP NGO understood the potential for sport to address development and social goals. In particular, the Norwegian SDP NGO offered martial arts programming to children, youth and women with the belief that participation in recreational participants through developing opportunities for children and youth to learn and be involved in recreational sport.

The SDP ‘movement’ has advocated for the use of sport as a “vehicle for broad, sustainable social development” (Kidd, 2008, p. 370). In 2015, the United Nations (UN) acknowledged the “growing contribution of sport to the realization of development and peace,” specifically in achieving the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) that include: “[ensuring] healthy lives and [promoting] well-being for all at all ages; [ensuring] inclusive and quality education for all; and [achieving] gender equality and [empowering] all women and girls” (United Nations, 2015, p. 10). A plethora of entities have emerged since the UN adopted SDP as a part of its development agenda in 2001 (Sport for Development and Peace International

Working Group, 2008), including governments, intergovernmental agencies, NGOs, sport federations and researchers.

Norway has been involved in the realm of sport and development since the 1960s (Darnell et al., 2019). In particular, Norway's leadership in the SDP realm has been evident, particularly through the creation of the "world's first national strategy on SDP" (Hasselgård, 2015, p. 18) and Norway's broader history with foreign aid. The inclusion of sport within the Norwegian international development agenda surfaced in the early 1980s as the result of the formal establishment of a government department focused on providing foreign aid, along with a firm commitment to fund initiatives based upon mass participation rather than high performance (Straume & Steen-Johnsen, 2012).

Despite Norway's long-standing history of participation in SDP, the current SDP literature tends to ignore how partnerships among Norwegian actors involved in SDP inform the decisions and operations of Norwegian SDP. Furthermore, even fewer studies have explored the perspectives of the organizations responsible for implementing Norwegian SDP programs. Notwithstanding the small body of literature that has examined the 'donor-recipient' relationship between the Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sports (NIF) and the participants of its SDP programs (e.g., Straume & Hasselgård, 2014; Straume & Steen-Johnsen, 2012), there remain few studies that consider how interorganizational partnerships shape relationships among Norwegian SDP actors (i.e., governmental agencies, sport federations and grassroots level NGOs), and the ways in which each actor participated in the development and implementation of Norwegian SDP.

Therefore, the study herein addresses these lacunas in the literature by examining: (1) the nature of the partnerships among the Norwegian SDP actors; and (2) how Norwegian SDP

policies and programs were influenced by partnerships among the Norwegian SDP actors. In so doing, this study sought to capture the diverse objectives and approaches to development and Norwegian SDP and to investigate power dynamics within partnerships in influencing decisions made by each entity. The following research questions guided the study:

1. What do the Norwegian SDP actors see as their key policy imperatives?
2. How are incongruences in organizational values (e.g., in relation to top-down/bottom-up approaches; mass participation/high performance focused actors) among Norwegian SDP partners negotiated?
3. What is the nature of the partnerships among these actors?

This research focused on the experiences of the actors involved in Norwegian SDP, and draws from the data gathered from semi-structured interviews, document analysis, and field notes. While there has been growing scholarship that has critically examined partnerships within SDP (e.g., Black, 2017; Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010), few studies have investigated the collective and individual roles of the SDP actors involved in the Norwegian context, despite its position as a vital actor in the international SDP movement (see Darnell et al., 2019). This research therefore addressed these voids in the literature in order to contribute to a more nuanced understanding of Norwegian stakeholders and their influence on Norwegian SDP implementation.

## **1.1 Thesis Overview**

Following this introductory chapter, the remainder of the thesis is organized as follows. In Chapter Two, I examine the current state of SDP internationally, the tensions found in SDP, the state of SDP in Norway, and the theoretical frameworks used to inform my analysis, including postcolonial theory (see McEwan, 2009) and partnership theory (see Oliver, 1990).

In Chapter Three, I discuss the methods used and its significance to the study. First, the use of multiple instrumental case studies and similar methods in the body of literature is reviewed. Then, the research site and an overview of the Norwegian SDP organizations of interest are given, followed by a discussion of the sampling and recruitment strategies employed. Next, I outline the multiple instrumental case study approach and the key methods of data collection used, including semi-structured interviews, document collection, and field notes. Finally, I review the data analysis process and review the steps taken to secure ethical approval and confidentiality. I then discuss reflexivity, my social position and the limitations of this research.

In Chapter Four, I present the key findings of this research, organized according to the research questions that guided this study, including: 1) the shared policy imperatives of the Norwegian SDP actors; 2) the differences in organizational values and practices; and 3) the varying motivations for the development of partnerships.

In Chapter Five, I discuss the findings of this research in relation to the body of scholarship on interorganizational relations among SDP actors, tensions between partnering SDP actors, and the challenges involved in conceptualizing SDP. The thesis concludes in Chapter Six with an overview of the key ideas outlined in the study, the strengths and limitations, and practical reflections and considerations for future research.

## **CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

This section reviews the literature on the current state of the SDP movement – both internationally and in Norway. In particular, this section focuses on the research conducted on

partnerships between organizations working in the realm of SDP, key tensions in the landscape of SDP, and the use of partnership and postcolonial theories in this study.

## **2.1 Current international SDP landscape**

Over the past fifteen years, a wide array of SDP scholarship has critically evaluated the utility of sport in achieving international development objectives (see Coalter, 2010; Kidd, 2008). Participation in sport has been advocated as a panacea for the issues related to disadvantaged communities in the global South and global North<sup>1</sup> as demonstrated by the inclusion of development goals set by the United Nations (e.g., the 2000-2015 Millennium Development Goals; the 2015-2030 SDGs). As a response to the swift onrush of interest in the SDP movement, scholars and researchers have critically examined the ways in which the “messianic claims” (Kidd, 2011, p. 605) of development – in addition to the methods used to achieve these claims – have often been oversimplified and understudied. A number of issues have surfaced; namely, the neoliberal and modernizing tendencies and agendas of many organizations (see Levermore & Beacom, 2009; Rizvi, 2006; Sam & Jackson, 2015), particularly in their view of sport as a tool used to “transform, or give the perception of transformation, of backward societies into more modern, civilized and unified ones” (Levermore & Beacom, 2009, p. 29).

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<sup>1</sup> Throughout this thesis, I used the terms ‘Global South’ intentionally so as to avoid the victimization and homogenization that results when terminology such as ‘developing world’ or the ‘Third World’ is used (McEwan, 2001). In doing so, I acknowledge that poverty and inequality are not limited to the ‘developing world’ but also exists in the ‘developed world’ (McEwan, 2009). In light of this, I concur with Rigg (2007) when he writes of the utilization of the term, ‘Global South’, as a reminder that “both North and South are, together, drawn into global processes” (p. 3) and that “conditions in the Global South are only understandable when they are set against those in the global North” (p. 5).

In light of this, SDP scholarship has offered a multitude of perspectives to ‘mature’ the field, including but not limited to: 1) pointing to the distinction between elite-focused and mass participation-driven sport programming (i.e., sport development versus sport for development – see Kidd, 2008); 2) underlining the varying roles of top-down and bottom-up actors and the relationship among the two (see Black, 2017; Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010); and 3) highlighting the importance of prioritizing the perspectives of targeted beneficiaries in SDP research (see Darnell & Hayhurst, 2012; Guest, 2009; Kidd, 2008). To further consider these issues, in the section below, I explore: 1) the key tensions in the realm of SDP with a specific eye to sport development vs. sport for development; 2) recent SDP scholarship in relation to the Norwegian SDP landscape; 3) research on partnerships in SDP; and 4) the relevance and use of partnership and postcolonial theories in this study.

## **2.2 Sport Development vs. Sport for Development**

Where sport development initiatives have ideologically been based upon high performance and elite athletics, sport *for* development programs have sought to engage participants who have not already taken part in sport and has therefore been unconcerned with organized athletic training and competition (Kidd, 2008). The distinction between the two is fundamental to the SDP field because sport development initiatives have a long history of being broadly categorized under sport *for* development work (see Coalter, 2010). Thus, differentiating the two concepts has unveiled often divergent priorities and objectives set by SDP actors.

Sport development initiatives have been critiqued for enabling opportunities for the poaching of elite athletes (Andreff, 2007; Thibault, 2009) and using athletes as symbols of prestige, power and legitimacy in the realm of international relations (Ronglan, 2015).

Ultimately, sport development-based programs have privileged elite athletes and coaches in the

pursuit for high performance to the neglect of the mass majority of people who have had very few opportunities to participate in sport (Kidd, 2008).

In addition to the ongoing debate and tensions pertaining to sport development and sport for development, Kidd (2008) emphasized the importance of recognizing that participation in sport has not necessarily always achieved ‘development.’ That is, just as there are a number of advocates who point to the benefits of utilizing sport in development initiatives (e.g., sport as a tool for fostering peace, building self-esteem, and increasing wellbeing), Donnelly (2008) argued that the opposite of each ‘benefit’ of sport is equally as true. Therefore, the position of this research aligned with Darnell and Hayhurst (2011, p. 193) in suggesting that “it is reasonable to conclude that sport is socially and politically ‘malleable’ to the extent that it can be utilized to support various approaches to, and understandings of, development initiatives and politics.” Since development goals have been noted as being contextual and specific to societal and cultural terms, it would indeed be oversimplified to describe sport participation as being a panacea in addressing such a widespread and all-encompassing set of societal issues (Coalter, 2010; Kidd, 2011).

The abovementioned issues have exhibited the gradual blurring between sport development and sport for development, particularly in light of the recent closure of the United Nations Office on Sport for Development and Peace (UNOSDP). In response to this event in 2017, a partnership was formed between the UN and the International Olympic Committee (IOC) – replacing the UNOSDP with a “more streamlined approach” (International Olympic Committee, 2017) to SDP work. Thus, the time is ripe to consider the key principles upon which the Olympic organization is based, namely its primary devotion to elite-level athletics within the “global sporting arms race” (Oakley & Green, 2001, p. 83). Indeed, the implications of the

IOC's recent governance over the SDP movement holds the potential to significantly alter the trajectory of future SDP policies and programs to focus more squarely on the neo-liberal development of elite sport within the global South rather than to uphold the values of social and community development (Darnell, 2012). This study therefore investigated how politics and partnerships shaped the way that Norwegian SDP was understood and deployed, especially among high performance organizations and more social-justice, community-oriented entities in the Norwegian SDP landscape.

The partnership between the IOC and the UN has not only highlighted the possibility of a shift in focus from mass participation to high performance, it has also demonstrated the wide array of actors and associated agendas involved in SDP. In the field of SDP, the involvement of governments, intergovernmental organizations and NGOs, sport federations, and corporate sponsors has led to a wide range of definitions regarding what 'development' is and an even broader set of methods that explore how to achieve developmental goals (Black, 2010). The diversity in the different schools of thought often resulted in the representation of top-down and bottom-up methodologies as being opposing coalitions.

Where top-down approaches have often been far removed from targeted beneficiaries and have advocated for 'development' without addressing structural and contextual issues, bottom-up methods have frequently focussed on attending to the roots of oppression by working alongside local marginalized communities (Black, 2017). For example, Right To Play was previously known as an organization that has adopted a top-down approach as their projects are largely funded by operations based in the North and the work conducted 'on the ground' has historically neglected the input from its targeted beneficiaries (Guest, 2009). While much of the literature on SDP warns of issues associated with top-down control (e.g., the furthering of neocolonial

tendencies) (see Darnell, 2010), emerging literature has highlighted the importance of a pluralistic approach to SDP (see Black, 2017). That is, neither top-down nor bottom-up methods have been sufficient to singlehandedly achieve development goals (see Black, 2010), and neither orientations will simply disappear from the realm of international development. Therefore, Black (2017) noted how such seemingly opposing approaches have developed methods to cooperate and interact with one another to be mutually beneficial – although asymmetrically.

### **2.3 Current SDP landscape in Norway**

Norway has played a longstanding role in the realm of SDP dating back to the 1980s (see Levermore, 2008; Straume, 2013). Straume and Steen-Johnsen (2012) described how the inclusion of sport programming within Norwegian international development was a result of three historical events: first, the establishment of the Norwegian Ministry of Development Cooperation in 1984 allowed for Norway to broadly focus on development aid. Second, the promotion of ‘sport for all’ throughout Europe (see Bergsgard et al., 2007; Council of Europe, 1976) positioned sport participation as a hopeful initiative to tackle issues of inequality. Third, the IOC’s adoption of Olympic Solidarity in 1973 acted as an invitation for governments to catch a glimpse of the ways in which sport development aid projects were initiated and managed. At the intersection of the three phenomena, Norway introduced Sport for All in 1984, a program tasked to assist the establishment of local sport systems in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. Norway has since taken part in more than 15 SDP projects across the globe, including initiatives located in Afghanistan, Zambia, and Zimbabwe (Hasselgård, 2015).

Norway has been affiliated with the Council of Europe (COE) since its establishment as a human rights-focused organization in 1949. Norway’s commitment to ‘sport for all,’ as formulated by the COE in 1966, distinguished its approach among other SDP programs

(Bergsgard et al., 2007). The concept of ‘sport for all’ was designed to promote participation in sport among the masses by recognizing involvement in sport as a fundamental human right (COE, 1992). From the outset of SDP implementation, Norwegian policies have distinctly opposed ‘sport development’ based programs, where the focus has been predominantly on athletic performance (Hasselgård, 2015). On the contrary, nascent Norwegian SDP actors claimed to be centered on mass participation and therefore prioritized grassroots initiatives despite the integral role of high-performance organizations (such as the Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sport) in Norwegian SDP policy development and implementation (see Straume & Steen-Johnsen, 2013). Indeed, and as examined by Darnell et al., (2019), sport participation was perceived as an extension of health and social development in Norway – and therefore, the sport-for-all approach in Norwegian SDP policies and efforts aimed to expand on similar ideas by creating more opportunities for individuals and communities to gain access to sport.

Since the establishment of Norway’s first SDP project in Tanzania in 1983, the Norwegian government has brought forth a “heterogeneous group of actors” (Hasselgård, 2015, p. 2) committed to the Norwegian development aid system (i.e., the combination between government agencies, sport federations and NGOs), and a set of Norwegian sport policies that have advocated for Norway’s participation in SDP (see NDIR, 2005; IDNSF, 2011). In 2005, the Norwegian government formally adopted international development policies grounded in the concept of SDP by creating the *Strategy for Norway’s Culture and Sports Cooperation with Countries in the South* (Hasselgård, 2015). Prior to this, sport-related development aid programs were commissioned by the policy objectives set by the Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sport (NIF) and funded by the Norwegian Development

Cooperation (NORAD). Through the Strategy, the Norwegian government aligned with the UN's goal to adopt sport to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (Hasselgård, 2015).

According to Hasselgård (2015), the Norwegian model of SDP did not provide financial support for initiatives that focused on sport development methods such as talent identification, branding through sport celebrities, or the hosting of large mega-sports events. Instead, only SDP activities that shared the goal of providing 'sport for all' were financed by the Norwegian government (Skille, 2011). The Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sport (NIF) is an example of an organization funded by Norway for the purpose of SDP. While NIF has been associated with elements of commercialism and high-performance sport, Hasselgård (2015) pointed to the ways the funding organizations upheld methods of monitoring and evaluation to ensure that the organizations followed a focus on using and encouraging mass-participation, recreational sport.

Despite Norway's commitment to promote mass participation in sport through 'sport for all' (see Darnell et al., 2019; Skille 2011; Straume, 2012), the literature has also emphasized the appeal of high-performance sport in attaining international recognition for small nation-states like Norway (Sam & Jackson, 2015). For example, Coakley (2011) described the ways in which nations have taken part in the process of spreading neoliberal ideologies by developing elite sport policies to participate in the Olympic Games. Athletic success in the Olympic Games has traditionally acted as a representation of a nation-state's prestige and power and has been used to achieve both sport-related objectives as well as diplomatic goals (Houlihan & Zheng, 2015). Further, research in Norway has demonstrated how the 'sport-for-all' approach that was originally intended to promote a culture of egalitarianism was overshadowed by values of competitiveness and performance-focused goals (see Skille, 2011). To this end, this research

illuminated the values of Norwegian SDP actors and investigated the ways in which high-performance based stakeholders negotiated tensions between its affiliation with elite sport policies and its advocacy for mass participation.

## **2.4 Partnership Theory**

Although equitable partnerships between top-down and bottom-up actors would be ideal to provide mutual benefit, it has often been the case where “the terms ‘cooperation,’ ‘collaboration,’ and ‘coordination’ are sprinkled liberally,” (Gordenker, 1995, p. 553) and have been founded on the terms of the more well-established top-down actors. Partnership theory stemmed from the study of industrial organizations and has pointed to the ways in which actors have regularly formed partnerships to lighten the financial burden and to pool resources (Das & Teng, 2000). When equal interdependent partnerships cannot be formed, those who could afford to financially support the partnership frequently limited the autonomy of the weaker partner. This was demonstrated in Hayhurst and Frisby’s (2010) study of SDP NGOs and their respective funders which emphasized the power imbalance evident in such relationships. In their study, the SDP NGOs relied on their partnership with their respective national sport federations in order to gain legitimacy and access to resources to further its own SDP agenda. One of the key takeaway issues highlighted by Hayhurst and Frisby (2010) was how the SDP NGOs relinquished their identity as SDP actors in the process of being subsumed under the funding (and control) of its sport federation partners.

Another perspective that has enriched the understanding of the coupling between top-down and bottom-up actors has been Black’s (2017, p. 8) view of partnerships as being unequally symbiotic, “with top-down actors and interests routinely predominating.” Even so, Black (2017, p. 8) described the importance of recognizing that both ‘sides’ have needed one

another: where top-down SDP actors (i.e., corporate sponsors, sport federations) have required a “threadbare antidote to the evidence of growing wealth, elitism ... and corruption that has challenged their ‘brand’ and their legitimacy,” bottom-up actors have gained the publicity and economic support required to provide ongoing work.

The study of interorganizational relations has well described the different motivations for organizations to establish partnerships (see Oliver, 1990; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). According to Oliver (1990), interorganizational relations are used to explain patterns of interaction among organizations. Relations such as stability, legitimacy and reciprocity were of particular interest in this study. The process of studying and examining the details and the driving forces of particular organizations in developing partnerships ultimately aided in understanding how such relations informed the power dynamics between partners.

On the topic of stability, organizations that seek stability in partnerships often strive for potential partners that have available resources to share and are able to grant access to patterns deemed familiar to the recipients (Oliver, 1990). Indeed, resource dependency has been a well-documented outcome when partnerships have formed (see Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). According to Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) resource dependency refers to the ways in which recipient organizations rely on funders to continually provide resources to support the recipients’ ongoing efforts. Further, Oliver (1990) explained how the enhancement of organizational legitimacy has been a significant motivation for organizations to connect. Similarly, Oliver (1990, p. 246) recognized the desire for organizations to form relationships to “demonstrate or improve its reputation, image, prestige or congruence with prevailing norms in its institutional environment.” According to Suchman (1995), organizations that were deemed legitimate were also considered desirable and worthy of support. Thus, establishing partnerships to gain legitimacy (and

consequently, potential funding opportunities and support) was a topic worthy of further investigation.

Partnerships between development organizations often established on the basis of reciprocity to emphasize cooperation, collaboration and mutual benefit (Oliver, 1990). SDP scholars have also mentioned a high degree of interdependence between partners – particularly between top-down and bottom-up oriented actors (see Black, 2017). While reciprocity has been sought out, examples in Hayhurst and Frisby’s (2010) study aligned with Guo and Acar’s (2005) findings on how organizational reciprocity exists as a continuum. As the authors suggested, one extreme of the ‘reciprocity continuum’ is a “simple one-time transaction in which one organization exchanges something with the other; at the other end is the full legal merger of the two organizations” (Guo & Acar, 2005, p. 343). As demonstrated by the literature, the cost of partnership can ultimately mean the overshadowing and relinquishing of key values and identities of weaker partners, to the benefit of partners with more power and resources.

Ultimately, current research on SDP actors has called for the development of a “strong coalition of SDP organizations [to establish a] greater degree of ‘critical distance’ from the top-down organizations with which [bottom-up actors] have aligned” (Black, 2017, p. 12). In so doing, bottom-up actors will be more adapted to preserve their autonomy and values while supporting one another in their respective roles in SDP. In light of this background, it is an important moment to examine the ways in which partnerships in Norwegian SDP have been lived out, and how incongruences in key policy imperatives have been negotiated between seemingly opposing orientations to SDP.

## 2.5 Postcolonial Theory

‘Development’ has “frequently implied major changes to, and ultimately the destruction of, long-standing communities, social relations, and ways of life” (Black, 2010, p. 123). Indeed, the use of sport in the process of colonization to ‘develop’ and ‘civilize’ individuals and societies has exhibited the ways in which sport has historically hid under the guise of ‘development’ (Kidd, 2008). This phenomenon has been demonstrated in instances such as the advocacy for Olympism as a universal ideology in colonial Africa (see Guest, 2009). In the postcolonial context, scholars have critiqued recent SDP programs for making “little sense to the recipient communities” (Kidd, 2008, p. 377) and reiterating neocolonial understandings of power and knowledge. Thus, academics have responded by emphasizing the need for critical perspectives in order to decolonize and avoid reproducing neocolonial understandings of power relations between SDP initiatives and the targeted beneficiaries (e.g., Darnell, 2010; Darnell & Hayhurst, 2011; Kidd, 2008). Indeed, a key method of decolonizing has been the inclusion of targeted beneficiaries in making key decisions surrounding SDP activities (see Hayhurst, 2014; Straume & Hasselgård, 2014).

This study was guided by postcolonial theory due to the historical account of the role of sport in colonization. A postcolonial perspective was used to situate development work as being “*after colonialism*” (McEwan, 2001, p. 17, emphasis included), while also having addressed the ways in which “colonial powers produce[d] and use[d] the knowledge of colonized peoples in their own interests and how these knowledges continue to structure inequitable relations between the formerly colonized and colonizers” (p. 23). Thus, postcolonialism has gestured towards decolonization by examining the relationships of power and knowledge between entities through language and representation. Additionally, the postcolonial perspective has positioned the

underprivileged at the forefront of the investigation by questioning “how power relations play a crucial role in the process of social construction” (Hayhurst, 2009, p. 212).

A number of studies have demonstrated the ways in which sport has been – and continues to be – used to further the neoliberal, modernizing and neocolonial agendas of the global North (Darnell & Hayhurst, 2012; Guest, 2009; Kidd, 2008; Rizvi, 2006). A postcolonial framework has usefully attended to these issues by acting as a departure point through which to critically consider the “contestation of colonial domination and the legacies of colonialism” (Loomba, 1998, p. 1106). In the context of this particular study, a postcolonial framework was helpful for enabling me to contextualize the broader structural issues experienced disadvantaged communities in the global South, where the SDP NGO implemented its programs. Though I did not focus on the implementation of SDP programming per se, nor did I interview program beneficiaries or participants, a postcolonial lens remained crucial for keeping (neo)colonial relations of aid in view, and for maintaining focus on the often damaging impacts of unequal partnerships between entities formed in the name of aid vis-à-vis SDP. Along these lines, SDP scholars (e.g., Darnell & Kaur, 2015; Hayhurst, 2010) have used postcolonial theory to attend to the wide range of power relations found in development programs in order to “re-think and re-practic[e] the politics of development in support of decolonization” (Darnell & Hayhurst, 2011, p. 193). Indeed, Darnell and Kaur’s (2015) study on the ways that contemporary SDP initiatives situate participants as sponges that simply ‘absorbed’ development interventions (i.e., sport programs) is especially useful for recognizing how SDP programs often position beneficiaries as ‘grateful recipients’. In turn, a postcolonial perspective also highlights that ‘beneficiaries’ of (sport for) development programs are not as “easily malleable, lacking in agency or devoid of

complexity” (Darnell & Kaur, 2015, p. 7) as funders, donors and project implementers might presume.

Thus, a postcolonial theoretical framework was useful for critically investigating the SDP landscape in Norway and in the contexts where Norwegian actors fund SDP programs (i.e., areas of operation). Postcolonial theory was used in the study to foreground and expose the potential for neocolonial agendas that have often been associated with SDP initiatives focused on high performance through top-down methods (Donnelly, 2008). Donnelly (2008, p. 36) described how high performance-based programs and top-down approaches in SDP can be perceived as “neocolonialist” due to ways in which Western notions of elite athletics, coaching and sport management have been positioned as “appropriate for all countries, and that the West has nothing to learn from non-Western nations.” Thus, while the perspectives of the targeted beneficiaries of the Norwegian SDP efforts were not included in the data gathered, and the results demonstrated that the Norwegian SDP actors solely focused on mass-participation sport, postcolonial theory remains central for better understanding how Norwegian SDP actors possibly upheld neocolonial tendencies. Further, postcolonial theory was used to texture my examination of power relations among Norwegian SDP actors – especially as it related to the partnership between a Norwegian SDP organization and a local Southern SDP program. In other words, postcolonial theory was useful for better understanding how interviewees (i.e., staff) from the NDIR, NDA, IDNSF and the Norwegian SDP NGO actively resisted, reshaped and/or gave meaning to the SDP activities and priorities set by the entities involved in this research.

In the field of Norwegian sport and development, there are a number of entities that continue to promote high performance sport, work in a top-down manner, and continue to further neocolonial and neoliberal agendas, all of which has been done in the name of ‘development’

(Hasselgård, 2015). It is within this context that this study examined the partnerships and practices of Norwegian SDP actors to gain a better understanding of the role of Norwegian SDP actors and their influence on the Norwegian SDP landscape.

### **CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY**

This chapter discusses the methods used and its significance to the study. This chapter is organized into eight broad sections. First, I briefly present previous methodologies used in similar bodies of research and the rationale for the case study method adopted in this study. Further, I describe the research site and outline the Norwegian SDP organizations of interest to this study. I then discuss the sample and recruitment strategies employed and explain the methods of data collection, including document analysis, interviews, and field notes. Finally, I explain the process of data analysis, ethical approval and confidentiality, my role as the researcher, and the limitations of my research and outline ethical considerations that arose.

#### **3.0 Introduction**

Exploring the interconnections between sport, development, and peace is no longer a new area of research (Kidd, 2011). Within the last fifteen years, a number of scholars have called for a critical approach to studying SDP while also suggesting theory development be used to inform SDP practice (Kidd, 2008; Wilson, 2014). For instance, there has been a wide array of research unpacking and challenging potential neoliberal and neocolonial agendas unleashed by SDP (see Darnell & Hayhurst, 2012; Giulianotti, 2011). Of particular interest to the study herein has been literature that contests the issue of top-down control exhibited by development organization by adopting methodologies premised on the expressed needs of the local population and associated organizations (Darnell & Hayhurst, 2013; Kidd, 2008; 2011). That is, according to the body of

scholarship, top-down approaches to development (re)produce tensions with grassroots partners (see Black, 2017), establish conflict between organizations with opposing goals (see Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010), and perpetuate neocolonial legacies (see Darnell & Kaur, 2015).

Case studies have been widely used to investigate varying power relations among organizations in SDP research. For example, the case study approach has been applied to address the issues of top-down control by shedding light on the perspectives of those who are subject to control and therefore, calls for change. For instance, Hayhurst and Frisby (2010) used multiple instrumental case studies to examine the relations among partnering SDP organizations and to demonstrate how tensions emerged between the SDP actors. The case study approach often involves the use of multiple sources of information, including (but not limited to) interviews, document collection, participant observations (see Yin, 2003). Hayhurst and Frisby (2010) also utilized interviews and content analysis as part of this approach, whereby each SDP NGO was represented as a case. The case study approach enabled the researchers to gain key insights as to how the goals and priorities of the organizations in the study were largely donor-defined, and how the dependence on resources led the recipient entities to relinquish organizational imperatives and adopt the donor's priorities (Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010). Thus, the case study approach provided an opportunity for members of the recipient organization to voice their experiences and challenges and to collaborate with the researcher in the process of further understanding the dynamics within the partnerships.

In a similar vein, this study adopted the multiple instrumental case studies approach to examine the organizational imperatives of the Norwegian SDP actors, the nature of the partnerships between these actors, and the ways in which incongruences between entities were

(or were not) negotiated. In the section below, I provide a rationale for the study and describe the methods used in further detail.

### **3.1 Multiple Case Studies – Rationale**

The objective of this study was to address the void in scholarship regarding how SDP has been taken up and deployed in Norway by examining: 1) the key policy imperatives of the actors that have occupied the Norwegian SDP space; 2) how incongruences in organizational values and tensions within the partnerships were negotiated; and 3) the nature of the partnerships among the Norwegian SDP actors. To pursue these objectives, multiple instrumental case studies were used.

According to Stake (1995), an instrumental case study enables the researcher to gain deep insights of a distinct social phenomenon by examining patterns of behaviour. Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 25) describe the case as being the unit of analysis, or a phenomenon occurring in a “bounded context.” In previous works, multiple case studies allowed researchers to analyze data within cases and between cases, whereas single case studies were only able to provide information on a specific phenomenon (Yin, 2003). Baxter and Jack (2008) also noted how multiple case studies were used to understand the similarities, differences and the interplay between cases to engage in a broader understanding of the phenomenon presented. Further, the decision to adopt the multiple case studies approach was due in large part to the ability to deal with a wide array of evidence (e.g., interviews, document collection and analysis – see Yin, 2003).

In other SDP scholarship, multiple case studies have been used to provide a deeper analysis in and between cases (Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010). For example, Hayhurst and Frisby (2010) explored the tensions between Swiss and Canadian NGOs through collecting and

analyzing content from the respective organizations' websites and conducting interviews with representatives from each organization. The authors outline how the multiple case study approach was useful for: 1) pointing to the context in which organizations worked (e.g., history of the organizations, organizational imperatives and relations amongst partnering organizations according to members); and 2) providing a deeper understanding of each entity under examination (i.e., the SDP NGOs and their high-performance partners). Gartner-Manzon and Giles (2016) is another example of research that adopted a case study approach. In their research, Gartner-Manzon and Giles (2016) developed a case study focused on a sports, recreation and art program. The case study explored if and how such a program achieved its intended purpose of addressing high percentages of Aboriginal youth who were involved with the law, and a lack of Aboriginal athletic representation at sporting events. Frisby & Millar (2002) also implemented the case study approach to explore how community development initiatives designed to involve women living under the poverty line in sport and recreation. In so doing, Frisby and Millar (2002) outlined the nuances of how such initiatives were perceived by participants, and consequently, called for governments to address the concerns and issues raised by participants. Overall, through adopting the (multiple) case studies approach, researchers captured the complexities of day-to-day interactions within the developed cases. As such, the case studies provided an in-depth exploration of the social phenomena at hand, and have therefore largely informed the choice of methods used for the study herein.

Each Norwegian SDP actor in this study represented a bounded case and each case was developed primarily through the collection and analysis of semi-structured interviews, organizational documents and field notes. Semi-structured interviews were used to investigate the experiences and narratives of individuals who had previously worked for the various

Norwegian SDP actors. Documents that outlined the key policy imperatives of the Norwegian SDP actors were collected to further examine potential themes that emerged from the interviews. Field notes on participant observations were also collected for analysis and review to complement the data gathered through interviews and document collection. The analysis and inclusion of data from the collection of field notes

### **3.2 Research Site**

My interest in Norway's participation in SDP stemmed from my desire to combine my personal interest in a martial art with the belief that sport plays an important role in addressing social and development issues (e.g., gender inequality, human rights violations). I have participated competitively and recreationally in Judo for most of my life. I have also had the opportunity to teach Judo to children and youth at a sports club with a recreational, mass-participation focus. Thus, it seemed natural to begin my exploration of SDP searching for potential martial arts-focused SDP programs that aimed to achieve social and development goals. Through my research, I found that there was an SDP initiative that provided programming focused on martial arts, including Judo. The SDP program was developed by an NGO based in Norway and worked in countries in South Asia and Southern Africa. The SDP NGO's programs had widespread influence – particularly in motivating governing sporting bodies (i.e., the International Martial Art Federation and, by association, the IOC) to contribute to the SDP NGO's efforts and to begin planning for future involvement in SDP. The aim of the SDP NGO was to provide opportunities for individuals (particularly children and teenagers) to participate in a martial art program focused on addressing immediate concerns of inaccessibility to recreational, mass-participation sport, and deeper issues of gender inequality and human rights violations. From my research, I learned that the SDP NGO partnered with local schools,

orphanages and governing sporting bodies to: 1) develop the SDP programs; and 2) to establish a lasting focus on mass-participation sport in the areas of operation.

Delving deeper into Norway's participation in SDP, I learned about the government's longstanding history of commitment to SDP – through policy development and by funding Norwegian SDP actors (see IDNSF, 2005). I took note of key SDP actors, organizational structures and SDP policies developed by organizations involved in SDP. During this time, I also consulted literature on partnerships in SDP and became interested in the interorganizational relations between partnering SDP actors. The discussion between top-down and bottom-up approaches (see Black, 2017), as well as the debate between sport-development and sport-*for*-development orientations (see Kidd, 2011) was particularly relevant to my interest in the Norwegian SDP landscape. My preliminary research on the Norwegian SDP space outlined the potential for similar discussions, since the key Norwegian SDP actors appeared to adopt seemingly conflicting orientations to addressing development goals (e.g., top-down vs. bottom-up approaches). Further, I noticed how explorations of organizational partnerships in the Norwegian SDP context remain understudied. With a growing interest in understanding the nuances of interorganizational relations in SDP partnerships, I decided to reach out to the Norwegian SDP NGO members to briefly introduce myself. Following ethical approvals from the York University Human Participants Research Committee and the Norwegian Centre for Research Data, I commenced recruitment and sampling for this study.

Much of the data collection took place during my stay in Oslo, Norway from October 2017 to January 2018. In order to receive ethical approval from the Norwegian Centre for Research Data, I was required to work alongside the Norwegian School of Sport Sciences (NIH) under the supervision of Dr. Åse Strandbu. I was given access to a shared office space with other

graduate students at the NIH and was able to connect with my peers during seminars held by the NIH's graduate department. The seminars were opportunities for graduate students to present the status of their research projects to receive feedback from peers and academic mentors. Indeed, one of the advantages of studying locally was the fact that I was able to meet with the interview participants in person (see Opdenakker, 2008). At the initial stages of the study, I planned to meet with five organizations of interest, and the section below outlines the organizational backgrounds of the Norwegian SDP actors that were included in this study. All organizations and participants names in this study adopted pseudonyms in order to maintain confidentiality.

### ***3.2.1 Case Study Organizational Backgrounds***

#### ***The Norwegian Department of International Relations (NDIR).***

The Norwegian government integrated SDP into its agenda from 2005 to 2012 through the Norwegian Department of International Relations (NDIR). The NDIR's involvement in SDP was displayed through the development of an SDP-focused policy in 2005: *The Strategy for Norway's Culture and Sports Co-operation with Countries in the South*. In a similar vein, the NDIR's withdrawal of SDP from its development agenda was demonstrated in 2012, when sport-related activities were removed from the original policy and the government published a new policy: *The Government's International Cultural Engagement Part II: Strengthening the Cultural Sector in Developing Countries*. During its commitment to Norwegian SDP from 2005-2012, the NDIR was one of the key funders for Norwegian SDP actors. According to the data collected in this study, it was speculated that the NDIR adopted SDP in its development agenda to foster a sense of nationalism and to further develop the country's social image as a humanitarian aid actor. When public diplomacy goals were no longer sought after, the NDIR withdrew its commitment to SDP by overwriting the Strategy published in 2005.

*The Norwegian Development Agency (NDA).*

The Norwegian Development Agency (NDA) was the key Norwegian SDP funder after the NDIR removed SDP from its development agenda. Notably, the NDA was a subsidiary department under the management and direction of the NDIR. The NDA was responsible for overseeing all Norwegian development initiatives, including (but not limited to) organizations that focused on addressing climate change issues, initiatives that provided education where education was largely inaccessible, and programs that offered medical aid to areas with global health concerns (NDA, 2005). In this context, Norwegian SDP activities represented a niche and a novelty compared to the wide array of other Norwegian development initiatives that the NDA funded. According to the data gathered, the NDA believed that SDP would aid in promoting gender equality and human rights in areas of operation. However, since the NDA had a limited understanding of SDP work, the NDA occupied a quality assurance role instead of being actively involved in the day-to-day operations of Norwegian SDP. That is, the NDA had expectations for Norwegian SDP actors to address particular goals related to human rights advocacy and gender equality promotion. In this context, the NDA's role was to ensure that the SDP actors reached their prescribed goals (e.g., increased female participation in programs) in order to receive further funding (IDNSF, 2011). In other words, the NDA's position in Norwegian SDP was more about ensuring that the SDP actors achieved certain development goals, rather than focusing on how the SDP actors achieved such goals (Tory, personal communication, February 7, 2018).

The NDA's financial support to Norwegian SDP took the form of three-year funding agreements with the International Development department of a Norwegian Sport Federation (IDNSF). The IDNSF was the lead organization responsible for funding the vast majority of Norwegian SDP initiatives. This meant that the funding structure for many of the Norwegian

SDP projects and actors was streamlined and structured in a hierarchy, whereby the NDA funded the IDNSF, and in turn, the IDNSF funded the Norwegian SDP actors that applied and were deemed worthy of financial support. This organizational hierarchy ultimately created a system where the funders (e.g., the NDA and the IDNSF) had the power to dictate the selection criteria for potential Norwegian SDP organizations that required funding. Put differently, the funder-recipient relation created a power dynamic that often resulted in the favouring of the funder's interests and agendas – a topic that is further discussed in the results section (see pages 142-157).

***The International Development department of a Norwegian Sport Federation (IDNSF).***

The International Development department of a Norwegian Sport Federation (IDNSF) was a key Norwegian SDP actor. The organization was a department under a Norwegian sport federation, and was responsible for establishing, managing, and funding of Norwegian SDP initiatives. The Norwegian sport federation was an umbrella organization composed of many individual sport associations. This meant that the Norwegian sport federation was broadly responsible for overseeing sport domestically (i.e., administering recreational and high-performance sport in Norway) and internationally (i.e., through SDP commitments).

The IDNSF was first involved in SDP in the early 1960s where the focus of the SDP initiative was to provide equipment and sport programming to communities in an East African country. As the IDNSF gained experience in working in SDP, the organization shifted its focus from working directly with local communities and beneficiaries to working with local sport federations. The shift in targeted audience was informed by the belief that sport participation – in and of itself – would be able to address development goals such as human rights advocacy and gender equality promotion. Thus, the next step for the IDNSF was to work with local Southern

sport federations in order to develop structures to uphold systemic mass-participation, recreational sport. The IDNSF saw the sport federation as being the key actor responsible for maintaining both mass-participation and high-performance sport. Further, the IDNSF funded and worked with Norwegian SDP NGOs that often developed grassroots sport programs for local communities and trained members of the communities to become program leaders.

***The Norwegian Martial Art Federation (NMAF).***

The Norwegian Martial Art Federation (NMAF) was the governing body of the martial art in Norway – in both competitive and recreational aspects. The NMAF was mainly responsible for domestic club development, elite athlete training, and was a member under the Norwegian Olympic Committee and International Martial Art Federation. The NMAF had domestic and international influence in galvanizing support for the martial art – recreationally and competitively. Since the Norwegian SDP NGO's programs were focused on teaching the martial art that the NMAF was responsible for overseeing in Norway, the NMAF was involved in the promotion and advocacy of the SDP NGO's operations. Initially, I was under the impression that the NMAF had an active, 'hands-on' role within the Norwegian SDP space. However, after interviewing members from the Norwegian SDP NGO and the IDNSF, I learned that the NMAF neither played a role in decision-making nor participated in the Norwegian SDP NGO's activities 'on the ground.' Rather, the NMAF used its platform as the governing body for all Norwegian Martial Art clubs to increase awareness and to promote the activities of the Norwegian SDP NGO. Therefore, relative to the active and direct role of the IDNSF and the Norwegian SDP NGO, the NMAF did not play an integral role within the Norwegian SDP space.

***The Norwegian SDP NGO.***

The Norwegian SDP NGO was formed in 2002 to provide local children and youth with sport programming (Stephen, personal communication, December 8, 2017). In 2002, Stephen, one of the original members of the SDP NGO was working in a South Asian country for an extended period of time. Stephen was an active athlete and had a history of competitive and recreational participation in a martial art. During his tenure in the South Asian country, Stephen searched for a local martial art club and was able to find a small club that held practices. During the practices, Stephen noticed that there were no children involved. Stephen began building rapport with the members of the martial art club and encouraged the members to create opportunities for children to participate by offering to teach a children's class. Due to local cultural norms, Stephen was only permitted to include boys in the classes.

As the children's program grew, the adult members of the martial art club got more involved, and the need for female instructors emerged. Stephen reached out to his network of Norwegian martial art instructors and invited anyone interested in developing the martial art program in the South Asian country. Brooke was one of the instructors who reached out to volunteer with Stephen. In particular, Brooke's role as a female instructor was beneficial for supporting young women's participation in the martial art program. This further increased awareness of the program's goal to provide mass participation sport to local youth. The need for more instructors and leaders increased as the program grew in participants. To address this, Stephen and the team of volunteer Norwegian sport instructors led leadership training opportunities for the local martial art members.

The Norwegian SDP NGO was established to further develop the efforts of the martial art program in the South Asian country. The goal of the Norwegian SDP NGO was to ensure that mass-participation focused martial art programming would be available and accessible to locals

(Norwegian SDP NGO, 2019). In so doing, the Norwegian SDP NGO aimed to challenge cultural understandings of gender norms and to promote the right for all individuals to access and participate in sport. In order to do this, the SDP NGO worked to train local martial art leaders (e.g., coaches, mentors) such that the program and the efforts would remain native to the community. A group of volunteers actively involved in the Norwegian martial art community got together to formally establish the Norwegian SDP NGO and began applying for funding, creating partnerships with other Norwegian SDP funders, and developing a model to lead the SDP efforts in the South Asian Country (Norwegian SDP NGO, 2019).

Initially, the SDP NGO applied and received funding directly from the NDA. However, at the time of the interviews, the NDA's streamlined approach to funding SDP was adopted. That is, the Norwegian SDP NGO was required to apply for funding through the IDNSF in order to be eligible for future funding support. As the South Asian program developed, the SDP NGO began similar efforts in East Africa. Attention towards the Norwegian SDP NGO's initiative grew – so much so that the international governing body for the martial art introduced similar programs in its portfolio of participation in SDP initiatives. Figure 1.0 outlines below the relationships described above.

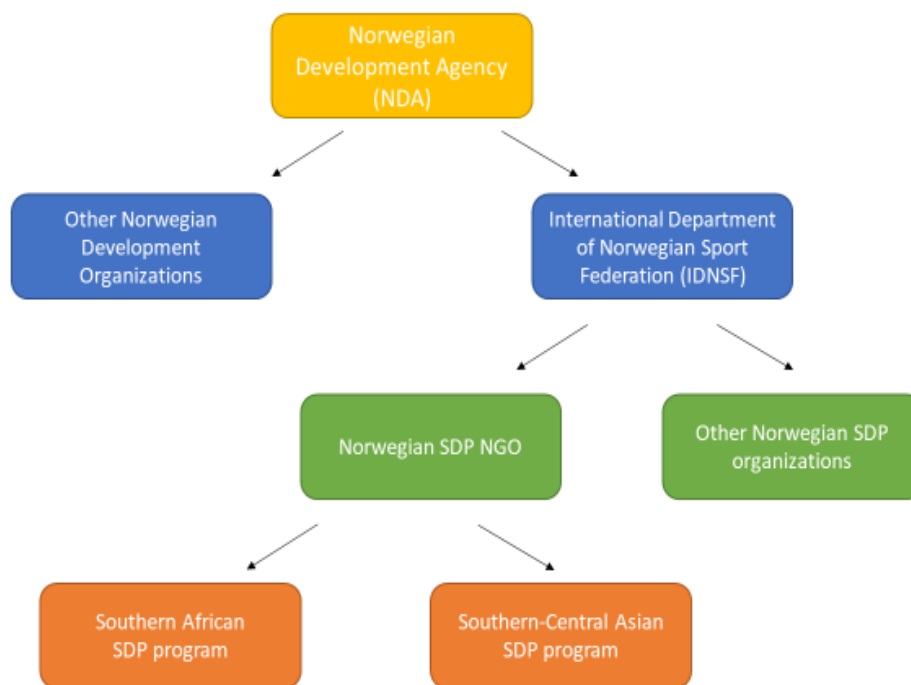


Figure 1.0 – the flow of monetary funding from donor to recipient.

### 3.3 Sample and Recruitment

The sampling and recruitment process began once I secured ethics approval from York University and the Norwegian Centre for Research Data in November 2017. Once I received ethical approval, I reached out to the Norwegian SDP NGO to learn more about its SDP work. The Norwegian SDP's focus on providing martial art programs for youth and children was of great interest to me since I have been involved both competitively and recreationally with the same martial art throughout my life. I was especially interested in how this particular martial art could potentially act as a medium to advocate for social issues and to address development goals such as promoting gender equality and creating opportunities for children to participate in sport. Owen, one of the board members of the Norwegian SDP NGO, replied to my messages and

further detailed the SDP NGO's involvement in multiple projects across the globe and its relationship with its Norwegian SDP partners. As Owen and I developed a stronger rapport through connecting about the role of sport in addressing social and development goals, I asked him if he would be comfortable with being interviewed for this study. Owen acted as a gatekeeper and offered to reach out to the rest of the board members of the Norwegian SDP NGO to be involved in the study and, within two weeks, responded by noting that five other members would be glad to volunteer as interview participants. According to Clark (2011), a gatekeeper is an actor within the research process that acts as an intermediary between researchers and participants. Further, Corra and Willer (2002) describe the gatekeeper as a party that has access to benefits that the researcher does not ordinarily have access to. Thus, in the context of this study, Owen acted as a gatekeeper between the Norwegian SDP NGO members and I.

Upon confirming that the Norwegian SDP NGO members were indeed interested in participating in the study, I started to explore the varying partnerships and organizations that were associated with the SDP NGO and more broadly, Norwegian SDP. The organizations that were of interest were key decision-makers in the Norwegian SDP space or had direct influence on the activities of the Norwegian SDP NGO (i.e., funders, policy-makers). The partner organizations included the Norwegian Department of International Relations (NDIR), the Norwegian Development Agency (NDA), and the International Development department of a Norwegian Sport Federation (IDNSF).

Snowball sampling was integral to sampling and recruitment process. That is, the ability to access a multitude of participants and documents was largely granted through referral from

interview participants (see Noy, 2008). Indeed, many of the introductory e-mails used to invite individuals to participate in this study were left unanswered, which was a finding that aligned with the literature (see Harvey, 2010). According to the literature, gaining access to interviews has been one of the key challenges associated with conducting interviews with government officials and other ‘elites’ (Mikecz, 2012). In other words, the research process hinges on the willingness of respondents to answer to the call to interview. Thus, strategies such as building rapport and gaining trust prior to interviewing have been encouraged (Harvey, 2010); however, the extensive amount of resources and time required to adopt such strategies were beyond the scope of the study herein. The process of sampling and recruiting is outlined further in Appendix F.

<b>Organization</b>	<b>Name</b>	<b>Position</b>	<b>Location</b>
NDA	Tory	Adviser	Skype
NDIR	Evan	Retired member	Phone call
IDNSF	Ben	Manager	In-person
IDNSF	Frank	Adviser	In-person
NMAF	Liz	Adviser	In-person
Norwegian SDP NGO	Stephen	Former Board Member	Skype
Norwegian SDP NGO	Brooke	Board Member	Skype
Norwegian SDP NGO	Isabel	Board Member	Skype
Norwegian SDP NGO	Oliver	Board Member	In-person

Norwegian SDP NGO	Owen	Board Member	Skype
Norwegian SDP NGO	Thomas	Board Member	In-person

*Table 1.0 Participant chart*

### **3.4 Data Collection**

The section below outlines the details associated with the data collection process of this study. In particular, the section below expands on the methods used to build each case study. The methods include semi-structured interviews, document collection and analysis, and field notes collection.

#### ***3.4.1 Semi-structured interviews***

In-depth, semi-structured interviews were used as a method of qualitative inquiry in this study. According to Smith and Sparkes (2016, p. 107) interviewing is an “occasion for conversation” whereby the process can provide complex and detailed insight into the nuances of the interviewee’s decisions, values and experiences. Hermanowicz (2002, p. 480) encourages interviewers to be “more forward, direct, candid and adventuresome in ways that show the flesh of the people behind all of the garments they wear in everyday social life.” In so doing, Hermanowicz (2002, p. 481) recognizes semi-structured interviews as a method that “bring[s] us [researcher and participant] closer than many other methods to an intimate understanding of people and their social worlds.”

Smith and Sparkes (2016) outline different forms of interviews conducted in the body of qualitative research that have been used in this study, namely, telephone, online, and individual (i.e., face-to-face) semi-structured interviews. Telephone and online (Skype) interviews were conducted when the interviewees were otherwise unable to meet in person – often times because

the participants were not within the general Oslo area. Of the eleven interviews conducted, five interviews were over Skype and one interview was conducted through a telephone call (see Table 1.0). While the telephone and online interviews were limited by the absence of visual cues (Holt, 2010; Sullivan, 2012), the dialogue between the interviewer and the participant nevertheless allowed for the interviewee to share their experiences and insight. The literature has pointed to strategies for conducting telephone and online interviews: from confirming the medium through which the interview will be conducted (i.e., Skype or phone) (Hay-Gibson, 2009) to taking turns speaking (Sturges & Hanrahan, 2004). For example, since the interview depended on the reliability of a medium (i.e., Skype software or phone), I made sure that the connection to phone and internet networks had reception to avoid a potential lag or drop in connectivity. Further, since there was a lack of visual cues, the ability to actively listen was particularly vital during the interview process. The lack of visual cues made it difficult to confirm whether or not the interviewee completed answering the interview question or prompt. Therefore, I carefully listened to the interviewees speak without interrupting to ensure that they were able to completely articulate their course of thought. I then responded to the themes and topics that the participants expressed interest in.

An interview guide (see Appendix C) was used to provide direction as I interviewed; however, the guide was edited “in accordance with [the interviewer’s] perception of ‘effectiveness’ of the questions” (Bédard & Gendron, 2004, p. 199). The interview questions were designed to connect to the research questions, namely: 1) what the Norwegian SDP actors saw as their key policy imperatives; 2) how incongruences in organizational values between partners were negotiated; and 3) what the nature of the partnership among Norwegian SDP actors could be described as. For example, I asked questions about organizational goals, the relationship

among organizations, potential areas of tension, and explored the ways that organizations conceptualized key ideas (e.g., mass participation sport; elite sport). The guide was developed in a way to tease out potential answers to the research questions without directly asking the research questions. For instance, instead of directly asking where the organizations disagreed with their partners, I asked about the organization's priorities and goals and how it aligned with their partner's objectives. If there were indeed areas of tension that emerged between organizations, the follow-up probes allowed for the interviewee to describe the incongruences in organizational aims and how the differences were negotiated between entities.

Thus, the format of the semi-structured interviews allowed me to investigate beyond the answers to the questions prepared, and therefore, granted a sense of flexibility to engage and react to the interviewee's responses (Berg, 2007). Ultimately, the ability to capture and interpret the participants' voices and to examine the interplay among varying perspectives described in different interviews (Smith & Sparkes, 2016) made the use semi-structured interviews the primary method of choice in building the multiple instrumental case studies.

### ***3.4.2 Document collection and analysis***

Document collection and analysis were used to complement the data gathered from the interviews. According to Bowen (2009, p. 27), document analysis is a systematic tool to review, evaluate, examine and interpret documents in order to "elicit meaning, gain understanding and develop empirical knowledge." Documents including policies, funding applications and organizational assessments were collected and analyzed. Organizational documents including annual reports, funding applications and policies were collected for analysis and are outlined in Table 3.0.

<b>Name of document</b>	<b>Publication date</b>	<b>Authors</b>	<b>Target Audience</b>	<b>Document collection process</b>
Strategy for Norway's Culture and Sports Cooperation with Countries in the South	2005	NDIR	N/A	Organizational Website
<i>The Government's International Cultural Engagement Part II: Strengthening the Cultural Sector in Developing Countries</i>	2012	NDIR	N/A	Organization's representative
Norwegian SDP NGO 2016 Year End Report	2014	Norwegian SDP NGO	IDNSF	Requested from organization
Building Communities Through Sport	2015	IDNSF	N/A	Organizational Website
IDNSF Funding Application 2012 - 2015	2015	IDNSF	NDA	Requested from organization
IDNSF Final Results Report 2012-2015	2016	IDNSF	NDA	Requested from organization

Table 3.0 – List of documents collected and analyzed.

The documents were gathered through the various Norwegian SDP actors' websites and through asking the interview participants for possible resources that would outline key organizational imperatives. Only documents written in English were collected and analyzed. Though there could have been documents published in Norwegian that may have been able to further contribute to the themes emerging from the data set, the analysis of the collected documents in addition to the interviews were useful for achieving data saturation. The process of comparing, contrasting and using interviews as another data source to affirm findings emerging from the English-written documents proved to be useful for achieving data saturation, meaning

that no new substantive information was acquired (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Sandelowski, 1998). Document analysis is referred to and is further detailed in section 3.5.1 of this chapter.

### ***3.4.3 Field Notes***

Field notes were mostly taken during the interview sessions with participants. Collecting field notes is a process of “textual re-creation” (Wolfinger, 2002, p. 87), where the researcher takes note of the events, observations and conversations that were involved in the study (Van Maanen, 1988). According to Mullhall (2003), the practice of writing field notes is an interpretative process whereby the researcher navigates through the complexities associated with understanding what, in particular, was worthy to recall and document (and in turn, what was overlooked).

Wolfinger (2002, p. 89) described two strategies for writing field notes: 1) the “salience hierarchy” approach, and 2) the comprehensive note-taking approach. Where the salience hierarchy approach outlines the most noteworthy or most interesting events, the comprehensive note-taking approach is a systematic and thorough description of events during a specific period of time. The field notes gathered in this study followed the salience hierarchy approach, where I took note of interesting and telling observations that stood out during the interview process. For instance, the field notes described the varying settings of the interviews:

As I prepare for the upcoming interview with [Frank], I remember entering the [IDNSF] building, the elevators required to get up to the office, and the straight, long hallways. I was escorted through an open-concept office, where people working were wearing business-casual attire. I was led to a conference room with bright white walls, a white board, a TV, and a long table with many chairs. The room is lit by sunlight. This is so different from my interview with [Oliver] (Field notes, December 7, 2017)

The setting of the interview was important because it reflected the priorities and available resources for each organization. Within the context of this study, organizations like the IDNSF had dedicated office space and personnel to oversee the organization's participation in SDP. In contrast, the Norwegian SDP NGO did not have a specific place of meeting and was solely comprised of volunteers. Thus, in a broader sense, the field notes made real the challenges that the different organizations faced and added context and character to the organizations represented in the interviews. The field notes were reviewed and analyzed through colour-coding to complement the themes that emerged from the interviews and the document analysis.

It should be noted that while field notes were gathered and analyzed, the notes were not explicitly incorporated into the findings and the discussion of this thesis. This was because many of the field notes were deemed redundant, since the content outlined data that could be emphasized by other sources (i.e., interviews and document analysis). For example, the field notes largely composed of particular quotes that stood out from interviews and information on organizational structure within the Norwegian SDP space. Therefore, the field notes were most helpful for recalling my experience of interviewing and during the process of analyzing the other pieces of data gathered.

### **3.5 Data Analysis**

The analysis was guided by partnership theory (see Guo & Acar, 2005; Oliver, 1990), and in particular, literature concerned with the repercussions of interorganizational relations that emerged between partnering organizations. More specifically, the data analysis aimed to expose potential areas of asymmetrical power relations resulting from organizations that were dependent on their partners' resources and legitimacy. The segment below details the process of analysis conducted on the documents and the interviews collected during the research process.

### ***3.5.1 Document Analysis***

The documents collected and reviewed in previous sections were subject to analysis (see Table 3.0). In the process of critically analyzing key documents, Atkinson and Coffey (2004) pointed to the ways in which the production and consumption of documents are often used to serve a particular purpose. For instance, applications for funding have been designed to present the applicant in the best possible light by outlining previous experience, measures of success, and a credible reputation. In a similar vein, (SDP) policies influence practices and exhibit organizational priorities and were therefore worthy of further examination (see Chalip, 1996; Hayhurst, 2009). In order to conduct the analysis, the documents gathered were subject to manual colour-coding, where codes were constructed and categorized to address the research questions. For example, concepts that repeatedly emerged (e.g., “sport for all,” “mass participation,” “gender equality”) were noted to develop a better picture of organizational values and identity. Further, areas of ‘analytical silence’ were taken note of – where the documents demonstrated a degree of silence, especially on areas of tension that were discussed in interviews with organizational members. In other words, the document analysis enabled me to identify how organizational documents differed in perspective in comparison to the live discussions held in interviews.

Atkinson and Coffey (2004, p. 79) acknowledge that documents are not “transparent representations of organizational routines, decision-making processes or professional practices. [Rather, documents] construct particular kinds of representations using literary conventions.” Therefore, the document analysis in this study served to “interrogate and examine [the documents] in the context of other sources of data” (Bryman, 2012, p. 551) such as the information gathered during the interviews. Furthermore, the purpose of the document (i.e., the

reason it was created), the target audience, and information about the author were taken into account when the documents were analyzed (Bowen, 2009), to uproot and expose the intentions of the authors of the documents (Goodin, Rein, & Moran, 2008) and to acknowledge the potential power relations among author and audience. For example, when analyzing the IDNSF's application for funding, I took into account the ways in which the donor-recipient relationship between the IDNSF and the NDA may have informed the types of information provided (or withheld) when the IDNSF submitted the application. This allowed for a comparison between what was presented on the funding applications and the information gathered during the interviews with the IDNSF members.

### ***3.5.2 Interview Analysis***

The interviews were audio recorded and transcribed verbatim. A manual thematic analysis informed by partnership theory was conducted using the interview transcripts and the documents listed in Table 3.0 on page 9. According to Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 79) thematic analysis is a method used to “identify, analyze, and report patterns (themes) within data.” Partnership theory was used to expand the thematic analysis by honing in on the interview and document rhetoric used to (re)produce conceptions of authority, and to explore how power was exerted through donor-recipient relationships. Indeed, according to Oliver (1990), there are reasons why organizations establish partnerships and, often, there are power imbalances within the partnerships. Therefore, the thematic analysis employed in this study investigated the rationales related to how organizations established partnerships and the potential for authoritative figures (i.e., funders) to coerce or pressure subordinates within the partnerships.

In the process of consulting previous literature on partnerships within the realm of SDP, the thematic analysis that was conducted was theoretical in nature. Braun and Clarke (2006, p.

83) describe the difference between inductive and theoretical approaches to thematic analysis: where the former encourages the process of coding data “without trying to fit it into a pre-existing coding frame, or the researcher’s analytic preconception,” the latter consists of data-coding that is driven to address specific research questions, often times, in the context of previous literature. Thus, while I coded the data with specific focus (e.g., to attend to the research questions) to allow for the themes to ‘emerge’ from the data set, I also acknowledge the ways in which the consulting of previous literature on partnership theory largely shaped the data coding process.

The coding process began as the interview transcripts were read several times to gain an overview understanding of the information gathered. Indeed, the coding process involved recognizing the importance of certain moments and outlining it (Boyatzis, 1998). Thus, the transcripts were coded to conceptualize the information and make sense of potential relationships within the data (Strauss, 1987). Codes were formed and highlighted (using different coloured highlighters and pens) through tracking the use of particular language, words and themes throughout the interview transcripts (e.g., ‘mass-participation sport,’ ‘elite/competitive sport,’ ‘funder,’ ‘recipient,’ etc.). The codes were then sorted according to colour, which formed themes. The themes demonstrated patterns in the findings and observations and ultimately, interpreted the phenomenon at hand (see Boyatzis, 1998). The themes that were constructed aided in answering the research questions and describing the organizational imperatives of the Norwegian SDP actors, the way the tensions were negotiated, and the nature of the partnership between the SDP actors.

Ultimately, in order to deepen the understanding of each case, interviews, documents and field notes were collected, analyzed and used in combination as a means of triangulation.

According to Denzin, triangulation is the “combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon” (1970, p. 291) and aids against the “accusation that a study’s findings are simply an artifact of a single method, a single source, or a single investigator’s bias” (Bowen, 2009, p. 28). Existing literature on partnerships in SDP and development studies were consulted, most notably, Hayhurst and Frisby’s (2010) work on partnerships between sport federations and SDP NGOs, and Black’s (2017) research on the tensions between SDP partners with differing orientations and approaches to development (e.g., top-down and bottom-up). Through the analysis of the (unequal) power relations found in the Norwegian SDP landscape, partnership theory was further used to examine the determinants of interorganizational relationships (Lister, 2000; Lister, 2003; Oliver, 1990) and to guide the analysis of possible “disparity between the rhetoric and reality of NGO [and interorganizational] partnerships” (Lister, 2000, p. 3). Thus, the thematic analysis informed by partnership theory ultimately aided in highlighting the motivations of Norwegian SDP actors through examining their policies and their practices described through interview and text.

### **3.6 Access, Ethics Approval and Confidentiality**

This research was conducted according to the regulations and policies set out under the York University Graduate Student Human Participants Research Protocol and was approved by the York University Human Participants Research Committee on November 9, 2017 (Certificate #: STU 2017-149). Additionally, as the majority of this research project took place in Oslo, Norway, the project also complied with required ethics, confidentiality, and informed consent procedures as per the Norwegian National Research Ethics Committees. This research project was approved by the Norwegian Centre for Research Data (NSD) on November 1, 2017 (Reference #: 56302/3/BGH). Due to the ethical regulations outlined by the Norwegian Centre

for Research Data, I was required to be affiliated with the Norwegian School of Sport Sciences (NIH), under the supervision of Dr. Åse Strandbu. When I learned that I was required to be supervised by a member of a Norwegian academic institution, I began searching for researchers who were interested in the realm of SDP. The search began with reviewing the body of literature on Norway's participation in SDP, which consequently led me to the NIH. The NIH is a university based in Oslo that focuses on the study of sport and physical activity. The institution is composed of four main departments: 1) Sport and Social Sciences; 2) Teacher Education and Outdoor Life Studies; 3) Physical Performance; and 4) Sports Medicine (NIH, 2020). Dr. Strandbu's is a Cultural and Social Studies Professor at the NIH and has published in the areas of sport sociology, immigration and sport, and safeguarding in SDP. When Dr. Strandbu accepted my request for supervision, I submitted the NSD notification form for ethical approval from the Norwegian Centre for Research Data. Upon approval and for the duration of my stay, I was responsible for occasionally updating Dr. Strandbu with the status of the study and any major steps that were to be taken (e.g., interviews, document analysis).

Prior to the onset of each interview, participants were informed via an 'informed consent form' (see Appendix D) that all information in the research process would be used in confidence. Further, the informed consent form outlined the purpose of the study and the proposed method of research (i.e., interview and document collection) in order for the participants to make an informed decision prior to participating. I verbally confirmed with the informants to ensure that they were aware of their rights as study participants prior to asking them to sign the Informed Consent Form.

All interviews were conducted in English, transcribed, and analyzed. All documents were gathered through the websites of the organization of interest or requested for during the

interviews. All documents collected were in English and thus, translation was not a concern throughout the research process. A transcription guide outlining the use of punctuation (e.g., ellipses, brackets, etc.) and the associated meaning is outlined in Appendix E (Transcription Guide). Pseudonyms were used to protect the anonymity of research participants. Specific references that may have identified participants (i.e., job titles, position within each organization, occupations outside of each organization, etc.), and/or specific situations and locations were altered to ensure anonymity to the fullest extent possible. Transcripts were made available to participants at their request for the purposes of verifying the interview record. Further, the interviewees were informed that any material that would emerge from the content of this study would be sent for their review.

Ultimately, the ethical issue that was most apparent was the fact that this research navigated through the power relations between funder and recipient organizations. Since recipient organizations were asked to share their experiences and challenges associated with working with their funders, the ethical dilemma of whether or not their narratives should be shared was raised. That is, the fear of straining the relationship between funder/recipient if the narratives were reported was an ethical challenge that I faced throughout this research. Thus, in order to protect the organizations from identification, the organization names, the identities of the participants and their roles were anonymized. Further, I ensured that the participants understood that interviews would be recorded, and that the transcripts of the interviews would be sent to them for their review prior to being used for analytical purposes. At the end of the process, the majority of the interview participants did not retract any of experiences shared, and all communicated their satisfaction with the final copy of the transcripts.

### **3.7 Role of the Researcher**

According to Denzin and Lincoln (2011, p. 4), the qualitative researcher is much like a quilt maker: the researcher “stitches, edits, and puts slices of reality together” through highlighting multiple voices and using different textual forms. In conducting research, the researcher should acknowledge the relationship between themselves and the ‘researched,’ and thus, the research process is one whereby participant and researcher co-construct the findings of the process of qualitative inquiry (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). Sutton and Austin (2015) reflect on how the qualitative researcher should acknowledge and articulate that their position and subjectivities play an integral role within the research process. Indeed, Watt suggests that the researcher be aware of “what allows them to see as well as what may inhibit their seeing” (Watt, 2007, p. 82). Thus, by understanding the filters “through which questions were asked, data were gathered and analyzed, and findings reported,” the researcher acknowledges that biases are unavoidable and are therefore part and parcel of the research process (Sutton & Austin, 2015, p. 226).

#### ***3.7.1 Reflexivity***

##### ***Insider/Outsider dynamic.***

The insider-outsider dynamic within the scope of qualitative research has been a topic of interest for many researchers tasked with developing reflexivity in the process of conducting research (Hellowell, 2006). An insider researcher is an individual who has prior intimate knowledge of the community, its members, and shared experiences with the ‘researched’ (Asselin, 2003). An outsider researcher is an individual who is considered, to a degree, an outsider and a stranger in the social research setting (Burgess, 1984). Both insider and outsider perspectives offer advantages and disadvantages to the research process (Hammersley, 1993).

Where an outsider researcher is able to provide a sense of objectivity that cannot otherwise be reached, an insider is able to approach the research process with an ability to connect with participants that depends largely on shared experiences and perspectives (Simmel, 1950; Dwyer & Buckley, 2009). The insider researcher, then, has an increased likelihood of building greater rapport with respondents who may be willing to reveal more intimate, honest and accurate details of their lives to an individual considered to be empathetic (Hockey, 1993).

In recognizing the multiple ways that my social position and past experiences may have shaped the research process, this section examines how my insider/outsider status opened up opportunities to discuss some aspects of the research and hindered the process in others. In particular, the section below examines how my experience as an SDP advocate and researcher shaped parts of the data collection process.

***Insider: Volunteer.***

My previous experiences participating and working in the martial arts, as well as my previous engagements with youth in marginalized communities, informed my decision to pursue research with organizations that focused on similar issues (i.e., martial arts and youth-focused social justice). Thus, when I discovered the Norwegian SDP NGO that focused on providing opportunities for youth to participate in a martial art program – notably, the same martial art that I have been involved with – I immediately became fascinated with its objective to address development goals. As my affinity and connection grew with learning more about the programs offered by the Norwegian SDP NGO, I became more empathetic to the issues faced by the Norwegian SDP NGO. I found that I sympathized with the difficulty SDP NGO staff faced in securing financial support and identified with their struggle to galvanize local awareness from

members of the community as I reflected on my own experience in volunteering in grassroots sport programs.

***Outsider: Researcher.***

My role as a Canadian graduate student based out of the Norwegian School of Sport Sciences (NIH) positioned my status as both insider and outsider to the research process. On the one hand, I was considered an insider due to the legitimacy that was granted through my association with the NIH and its reputation in the sport and research community. On the other hand, I was considered an outsider due to the fact that I was a Canadian researcher, and not one who has been directly involved as an actor within the Norwegian SDP system.

The NIH has been the main academic institution involved in Norwegian SDP research and my association with the NIH as a graduate student and researcher seemed to create a sense of legitimacy as I approached the participants in this study. To some, I was recognized as a subject matter expert in the broader realm of SDP research. As such, a few participants were open to feedback on how they would be able to better address their goals in their programs.

From my perspective, my status as a researcher also acted as a challenge during the research process. In particular, my role as the researcher – to investigate in further detail and to report the findings – may have limited the number of interested interview participants who may have been able to contribute to a more holistic understanding of Norwegian SDP practices. This was evident during the document collection phase and when I was requesting for potential interview participants, and to my dismay, I had found that a few organizations resisted the idea of research pertaining to their organization's (previous) participation in Norwegian SDP.

For example, when I approached one of the government funding agencies to request for interview opportunities, I was met with reserved responses noting of how SDP no longer

represented a priority for the donor agencies. Mikecz (2012) outlined how gaining access, acquiring trust and establishing rapport were key stages in preparing for the interview. However, Mikecz (2012) also noted how such steps required time and, in some instances, luck – which were factors that were beyond the scope of the available resources of this study. Indeed, the experience of a lack of response was shared with Evan, an interview participant who retired from working with the NDIR, and below outlines his response:

I think the interest in Sport for Development has a cyclic nature. Interest goes up and goes down. Within both [Norwegian funding agencies]. Also, I think the big umbrella sports organizations in Norway, [for example,] the Football Association which has been the main player over the years. This is an international trend. There are some factors. I think that interest, be it interest or not, I think that the big sport events like the Olympic Games have influence on the interest which is obvious. I also think that it is the fact that some of the persons that initiate this, let's call it 'movement' in Norway, they have moved from their original position. Some of the main players are definitely outside. So I'm not surprised that you are telling me it is very difficult to get a response from [the Norwegian funding agencies] (Evan, NDIR, Retired Member, December 2017)

While there was never an explicit rationale for declining interview opportunities, I wonder if and how my researcher status might have influenced the decision-making process. In the process of reflecting, there was indeed a possibility for the research to have positioned certain organizations and their imperatives unfavourably, and perhaps, that may have played a role within the decision to turn down a potential interview. On a similar note, I acknowledge that there may have been a multitude of other reasons as to why the individuals from the donor organizations rejected the opportunity to interview (e.g., lack of priority in organizational

agenda; busy schedules). I do, however, ultimately believe that my role as a researcher played an integral part in the decision to participate – or not – in this study.

Further, my position as a graduate student (and researcher) interested in SDP affected my view of: 1) SDP as a method to address development goals; and 2) the ways in which partnerships between SDP actors were organized. As a graduate student, I was responsible for consulting the current and relevant body of literature as it relates to the study of SDP. In so doing, I adopted a ‘middle-walking’ stance (Wilson, 2014) whereby I acknowledged the potential benefits of using sport as a forum through which development goals can be addressed. That is, I recognized and aimed to maintain “a critical stance and, at the same time, contribute to the development of theory and evidence-driven forms of SDP work” (Wilson, 2014, p. 24). In other words, I am in a position where I view sport as a palpable tool to address development; however, I also recognize that sport – in and of itself – is not altruistic and apolitical. Therefore, as an SDP researcher, I have taken on a degree of healthy skepticism required to critically analyze and evaluate SDP efforts associated with this study. In a similar vein, the study of organizational relationships between funders and recipients has been a particular focus within the body of SDP scholarship that I have concentrated on. When I reviewed Hayhurst and Frisby’s (2010) study and learned of the difficulties faced by the recipient organizations in order to ensure that funding opportunities remained open, I became interested in understanding if and how the Norwegian SDP NGO encountered similar relations, and how areas of tension between actors were negotiated.

As I reflected on my subjectivities and my biases within the scope of this study, I recognized that my involvement in sport and my role as a graduate student and researcher influenced my outlook of the positions of each Norwegian SDP actor involved. That is, my

personal positive experience with sport and my growing interest in SDP literature as a researcher made it natural for me to support and be empathetic for the experiences shared by the members of the Norwegian SDP NGO. For example, some of the literature I consulted (e.g., Black, 2017; Guest, 2009; Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010) reported of programs led by large sporting bodies (i.e., sport federations, the IOC) that claimed to be SDP oriented; however, contrary to its claims, the programs upheld neocolonial legacies and high-performance focused agendas. In this context, I developed an expectation for similar responses from the members of the IDNSF (the Development department of a Norwegian Sport Federation). In other words, my reading of the IDNSF as a powerful sporting body working in SDP was equated with an expectation that the organization would produce similar results as those found in the literature (i.e., performance-focused goals when claiming to be SDP-oriented). This, in turn, influenced the questions I asked and the ways in which I probed during the interviews with the IDNSF. For example, I first asked about the role of 'Sport-For-All' and mass-participation sport in the Norwegian sport model, and I followed up with probes that were concerned with how the IDNSF defined 'Sport-For-All,' how the IDNSF were to ensure that funding was not being spent on elite sport programs, and why a focus on mass-participation sport was an important factor to the IDNSF's position in SDP. I was thoroughly surprised when the IDNSF members shared about their commitment to SDP and the ways in which the members claimed (and supported through documents) that elite sport goals were strictly prohibited within the scope of the IDNSF's SDP work.

In the next section, I outline the ways in which I engaged in the process of introspection with regard to my social position and the recognition of how my position has affected the research process and results (Berger, 2015).

### **3.8 Methodological Strengths and Limitations**

#### ***3.8.1 Sample size and Saturation***

A small sample size can potentially mean that ‘theoretical saturation’ and ‘informational redundancy’ has not been reached (Sandelowski, 1995). In other words, the findings from the small sample size do not hold enough weight to sufficiently describe the phenomenon of interest or address the research questions. The limitation of having small sample sizes was relevant to this investigation since there were organizations in this study that were only represented by one or two individuals. For example, the NDIR and the NDA - two key Norwegian SDP actors – were only represented by one individual per organization. That is, the data gathered about the NDIR and the NDA was based largely on the perspectives and experiences from those individuals who volunteered to participate in the study. The question of whether or not the narratives shared by these individuals were representative of the broader organization’s position on SDP arose, and I reflected on how the relatively small sample size influenced the way in which the data would be limited due to a lack of interview participants. I acknowledged that as I interviewed a large number of subject matter experts out of a limited number of potential interviewees, the input from the study participants was ultimately reflective of the respective organizations’ positions.

The small sample sizes of the NDIR and the NDA seemed to draw from the fact that the focus of this study touched on sensitive topics that the organizations did not particularly want to engage in. For example, when I reached out to both organizations, I was met with responses that declined my request for potential interested interviewees, citing that there was no one qualified or available to participate in the study. It was only through snowball sampling that I was able to meet the representatives from the NDIR and the NDA. As I built the multiple instrumental case

studies approach, the limited sample size seemed to be offset by other forms of data I collected (e.g., key organizational policy documents). In other words, while the NDIR and NDA were represented by one individual for each organization, the collection and analysis of organizational documents authored by the NDIR and the NDA helped to strengthen the narratives shared by the organizations' representatives. The adoption of other methods to build the multiple instrumental case studies allowed for data triangulation, whereby the results of the study emerged from the intersection of multiple methods and sources.

### ***3.8.2 Accessing Interviewees: Struggles and Realities***

A number of studies explore the reflexive practices involved in qualitative research, specifically concerning the relationships between the researcher and the researched (e.g., Asselin, 2003; Berger, 2015). According to Råheim, et al., (2016) there has been an inherent imbalance in the power relations between the researcher and the researched that is largely defined by the shifts in 'superior' and 'inferior' knowledge positions. In turn, there have been instances where the researcher has been viewed as the authority within the research process to set the agenda and interpret the data according to their research agenda. The qualitative research process (and the interview, in this case) is thus perceived as a tool to serve the researcher's end (Brinkmann, 2007).

This particular limitation was relevant to this study because my role as a researcher seemed to negatively impact the sample sizes and potentially interested individuals from the NDA and the NDIR. One of the key roles of the researcher is to investigate and report the findings of their research as part and parcel to the process of knowledge production. After interviewing the representatives from the NDA and the NDIR, I was given the impression that my researcher status played a part in the organizations decision to decline my request to

interview. For instance, Evan, the retired NDIR member mentioned how he was unsurprised by the fact that the members of the NDIR rejected the interview request and instead, redirected my questions to the SDP actors that were more active at the time of data collection.

At the time of the request for interview, the NDIR had already withdrew its support for Norwegian SDP – demonstrated through removing SDP from a development policy that previously included sport and ‘culture’ related initiatives (NDIR, 2012). Along with Evan’s observation on how the NDIR moved its employees out of working in SDP, it seemed to me that the NDIR did not want to engage in further discussing their participation (or lack thereof) in SDP. Perhaps the opportunity of speaking about SDP – particularly when SDP was no longer on the NDIR’s agenda – would have placed unnecessary attention on the NDIR, and therefore, the organizations instead, declined the request to participate in this study. I acknowledge that my observations are speculations, given that I was unable to ask for justification for the NDIR’s decision; however, the conversation with Evan helped me understand how an interview with the NDIR could have positioned the organization unfavourably in the public eye.

In order to address this limitation, I ensured the interviewees of their anonymity and confidentiality (via the use of pseudonyms) and I made every effort to make sure that the participants were consenting to and were aware that they were being recorded and the interviews were transcribed. As discussed in Section 3.6, I followed up with the interviewees to confirm that they were satisfied with the content of the transcripts by sharing it with them through e-mail. There were a few individuals who, after reviewing the transcripts, decided to omit certain details, to which I agreed and left out of the final copies of the interview transcripts. I also asked the participants from the NDIR and the NDA if they had any other potentially interested contacts since it was difficult to connect with the organizations otherwise.

While I recognize the way in which my status as a researcher may have hindered the research process in certain ways (i.e., creating a smaller sample size to represent the NDIR and the NDA), my position as a researcher also opened up areas of discussion with other Norwegian SDP actors. For instance (and as outlined in previous sections), the participants from the IDNSF and the Norwegian SDP NGO equated my researcher status with the role of a subject matter expert, and therefore, seemed to be more comfortable with sharing their experiences working in Norwegian SDP. The interview with Brooke from the Norwegian SDP NGO was an example of this, where Brooke shared the challenges of working in SDP and asked if I had any input about how to address certain issues associated with the SDP NGO's activities (e.g., navigating tensions, knowledge transfer between SDP NGO and local SDP program partners). Though I was hesitant to provide input on her questions, I recognized how my researcher status ultimately opened certain opportunities during the interviews and closed others.

### ***3.8.3 Interpreting Language***

Methodological challenges exist when the language barriers are present between researchers and participants. For example, some of the challenges include misunderstandings in meaning and nuances lost in translation (Squires, 2009). In order to address the limitation, translators or interpreters are often used to communicate between members of the research process. This limitation was relevant to this study since all of the participants (and documents) were from Norway, where English is considered a second language.

At the beginning of the research process, I was worried that the language barrier between the participants and I would be a challenge in communication. As I learned more about the Norwegian SDP actors through their respective organizational websites, I discovered that all of the organizations published their content in both Norwegian and English. When I initially

reached out to the actors, the individuals spoke English and communication was generally not an issue at that point. However, it should be noted, that during the interviews, when there were instances of misunderstanding or points that required further clarification, the interview participant and I took time to re-articulate to reach mutual understanding.

The language barrier acted more so as a limitation toward the document collection/analysis in comparison to the interviewing process. When I asked for the organizational documents that would outline organizational imperatives (e.g., annual reports, funding agreements), many of the documents were published in English. There were, however, a number of documents that were written in Norwegian. I excluded the Norwegian documents from collection and analysis after I analyzed the English document gathered. This was done because I was confident in the way in which thematic saturation was reached through the collection and analysis of the documents published in English. Thus, while the language barrier ultimately limited the number of documents that I was able to collect and analyze, the limitation was addressed through the analysis of existing documents written in English and data triangulation with the information gathered via interviews.

### **3.9 Chapter Conclusion**

This chapter discussed the methods used, its significance to this study, and the methodological experiences that contributed to the development of this project. This chapter was organized into eight broad sections and began with a review of literature that justified the use of the multiple instrumental case study method. Hereafter, the research site was outlined, and a brief introduction to each of the Norwegian SDP actors was given. Next, the details of recruitment, importance of snow-ball sampling and gate-keepers were outlined, and the process of data collection was described. In particular, the use of semi-structured interviews, document

collection and field notes were examined. I then discussed the steps taken to ensure participant confidentiality and ethical approval, and reflected on the way in which my social position and the insider/outsider dynamics informed certain key decisions made in this study (i.e., the initial interest in Norway and SDP, the choice of method, the consequences of my position). Finally, I reviewed the methodological strengths and limitations by considering issues of sample size, interviewee perceptions of researchers, and language barriers. The following chapters explore the findings of the research by addressing the research questions proposed for this study.

## **CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS**

In this chapter, I report on the findings of the research process through addressing the three research questions proposed:

1. What do the Norwegian SDP actors see as their key policy imperatives?
2. How are incongruences in organizational values among Norwegian SDP partners negotiated?
3. What is the nature of the partnerships among the Norwegian SDP actors?

With this in mind, the chapter is divided into three sections, with each section responding to a respective research question. What will become evident is that the results are quite interconnected. For example, the first section outlines the key organizational policy imperatives that are required to understand the second section, where differences in organizational values and practices are highlighted. Further, the third section draws from the previous sections to examine the motivations behind the development of partnerships (despite potential disagreements/incongruences) to ultimately characterize and define the nature of the partnerships between the SDP actors.

The final section summarizes the key results of this research, followed by a discussion of how the findings relate to the differences, in approaches to SDP, relations between partnering organizations, relationships between actors that work in the realm of sport and development, and the way in which SDP work is conceptualized.

#### **4.1 RQ 1: What do the Norwegian SDP actors see as their key policy imperatives?**

This section of the broader Results chapter reports on the key policy imperatives of four Norwegian actors involved in Sport for Development and Peace (SDP): 1) The Norwegian Department of International Relations (NDIR); 2) the Norwegian Development Agency (NDA); 3) the international department of a Norwegian Sport Federation (IDNSF); and 4) a Norwegian SDP NGO. In the section that follows, I outline a brief history of each actor's participation in SDP, the key policy objectives, and how each actor sought to address its policy imperatives. This section ultimately points to how the Norwegian SDP actors shared similar key policy imperatives; however, the means through which each actor sought to address the policy issues at hand largely differed.

##### ***4.1.1 The Norwegian Department of International Relations (NDIR): Withdrawing SDP support***

This section considers the NDIR's former participation in SDP by tracing its involvement in SDP, its withdrawal of SDP support, the key policy imperatives for SDP, and the motivations behind the decision to remove SDP from the NDIR's development agenda. Thus, this segment reviews: 1) the NDIR's adoption of sport in development policy; 2) the removal of sport from development policy; 3) the withdrawal of NDIR's human resources in SDP; 4) the NDIR's motivation behind 'pulling out' of SDP; and 5) the potential for SDP to once more emerge on the NDIR's development agenda.

Since 2003, the United Nations (UN) partnered with major sporting bodies such as the IOC and FIFA to establish policies that encouraged federal governments to engage in SDP initiatives (Hayhurst, 2009). In 2005, the NDIR responded to the call and adopted the *Strategy for Norway's Culture and Sports Co-operation with Countries in the South* (NDIR, 2005). The Strategy outlined the NDIR's commitment to allocating resources to sport and cultural programs as a means to address the UN's development goals. According to the NDIR, this type of policy was the first of its kind:

As the first comprehensive declaration of principles on Norway's culture and sports co-operation with developing countries, this strategy should help to foster broad understandings of why cultural factors are important in development policy, poverty reduction and human rights issues. The purpose is to bring culture to the forefront and make it more visible in Norway's development co-operation, and to increase the resources allocated to culture and sport. (NDIR, 2005, p. 1)

According to the Strategy, "cultural co-operation" refers to the ways in which the NDIR shares, promotes and protects "artistic expression, intellectual contact and [...] cultural heritage" (NDIR, 2005, p. 7) such as varying types of visual art, music, and dance. The Strategy defined culture as being associated with "identity" (e.g., common values, attitudes and knowledge shared between social groups) and "expression" (e.g., creative expression related to traditional knowledge and resources that form daily life in the form of crafts, written history, language, art, play and sport, etc.) (NDIR, 2005, p. 9). Through the Strategy, the NDIR believed that promoting the expression of cultural heritage would stimulate economic production, encourage local unity, peace and reconciliation, and foster the freedom of expression (NDIR, 2005). An example of such an

initiative was a “cultural exchange,” where Norwegian and Southern musicians had the opportunity to educate each other about their instruments and traditional forms of music.

In the same document, the NDIR describes the “sport co-operation” as an initiative driven to “promote ‘sport for all’ [...] to ensure that everyone has maximum opportunit[ies] to participate in [...] physical activities, [where] the Strategy targets grassroots sports [and] competitive sport is not included” (NDIR, 2005, p. 37). Here, the NDIR positions cultural and sport initiatives as mediums that are well suited to promote basic human rights, address development goals (e.g., advocate for peace) and impact foreign policy since “both involve activities that by their very nature encourage communication and contact, and provide opportunities for [the] exchange of ideas [...] that enrich all the parties involved.” (NDIR, 2005, p. 7).

With regard to the sport-related efforts, the Strategy appointed particular Norwegian sport governing bodies (e.g., the international department of a Norwegian Sport Federation) to head the Norwegian sport and development initiatives. Further, the Strategy emphasizes the importance of including diplomatic organizations, such as foreign embassies, in the process of implementing the Norwegian SDP efforts. In other words, SDP is seen as an initiative that transcends beyond the forum of sport and into the realm of public diplomacy:

[...] The Norwegian sports organizations [...] will continue to be given priority [in leading the Norwegian SDP efforts]. The emphasis will be on building sports structures and on competence-building in partner countries. [...] The [partner] embassies are urged to form strategic partnerships with sports organisations in the appropriate sectors [...] in line with the holistic approach taken by Norwegian development co-operation. (NDIR, 2005, p. 3)

From the perspective of the Strategy, the involvement of sport in development efforts is legitimized due to the inherent utilitarian values of participation in sport (e.g., sport's assumed ability to create and maintain good health practices, efficient work ethic, and communication skills) and the economic utility of sport. In other words, the Strategy positions sport participation as being a potential solution to social and development issues, namely global health issues and living in poverty:

Sport is essential to human development, but it also stimulates economic development. It is not only an economic driving force in its own right; it can also be a catalyst for economic development by increasing productivity, preventing disease, decreasing welfare expenditure, and increasing people's chances in the labour market. (NDIR, 2005, p. 39)

The quote above emphasizes a functionalist, neoliberal approach to development, whereby SDP in the global South is positioned as a tool to promote economic advancement, health and well-being (see Hayhurst, 2014). From the perspective of the Strategy and its authors, if individuals have the ability to participate in sport, they would be able to live healthier lives, become more productive, and ultimately decrease the number of individuals living in poverty. To summarize, the NDIR's key policy imperatives for SDP consist of a wide array of 'development goals': the promotion of human rights, the achievement of peaceful societies, increased economic development, and the health and well-being of all. To address these policy imperatives, the NDIR developed policies (i.e., the 2005 Strategy) and funded Norwegian organizations to create SDP initiatives.

***Development Policy Change: Removal of Sport, Replacement with Culture.***

In 2012, the NDIR published *The Government's International Cultural Engagement Part II: Strengthening the Cultural Sector in Developing Countries* (NDIR, 2012) to nullify the

*Strategy for Norway's Culture and Sports Co-operation with Countries in the South* (NDIR, 2005). The most apparent alteration of the policy was the removal of advocacy for sport-related programming. Instead, the white paper promotes a lengthy list of culture-related approaches (e.g., cultural exchanges, art and cultural education) that the NDIR would maintain on its development agenda:

*The Strategy for Norway's Culture and Sports Co-operation with Countries in the South* (2006–2014) was used as a guideline for the work in this area. The strategy was evaluated by [the Norwegian Development Agency] in 2011, and the goals, priorities, cooperation partners and quality assurance described in the present white paper are directly inspired by the evaluation findings. [...] Norway's *cultural* cooperation will promote the development of free cultural expression and cultural diversity; [...] support cultural infrastructure, [...] [and] protect and promote tangible and intangible cultural heritage. (NDIR, 2012, p. 3, emphasis added)

For one of the key Norwegian SDP actors, the removal of sport from the development policy reflected the priorities set by assigned decision-makers within the NDIR. According to one of the advisers of the International Department of a Norwegian Sport Federation (IDNSF):

You need to be aware that this is replacing the Strategy that was made in 2005. This White Paper is replacing the Strategy, and if you compare the White Paper to the Strategy, sport had been taken out completely. It doesn't make sense because sport cannot be found anywhere else in other [Norwegian development] policies. And the assessment, sport actually got the best results. If you compare the sport sector with the culture sector, sport got better results, better feedback, compared to culture. So, for us [the IDNSF], that told us, it's not about the quality [of the organization or program] here.

It's about sport. Sport is not important. Sport is not on the agenda. (Frank, IDNSF, Adviser, December 2017)

For Frank, despite the successful results from evaluations of the IDNSF's organizational practices and program effectiveness in SDP, the fact that sport was removed from the NDIR's development agenda represented a change in development priorities. In other words, the NDIR's withdrawal of SDP support took the form of the removal of sport from its development policy. From Frank's perspective, it didn't matter to the NDIR whether or not the evaluation of the Strategy or the results of the assessments for the IDNSF's practices were deemed effective or successful. At the time, instead of being included in the decision making process of determining whether or not SDP would continue to be represented in Norwegian development policy, the judgment to remove SDP efforts from the development agenda was made at a higher level than the IDNSF (i.e., at the level of the NDIR), and the IDNSF was simply made aware of that decision. In the section below, the data gathered suggests that the NDIR withdrew its support from SDP due to an evolving development agenda where SDP was not prioritized and was consequently removed.

***NDIR associates transferred out.***

The NDIR's withdrawal of support for SDP activities was also apparent to Evan, one of the former editors of the original *Strategy for Norway's Culture and Sports Co-operation with Countries in the South*. According to Evan, the NDIR's withdrawal from SDP was demonstrated by the transfer of NDIR associates out of SDP-related work and in to positions in different departments:

I also think that it is the fact that some of the persons that initiated this (adoption of SDP), let's call it 'movement' in Norway, they have moved from their original position. Some of

the main players are definitely outside [of the NDIR]. So I'm not surprised that you are telling me it is very difficult to get a response in the [NDIR] and [the NDA] [...] (Evan, NDIR, Retired member, December 2017)

The dismissal of NDIR associates from SDP-centred initiatives was discussed during the interview with Evan when I highlighted the challenge encountered in trying to recruit, and interview, individuals within the NDIR who participated in Norway's involvement in SDP. In fact, Evan was the only individual (formerly) associated with the NDIR who agreed to speak with me. I described how emails I sent to various general inquiry inboxes were seldom answered and when they were, the responses were often clouded with ambiguity in terms of what my next steps should be. For example, when I first emailed the NDIR's general inquiry inbox to ask if there was anyone who previously worked in the field of SDP, the response I received noted that the NDIR was no longer involved in SDP:

With reference to your query, the previous [SDP policy] that you refer to has been changed. First in a White Paper to the Parliament in 2013, and further developed under two new governments. The strategy [attached to the email] is for the Norwegian support to the cultural sector in developing countries, culture as in "cultural expressions." Sports is no longer included in this Strategy. (NDIR, personal communications, November 7, 2017)

Some conversations simply ended with the correspondents stating that they were unable to direct my request to speak to particular individuals any further. Evan was unsurprised with this observation and referred back to the notion that the majority of the individuals once tasked with overseeing Norway's participation in SDP since vacated their original positions.

***SDP "too difficult to understand," and lacking "prestige."***

Evan understood the withdrawal of SDP support from the NDIR as being symptomatic of a broader disinterest in sport in the realm of Norwegian foreign aid. That is to say, Evan believed that the NDIR viewed sport as being “too difficult to understand,” and inept in addressing development goals:

But suddenly there was a decision that sport should be omitted or reduced [from the NDIR’s development agenda]. I think one of the reasons was that [for] the people in [the NDIR] [...] sports became too difficult for them to understand. And of course, it didn't have the same prestige as culture in a way, in their understanding. (Evan, NDIR, Retired member, December 2017)

Further, Evan described the ways in which he believed that SDP became somewhat devalued and minimized by the NDIR. Along with the belief that SDP was unable to adequately address development goals, Evan described SDP as being a nonprioritized factor:

One of the reasons [for the withdrawal of SDP support] was that [SDP] was not at the top of the priority list. I don't think that it (SDP) was on the priority list at all. This was certainly not something that [the NDIR] would prioritize. I think that in the future given context, the situation might be different. (Evan, NDIR, Retired member, December 2017)

Evan’s understanding of the realm of sport and development as it related to the NDIR was particularly insightful because many times it pointed to the intricate connection between Norwegian SDP activities and the agenda of political entities. Put differently, Evan’s perspective described how the development agenda was dictated by the government, and therefore, when governments changed, the development agenda followed suit. What was evident as demonstrated by the overwriting of the NDIR’s Strategy (2005) was that “cultural” development initiatives made it to the priority list. While the rationale behind the removal of SDP from Norwegian

development policy was never explicitly explained, the intersections between relevant literature on the Norwegian SDP context and the potential motivations behind making such a decision is further examined in the Discussion chapter (see pages 155-177).

***Outside influence on SDP.***

When asked to elaborate on the fact that there would be potential for SDP to be adopted in Norwegian development policy again, Evan pointed to the way in which influence from actors outside the Norwegian SDP space would be an important aspect to consider. In particular, Evan referred to the ways in which organizations such as the International Olympic Committee, and sporting events such as the Olympic Games would play an integral role in being able to galvanize support for SDP such that the NDIR might once more adopt SDP in its development agenda:

Interest [in SDP] goes up and goes down. Both within [the NDA] and the [NDIR]. [...] I think that interest, be it interest or not, I think that the big sport events like the Olympic Games have influence on the interest which is obvious (Evan, NDIR, Retired member, December 2017)

Evan then pointed to two reasons as to why he believed SDP was originally on the Norwegian development agenda: first, Norway was following the international (sport and development) trends set by both political and sport-related institutions; second, the Norwegian SDP agenda was largely dictated by a desire to address diplomatic, non-development related goals (e.g., creating a particular social image of Norway). This is evident in the quotes above, where Evan described the ways that large sporting events such as the Olympics and the associated organizing bodies (e.g., the International Olympic Committee, national Olympic committees) had a strong influence in galvanizing interest and support for the use of sport in the

realm of development. Further, the quote below pointed to Evan's view of the NDIR's advocacy work and participation in SDP as a method to address diplomatic goals and to produce particular social profiles of Norway:

And then, of course, the [NDIR] in their campaign, in their dialogue, they might again use sport as making Norway more attractive. Or might use it as a tool to profile itself as a leading nation both in sports generally. Because I think that Norway is probably one of the [top] countries in the world where sport has the strongest position. So to profile itself [...] for peace, for instance, is something that could be repeated. (Evan, NDIR, retired member, December 2017)

Ultimately, the NDIR revoked its support for SDP through policy change and the transfer of associates out of SDP related work. While the former was evident through the removal of sport from the NDIR's development policies, the latter was suggested through the interview with Evan and complemented with the personal email conversations with the NDIR. Further, the reasons for the NDIR's decision to withdraw SDP support was made clear only through the interview with Evan – the one and only participant who, at the time, was formerly related to the organization. According to Evan, the primary cause of the withdrawal of support for SDP by the NDIR was due to a perspective that saw sport as being irrelevant and incompatible in addressing development goals. As a result, SDP policies were overwritten and human resources were withdrawn. When the NDIR withdrew its funding and administrative support for sport and development related initiatives, the Norwegian Development Agency (NDA) became the primary funder for the majority of Norwegian SDP programs.

***4.1.2 Norwegian Development Agency (NDA): “Our kind of support would then be more in terms of administration”***

This segment examines the advocacy of human rights and gender equality as the Norwegian Development Agency’s (NDA) key policy imperative for SDP. Throughout this section, I mostly draw from an interview with Tory, an NDA adviser, since there were very few documents that outlined in detail the NDA’s specific policy imperatives for SDP. I then conclude by underlining the role of the NDA as the primary organization responsible for funding, monitoring and evaluating Norwegian development efforts. Since Norwegian SDP represents only a fraction of all Norwegian development efforts, I focus here on the multiple ways that the NDA delegated the responsibility of carrying out Norwegian SDP efforts to the International Department of a Norwegian Sport Federation (IDNSF).

In her role as a Norwegian Development Agency (NDA) adviser, Tory is responsible for overseeing the funding applications and agreements between the NDA and one of the key Norwegian SDP organizations: The International Department of a Norwegian Sports Federation (IDNSF). I initially sent e-mails to the NDA’s general inquiry mailbox; however, there were no responses to my request to speak to NDA associates working with Norwegian SDP. It was only through meeting with a member of the IDNSF that I was able to connect with Tory.

***A rights-based approach to development.***

The NDA is responsible for evaluating, monitoring and funding all Norwegian development projects, including Norwegian SDP initiatives (IDNSF, 2015). Norwegian SDP initiatives represented only a fraction of the many development projects that the NDA funded. According to the most recent publicly available evaluation of Norway’s participation in SDP (Nordic Consulting Group, 2011), the NDA allocated less than 1% of its funds to SDP initiatives.

From Tory's perspective, very few development goals were assigned as priorities for SDP to address:

Well we (the NDA) don't really have any specific priorities for sports. I think for [International Department of a Norwegian Sport Federation (IDNSF)], what we see as priorities is more the rights perspective, the fact that they are inclusive of people living with disabilities, and children. [The IDNSF have] used their experiences in the Norwegian context where people living with disabilities, women and children have been included in policies for participation in sport. [...] So I think that's the angle for the [NDA]. And especially my department that I'm working in, which is [the] civil society-focused department. Where rights are basically the overriding feature that we see in most of the organizations that we work with. We don't have any other organization working in sports the way [the IDNSF] does. So it's not like we have any particular expertise within this field in this department. And so our kind of entry point is more from the rights perspective (Tory, NDA, Adviser, December, 2017)

The quote above describes Tory's understanding of the NDA's key policy imperatives for SDP: namely, the advocacy of human rights and gender equality through opening opportunities for people to participate in sport. Sport was seen as a forum where issues of gender inequality and violations of human rights could be challenged and addressed. Each of the NDA's development projects were tasked with a "thematic goal" that acted as an objective for the development project (e.g., climate change, increasing access to education, supporting civil society, etc.). Accordingly, human rights advocacy was categorized within the NDA's broader "thematic goal" of strengthening the civil society organizations in locations of operation. That is, the NDA considered civil society organizations (e.g., Southern sport federations) as being vital actors in

the process of advocating for human rights and gender equality. Thus, the NDA funded the IDNSF to aid Southern sport federations in the process of promoting and adopting a rights-based approach to sport. In other words, the NDA financed and tasked the IDNSF and Southern sport federations with creating accessible sport opportunities for the masses, and more specifically, for girls, women and individuals with disabilities.

It should be noted that no official documents outlining the NDA's SDP policy imperatives were found during the process of researching about the NDA's participation in SDP. This was not surprising due to the fact that SDP efforts represented only a fraction of the NDA's development initiatives. Further, Tory's comment on the NDA's lack of expertise on how sport and development intersect suggested that the NDA viewed SDP as being a novelty within the wider array of tools in its portfolio of development initiatives. Thus, Tory's perspective was integral in understanding the NDA's policy imperatives for SDP: namely, the advocacy of human rights and gender equality through sport.

Since the NDA had very little experience working with SDP, the nuances of how the IDNSF and Southern civil society organizations (i.e., Southern sport federations) would create opportunities for accessible sport were left to the IDNSF's discretion:

Yeah, we don't have any other organizations. Not in this budget line that are supported. You know, they (the IDNSF) are supported for the civil society, [...] and there are no other Norwegian civil society organizations working within the realm of sport that receive funds from this budget. They (the IDNSF) are the only one. For [the IDNSF], it probably would have been better if there were other organizations that they could learn from, share experiences with. So there are very few learning opportunities for them through [the NDA]. And also as I said, not a lot of expertise or specific knowledge of the

'sport for all' within [the NDA]. Our kind of support would then be more in terms of administration, the quality of their projects, not maybe in the sport sense (Tory, NDA, Adviser, December, 2017)

Indeed, Tory's comments, in conjunction with the lack of any form of agreement, policy, or document outlining the details of the NDA-IDNSF relationship demonstrated an unusual 'silence' toward the NDA's commitment to SDP. Put differently, the absence of perspectives about the NDA's outlook on Norwegian SDP complemented Tory's description of how the NDA seemed unsure of how SDP would fit into the NDA's development agenda. With very few "specific priorities for [SDP]" (Tory, personal communication, February 7, 2018) and inexperience in the realm of sport and development, the NDA's role was limited to monitoring and evaluation. Further, because of its inexperience in SDP, the NDA sought to evaluate the IDNSF based on the sport organization's ability to be cost efficient, uphold systems of project management and remain sustainable; rather than assessing the role played by the SDP initiatives that the IDNSF developed and deployed (NDA, 2007). This was examined in the organizational review of the IDNSF by the NDA:

[...] the purpose of the review is to examine [the IDNSF's] ability to provide effective aid. By effective aid [this means]: cost efficient use of funds; results in accordance with approved plans; relevance to final recipients; ability to achieve its own goals. In other words, this review shall not evaluate the performance and results of individual programmes or projects, but assesses [the IDNSF's] ability to achieve effective aid given its available financial, human resources, tools and working methods. (NDA, 2007, p. 1)

While the quote above explicitly notes that the organizational review was not used to evaluate individual SDP programs, there were also no other sets of documents focused on assessing SDP

programs. Thus, the cumulative findings concerning the NDA's participation in SDP indicated a degree of disconnect between the NDA and the Norwegian SDP efforts. Put differently, there seemed to be a distance in understanding and practice between the NDA's involvement in Norwegian SDP works and the way that Norwegian SDP actors, like the IDNSF, participated in sport and development. Ultimately, the NDA believed that the key policy imperatives for SDP were related to human rights advocacy and gender equality promotion. Since the NDA had inadequate experience in the realm of SDP, its role was limited in its support for Norwegian SDP efforts. Namely, where the NDA ensured that the IDNSF was able to "achieve effective aid given its available financial, human resources, tools and working methods" (NDA, 2007, p. 1), the IDNSF worked to create accessible sport opportunities in the areas of operation.

#### ***4.1.3 The International Department of a Norwegian Sport Federation (IDNSF)***

Since the IDNSF is one of the key Norwegian SDP actors, this section is relatively lengthier in comparison to the previous sections. Where the NDIR and the NDA had little to no hands-on experience in SDP, the IDNSF had a long-standing presence and participation in Norwegian SDP. In the sections that follow, I outline: 1) the IDNSF's key SDP policy imperatives; and 2) how the IDNSF believed that the "strengthening" of the Southern sport systems would address the organization's policy imperatives.

##### ***Means to an End: "Strengthening" the Southern sport system.***

The promotion of human rights and advocacy for gender equality were key policy imperatives upheld by the IDNSF for its SDP work. The IDNSF believed that participation in sport was intrinsically valuable (i.e., involvement in sport led to gender empowerment, mutual understanding, "life skills," etc.) and therefore, sought to address its key policy imperatives by developing methods to promote participation in sport in areas of operation. The IDNSF was first

involved in sport and development activities in the early 1980s, initiated by the *Sport For All* program. The *Sport For All* program worked alongside local sporting bodies and was established to provide communities in an East African country with athletic equipment and opportunities to participate in sport (IDNSF, 2011). More recently, the IDNSF transitioned its role from working directly at the grassroots level (e.g., leading sport programs) to strengthening the structure of Southern sport systems (e.g., funding and mentoring Southern sport federations to lead programs).

### ***Why Southern sport federations?***

Historically, the IDNSF initially worked closely with local SDP NGOs prior to partnering with Southern sport federations. According to Frank, an adviser for the IDNSF, this was because the local SDP NGOs already active in the areas of operation shared a common goal with the IDNSF: namely, designing and implementing sport programs focused on promoting mass-participation sport:

For a long time, we have been trying to work closer with the sport [federations], which has been challenging. It has been challenging for different reasons. In [African Country] you also find a lot of quite developed sport NGOs, or NGOs using sport in their work and we realized quite early that – in order to see development on the ground, to see quality activities, inclusive activities, being actually implemented – we had to work with the NGOs. Because they were on the ground. They were innovative. They designed inclusive programs for [...] children and youth in those high-density suburbs where most of them (the NGOs) worked. And in comparison, [...] maybe an NGO would offer really nice [sport] activities for children and youth. But the [sport] federations were not at that level at all. They hardly had any grassroots activities. The focus was on the elite side, the

national teams. Instead of working through the official structures, we started supporting the NGOs. Which is not our natural partner because our natural partners are the sport organizations and the Olympic and Paralympic Committees. So, in spite of working with all these NGOs, we have always tried to engage with the sport organizations and the federations and so on. And slowly, we have managed to get them on board. We have supported them in different ways. And we have also tried to build the bridge between the [local] NGOs and the sport organizations. (Frank, IDNSF, Adviser, December 2017)

According to Frank, the Southern sport federations were originally more interested in prioritizing the needs of their high-performance athletes on the national team in comparison to creating mass-participation sport programs. The IDNSF recognized that, in order to develop a sustainable model of mass-participation sport, cooperation with the Southern sport federations would be integral. This was due to two main reasons: 1) the Southern sport federations represented local leadership and ownership of potential SDP efforts, and would remain in the areas of operation in the long-term; and 2), the Southern sport federations, as the governing sporting body, had the tools and resources to support the development of mass-participation sport systems. The IDNSF therefore used its resources to aid the Southern actors (Southern sport federations and local SDP programs) in reforming and building organizational structure to ultimately encourage ongoing and long-lasting access to mass-participation sport. Participation in sport, in turn, was assumed to address the key policy imperatives of attending to human rights advocacy and challenging gender inequality in (and beyond) sport.

*Local ownership: “But when they leave, they leave with everything.”*

Part of the motivation behind working with the Southern sport federations drew from the IDNSF’s belief that local leadership and ownership was required in order for systemic change to

take place. With the goal of developing mass-participation sport systems, the IDNSF chose to work alongside local SDP programs and Southern sport federations. The IDNSF recognized that the local sport community would remain in the areas of operation even if the foreign-led SDP initiatives left. Furthermore, the IDNSF saw foreign-led SDP initiatives as working in competition against local SDP efforts. That is, to the IDNSF, it made very little sense for foreign-led SDP initiatives to compete against local SDP efforts for participants and space – especially when foreign-led SDP programs were often relatively short lived. For instance, Frank (personal communication, December 7, 2017) described how there were SDP initiatives that developed programs focused on a particular sport (e.g., volleyball) without consulting the Southern Volleyball federation. Despite the potential for different agendas between the SDP initiative and the Southern Volleyball federation, the IDNSF saw how the lack of communication between the actors created a sense of redundancy and competition for resources and participants within the Southern sport space. Therefore, the IDNSF supported local sport-focused actors (e.g., Southern sport federations, local SDP programs) to further develop existing SDP efforts, rather than establishing its own Norwegian-led SDP program in the areas of operation. As Ben explained:

A lot of them [other SDP organizations] [...] have fancy names, coming from the North, dishing [SDP programs] out in the South. [The Northern SDP programs are] a success because they have paid the instructor and it looks great. But when they leave, they leave with everything. There is nothing left. Instead of building on [a specific sport], [and] the [Southern sport] federation, [where] they (the sport programs) will continue even if [the foreign SDP actors] are leaving. Because they (the participants) [would then] have a key interest in [the sport]. Why not build on that instead of creating outside [sport programs]?

So that's one of the principles we *don't* (emphasis included) take away. You work within the existing structure. No matter how weak it is. You strengthen the structure. Instead of creating something new. Because that will definitely not survive (Ben, IDNSF, Manager, November 2017)

The quote above largely describes the difference in approach to SDP activities in relation to other SDP actors. Indeed, other SDP projects have regularly worked with close links to non-sport related interventions, especially in education and health (see Kidd, 2011) and have seldom sought to develop the existing sport structures (Hasselgård, 2015). Gleaned from previous experience that led to a sense of competition amongst other SDP initiatives, the IDNSF chose instead to work alongside the existing sport structures (i.e., sport federations and local SDP programs) rather than creating and leading new sport programs in the areas of operation.

*Focusing on sport: “[Don't] start with AIDS, start with football.”*

The IDNSF's “sports first” model (Ben, personal communication, November 17, 2017) was another reason for focusing on working with the Southern sport federations. The “sports first” model represented the IDNSF's efforts to concentrate on creating ways for local communities to access mass-participation recreational sport programming. This model was founded on the view that participation in recreational sport was intrinsically valuable in and of itself. Since the local sport governing bodies in Norway were responsible for maintaining accessible recreational sport for the masses, the IDNSF focused on working with the Southern sport federations expecting to develop a similar set of systems in the areas of operation. In his role as an adviser for the IDNSF, Frank explained how sport was valued in the IDNSF's SDP efforts:

[...] when speaking of education for instance, sport can also be an arena for informal education. Because we believe that sport is also a place where you learn leadership skills and life skills. And in societies where we work, we believe that informal competence, in a way, is as important as the formal competence and skills and knowledge you get from the school system. And of course, it (participation in sport) has health benefits (Frank, IDNSF, Adviser, December 2017)

Here, Frank discussed how education, leadership skills, life skills, and physical fitness were among the benefits reaped from participation in sport. Indeed, Frank's perspective was complemented by one of the key SDP advertisement posters created by the IDNSF that outlined how sport "offers opportunities for mastering new skills, development of leadership, and the feeling of being included" (IDNSF, n.d., p. 5). The IDNSF built its focus on developing mass-participation sport systems upon the set of beliefs centred on the utilitarian values of sport. The IDNSF's personal experiences working in SDP and its observations of other models utilized in the realm of sport and development further reinforced the opinion that the "sports first" model should be adopted in the IDNSF's SDP efforts.

Drawing from personal experience working in SDP, Ben described in the quote below how the IDNSF first developed its approach to SDP:

In the beginning, we were fairly focused on developing sport [focused programs], although not so much on the organizational issues, but more on capacity building. Then we went into this trap. When AIDS came out as the 'big thing,' of course there were resources available for that and we went to that. We started [a program focused on AIDS]. Easy to get additional funding. And it made sense but we forgot to strengthen the [sport] system. We forgot the tool, sport! [We created] fancy programs, educating youth

to run [the program focused on AIDS]. But it became an activity next to sport, not integrated. We were not able to integrate it because we were not focusing on the sports [system] itself. It became almost like a competitor [for resources] to the existing [sport] structure. And we realized that and we changed focus and went back to the old idea. There are still programs addressing HIV/AIDS, but [we decided to focus on] sport first. We have a slide saying ‘Kelvin is not coming to the football session to hear about AIDS. He is coming there to play football.’ And [we] use that opportunity to address HIV/AIDS. But not start with AIDS, start with football (Ben, IDNSF, Manager, November 2017)

The quote above traced the IDNSF’s experience of working in SDP, where the focus moved from developing sport programs to creating programs centred on achieving AIDS-related goals. Ben pointed to funding as a key motivation for the IDNSF to move away from focusing on sport programming, and how the AIDS program was effective in utilizing sport to raise issues associated with HIV/AIDS. However, Ben also described how the AIDS program was unsustainable and acted as a competitor for resources among other local SDP efforts. Thus, in an attempt to focus on its area of expertise (i.e., working with sport rather than addressing AIDS goals), the IDNSF ultimately made the decision to concentrate on working alongside the existing local sport structures (i.e., sport federations and local SDP programs) in creating more opportunities for people to participate in sport. This decision was made with the belief that recreational sport would be able to attract the masses while also creating a broader forum for discussion about inequalities, development goals and social issues:

[...] we (the IDNSF) would like to see [the NDA] [...] be a bit more clear on exactly what they believe the benefits of sport are. And also to acknowledge that sport is not only a tool to reach other goals outside [of] sport. I think if you manage to organize or to offer

quality sports, that is in a way, enough. I don't think we should be asked to do more than that. Because if sport is of good quality, it is a safe place to be, it is a place where you will learn, it's a place where you will meet friends, socialize, and there are so many positive aspects of sports. (Frank, IDNSF, Adviser, December 2017)

The IDNSF's observation of how sport was adopted by other SDP actors contributed to its decision to work alongside local sporting bodies. This observation was based on the IDNSF's belief that sport required a degree of structure (e.g., qualified instructors leading programs) in order for it to be effectively utilized as a development tool:

The problem is often that they [other SDP actors] don't acknowledge that the sport must be of certain quality to be attractive. They use it for events maybe, they use it for program[ming]. They are misusing sport. Because we strongly believe, we say sport first. Then you can add all the social elements to it. [...] So doesn't mean that UNICEF shouldn't use sport for development. But they should partner with sport to make the quality of the message better. But that hardly exists. We have tried hard to get these partners together, but it's hard. And that is where we are different from most countries in the world. We acknowledge that it is a 'sport first' message. [...] Then you can add all the social elements to it. [The programs] have to have a fairly good instructor to make the training fun. Make sense. All these things. You can't have just anyone throwing a ball in hopes for the best (Ben, IDNSF, Manager, November 2017)

Ultimately, the IDNSF sought to provide more opportunities for people to access "quality" mass-participation sport in the areas of operation. Accordingly, the IDNSF believed that the Southern sport federations were best-suited (among all other sport and development actors) to provide local, sustainable, and long-standing access to mass-participation sport. This belief was largely

due to an understanding that Southern sport federations shared a degree of mutual acceptance of the potential role of sport in development (e.g., the utilitarian value of sport). In turn, the Southern sport federations had access to resources that would aid in providing “quality” sport, such as access to instructors, equipment and space. While the IDNSF recognized that the Southern sport federations often focused on high-performance sport, the IDNSF was also confident that sport and development efforts would be much more sustainable if the Southern sport federations were convinced and encouraged to commit to mass-participation recreational sport. Thus, the IDNSF sought to reform the organizational structure and focus of the Southern sport federations such that the sporting bodies would be able to create, manage and lead its own mass-participation sport programs.

*“Strengthening” Southern sport systems – What does it mean?*

According to the 2012-2015 funding application (IDNSF, 2011, p. 4), the IDNSF’s key objective was to “develop organizational capacity and structures [of partner organizations] to ensure opportunities for children and youth to participate and benefit from sport and life skills programs/activities without discrimination.” According to the document, the IDNSF’s partner organizations (e.g., Southern sport federations) often lacked the organizational structure (e.g., policies and practices) to promote mass-participation sport. Since the IDNSF was affiliated with Norwegian sport federations and had experience working with mass-participation sport structures in Norway, it made sense for the IDNSF to work alongside the Southern sport federations to “strengthen” the structure by co-establishing systems of policies and practices that would foster a longstanding interest in mass-participation sport. Put differently, the IDNSF sought to replicate the Southern sport systems after the Norwegian model of mass-participation sport.

In the funding application (IDNSF, 2011), the IDNSF suggested that the development of mass-participation focused practices and policies would make sport safer and more accessible to potential participants. Alongside greater accessibility to sport seemed to be an expectation of increased participation levels and ultimately, a growing number of individuals benefiting from the implied intrinsic values of sport (e.g., education, leadership skills, life skills, gender empowerment, etc.) (Frank, personal communication, December 7, 2017). Thus, the IDNSF saw the “strengthening” of the Southern sport system as being the key to addressing its policy imperatives: to advocate for human rights and promote gender equality through sport. In particular, this segment looks to the ways that the IDNSF encouraged its partners to: 1) contribute to a reporting culture; 2) develop organizational policies; and 3) create opportunities for building cohesion among SDP actors (e.g., training opportunities) as efforts to strengthen the Southern sport systems.

#### *Reporting for Legitimacy.*

Organizational practices used to monitor, evaluate and report findings were areas of focus for the IDNSF in its SDP efforts. That is, the IDNSF worked to ensure that “all [IDNSF] partners [were] trained and [had] the tools to implement transparent and accurate financial accounting and external auditing routines” (IDNSF, 2011, p. 29). Transparency and accuracy in accounting were considered by the IDNSF to be desirable organizational traits, and vital in building trustworthy, legitimate and sustainable organizations. Further, by having partners that adopted the administrative practices such as annual plans, financial reports, and narrative reports, the IDNSF was better adapted to then report findings to the NDA – to secure funding (IDNSF, 2011). In the study herein, the partners and stakeholders specifically refer to a Norwegian SDP NGO working in the South, local SDP programs, and the Southern sport federations that were involved.

Ultimately, the development of a reporting culture demonstrated the IDNSF's expectation for its partners to account for expenses and provide progress reports in order to receive funding.

For example, the IDNSF required its Norwegian SDP NGO partner to continually submit a myriad of reports to outline progress and expenses. To contextualize, the Norwegian SDP NGO partnered with members of the local community where the SDP NGO was working, and developed a mass-participation focused martial art SDP program. Thus, much of the Norwegian SDP NGO's spending was related to expenses associated with running the local SDP program (e.g., renting space, buying equipment, providing honorariums to program instructors, training local sport instructors). During the research process, access to a number of the Norwegian SDP NGO's progress reports, logical frameworks, and documents outlining expenses was granted (Owen, personal communication, February 3, 2018). The reports documented information such as the SDP NGO's spending habits, objectives, indicators of success, baseline data, and testimonials from participants. Along these lines, during one of the interviews, Owen, one of the Norwegian SDP NGO board members reflected on why a reporting culture was required by the IDNSF:

But, you know, [reporting is] just to safeguard against [financial] corruption. Because I guess [financial corruption is] the biggest risk with non-government organizations and basically any organizations that get funded by a government fund. That you have to be sure that the money the organization is getting is being used for what they're saying that they are using it for. Not something completely else. All the reports and all the questionnaires and everything act to safeguard and make sure that this (financial corruption) doesn't happen. (Owen, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board Member, December 2017)

According to Owen, the Norwegian SDP NGO understood and agreed with the process of adopting and maintaining administrative practices as a necessary system to promote legitimacy and transparency as an organization. Further, Owen suggested that organizations should demonstrate transparency and accountability within the funder-recipient dynamic in order to ensure a good working relationship between partnering organizations. While the Norwegian SDP NGO understood the value of ensuring transparent and accurate reporting, the focus on administration was an area that the Norwegian SDP NGO lacked expertise in. The limitation in administrative abilities made sense since the Norwegian SDP NGO was more interested in concentrating on the sport-related needs of the local SDP program. In response, the IDNSF designated employees to support the Norwegian SDP NGO through mentorship opportunities. For instance, the IDNSF assigned an individual to oversee the editing and managing of the administrative duties (e.g., completion of funding application) for the Norwegian SDP NGO:

Sometimes we send in a draft to [the IDNSF associate] and she does the feedback and says 'This is okay, but this, this and this needs to be improved and here are some key points on how to improve it.' But that's okay. It's a dialogue and she basically helps us out to be able for us to meet the requirements [for funding] in a satisfactory manner. I think it would otherwise be very difficult for us to get funding from [the NDA and the IDNSF] if we did not have the expertise and help that [the IDNSF], especially [the IDNSF associate who] is giving us [input] through our collaboration with them. (Owen, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board Member, December 2017)

Owen described how the IDNSF required its partners, and in particular, the Norwegian SDP NGO to be able to practice reporting and accounting prior to receiving funding from IDNSF.

Owen also recognized that the IDNSF did not simply impose its reporting demands on the

Norwegian SDP NGO; rather, the IDNSF provided resources for its partners to succeed in developing systems in monitoring, evaluating and reporting. Oliver, in his role as another Norwegian SDP NGO board member, described his experience working with the IDNSF in the process of learning new administrative practices and developing reporting systems:

So with [the IDNSF], they have taken a lot of workload off of us. It was always a lot of work writing all the applications, having all the formal papers in order. Since we have always been volunteers, so we did this on weekends and evenings. They have taken over and made the applications much more professional. All our documents are much more in order than they used to be. (Oliver, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board member, November 2017)

Ultimately, there was positive feedback from the Norwegian SDP NGO on how the IDNSF approached the development and adoption of auditing and accounting routines. The Southern sport actors (e.g., Southern sport federations and local SDP program) working alongside the Norwegian SDP NGO were also required to adopt similar administrative practices. Just as how the IDNSF supported the Norwegian SDP NGO in developing reporting routines, the SDP NGO in turn encouraged the Southern sport actors to adopt similar practices to prevent corruption, maintain organizational transparency and establish a working relationship with existing and potential funders.

#### *Policy Development for Legitimacy.*

Staff from IDNSF suggested that their partners (i.e., the Norwegian SDP NGO, Southern sport federations and the local SDP program) needed to establish organizational policies as a way to develop the ability to sustain SDP efforts in the South (Norwegian SDP NGO, 2016). The creation of organizational policies was a means to legitimize the SDP actors and its efforts: first,

by outlining the organizations' roles and values and forming regulations and standards for leaders and participants to follow; and second, by demonstrating to potential funders the commitment to achieving development goals and its accomplishments. According to Ben, the manager of the IDNSF, the requirement for recipient organizations to create policies related to its SDP efforts was an aspect that distinguished the IDNSF from other SDP funders:

We are sort of different from most funders because we acknowledge that we need people to run the business [of maintaining SDP efforts], which most donors do not. We are working on policy development and things like that to make it (the SDP efforts) sustainable. (Ben, IDNSF, Manager, November 2017)

Along these lines, the IDNSF made it necessary for its partners to establish and implement policies concerning topics such as child protection, gender harassment in sport, financial management, safe sport guidelines, and strategies to promote mass-participation sport (see NDA, 2015). Since the IDNSF's partners were relatively young in the SDP realm, they did not have a comprehensive set of policies to outline the commitment to use safe and accessible sport as a means to address wider development goals (e.g., human rights, gender equality). When asked to provide an example of a policy that was required by the IDNSF, Owen described how the code of conduct was one of the key policies the Norwegian SDP NGO developed:

Well, for instance, we have the code of conduct which is basically our revised code of conduct that we got from [the IDNSF] which sets rules and regulations on how [the] members [ought to] act when they are involved with the project. (Owen, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board Member, December 2017)

The demand for there to be a presence of policy – from codes of conduct to documents describing the organizations' commitment to safe and accessible sport – suggested that policy

development was considered to be a way to legitimize the SDP actors' activities. The written form of declaring rules, regulations, and standards represented a degree of formality and order that was previously otherwise absent. By developing a policy on, for example, gender harassment in sport, the organization publicly asserted and documented its position against gender inequality. In so doing, the Norwegian SDP NGO was considered by the IDNSF to be more legitimate and committed as compared to other organizations unable to express in writing its role, values and objectives.

Since the IDNSF received funds from the NDA to develop SDP initiatives, the IDNSF was responsible for reporting the progress of its SDP efforts. The increasing number of Southern SDP actors that developed rights-based policies (e.g., child-protection and gender inclusive policies) was used as an indication that the Southern SDP context progressively adopted strategies to promote human rights and gender equality. In particular, when the IDNSF applied for funding in 2011, an increase in the number of partner organizations that applied rights-based policies was emphasized – since “none of [the IDNSF’s] partners [had] rights-based policies in operation” (IDNSF, 2011, p. 29). More specifically, the IDNSF projected that “30% [of all partners would apply rights-based policies] in 2012; 55% in 2013; 70% in 2014, 90% in 2015” (IDNSF, 2011. p. 29). In the Final Results Report that covered the timeframe between 2012-2015, the IDNSF stated that it had met the projected goals (IDNSF, 2015). The data reported is as follows:

- 94% of [the IDNSF’s] partners have codes of conducts and procedures for breach of codes. 90% of [the IDNSF’s] partners trained their staff on [reasons] why [they] have codes of conduct and [are] following protocols, 3,400 staff and volunteers were trained.

- 13 of 16 (81%) partners have child protection policies and trained staff and volunteers on behavior guidelines for working with children. The three partners not using a child protection policy do not work directly with children.
- 100% of [the IDNSF's] long-term partners have HIV/AIDS policies (requirement of past partnership agreements).
- 70% of [the IDNSF's] partners have corruption policies in place, with operational procedures. Their staff and volunteers are trained on the procedures. (IDNSF, 2015, p. 6)

The data above demonstrated the emphasis placed on the IDNSF's partners (i.e., the Norwegian SDP NGO, Southern SDP programs and Southern SDP federations) to develop and adopt policies as a means to legitimize its SDP activities. The IDNSF believed that in order for its partners to be sustainable and effective in organizing and managing its SDP efforts, the SDP actors (i.e., Norwegian SDP NGO, Southern sport federations, local SDP program) should develop organizational policies. Thus, the IDNSF required the SDP organizations to develop policies to outline organizational roles and objectives, and to demonstrate progress in addressing the development goals associated to the SDP efforts (i.e., promoting human rights, gender equality)

#### *Developing cohesion between Southern SDP actors.*

According to the IDNSF, the Southern sport system lacked the infrastructure to support long-standing mass participation efforts. That is, the Southern sport federations were concentrated largely on elite sport goals, and therefore, its leaders were not trained on matters of mass-participation (e.g., promoting gender equality in sport, child harassment intervention, working with disabled individuals). Further, the local SDP programs that promoted mass-participation sport lacked program leaders that were knowledgeable in the sport and able to teach

and lead the programs. Thus, the IDNSF trained the Southern sport federation leaders on the importance of mass-participation sport and encouraged the federations to provide sport instructors to local SDP programs.

In his role as the manager of the IDNSF, Ben described how the absence of interest in mass-participation sport in the areas of operation was one of the reasons why the IDNSF became involved:

Because well the thinking is that, especially in the beginning, there was *no* focus on ‘sport for all’ in the global South. It was only about the national team and the elite. [...] Of course they are aware of it, but there was no focus on ‘sport for all.’ That is partly why we came in. (Ben, IDNSF, Manager, November 2017)

To address the lack of existing systems to train sport federation leaders on sport for all, the IDNSF used various means to provide training opportunities with the specific aim to focus on the provision of mass-participation focused sport. For example, the IDNSF funded Norwegian SDP NGOs to send Norwegian coaches and program leaders to conduct seminars with Southern sport federation leaders on the importance of gender equality and child protection in sport. Another example would be the establishment of a transnational network of sport leaders to standardize coach development (e.g., coaching strategies) and training on mass-participation sport (e.g., curriculum; building sport clubs). Frank described the IDNSF’s initiative as follows:

Yeah, we don’t implement activities. We focus on the structures. [...] We have a consultant. He is a Norwegian based out of [an African country] with our partners in [this area] and [he is] trying to put together an accreditation system for coaches. It is similar to the education sector. Because if you do your bachelor’s degree in Canada, you can do your Masters in Norway, right? Because your bachelor’s will be acknowledged in

Norway. So we have been trying to do that for some time where you take a basic coaching course which is acknowledged by the whole region, do that in [one African country], you can continue with the next level if you travel to [another African country]. It is hard to implement [...] [and we are] also working at the national level trying to help [sport federations] build better coaching and training sectors (Frank, IDNSF, Adviser, December 2017)

Since the IDNSF's approach to SDP focused heavily on the perspective that sport must be of "good quality" with "organizational structures in place" in order for sport to be used as "an effective tool for peace and development" (IDNSF, 2011, p. 5), the limited number of qualified local sport leaders in the Southern SDP programs was considered to be problematic. That is to say, the lack of qualified local sport leaders meant two things for the IDNSF: first, without local sport leadership, the SDP efforts were considered to be unsustainable; second, without qualified sport leaders, the quality of the SDP efforts were assumed to deteriorate and would therefore be deemed to be ineffective in addressing goals such as human rights advocacy or gender equality. From Ben's view, having trained sport leaders was integral to providing quality SDP programs:

Because we strongly believe, we say sport first. Then you can add all the social elements to it. [Practicing a martial art] in your (Kelvin) case, they have to have a fairly good instructor to make the training fun. Make sense. All these things. You can't have just anyone throwing a ball in hopes for the best. (Ben, IDNSF, Manager, November 2017)

In this context, the IDNSF encouraged the Southern sport federations to provide training for local SDP program leaders. This made sense because the sport federations had the human resources to develop instructors knowledgeable and qualified to lead the SDP programs' mass-participation efforts. It was assumed that the Southern SDP programs would benefit in the

quality of the content (i.e., the sport programming), and would therefore grow due to the presence of a qualified sport leader. The sport programs would then be able to reach a wider audience to discuss the issues of gender inequality and the human right to sport. Ben drew from my experience with martial arts as an example, where he explained how in sport, an instructor, and not “just anyone” was an integral part of creating a memorable sport experience. Thus, for Ben, having qualified sport program leaders was part and parcel to the strengthening of the Southern sport system.

Ultimately, the IDNSF’s approach to strengthen the Southern sport systems largely focused on developing organizational practices that would legitimize the Southern SDP actors’ efforts and increase cohesion among Southern SDP actors. The IDNSF believed that through establishing reporting routines, developing organizational policies and creating opportunities for interaction between the Southern sport federations and local SDP programs, the Southern sport systems would have a firm foundation to build sustainable mass-participation sport. While the IDNSF’s key policy imperatives for SDP was the advocacy of human rights and gender equality through sport, the IDNSF focused on ensuring that the means to achieve the policy imperatives were established. That is, the IDNSF concentrated on building mass-participation sport in the South, with the belief that participation in recreational sport would act as a forum to promote human rights and gender equality.

#### ***4.1.4 Norwegian SDP NGO***

Out of the array of Norwegian SDP initiatives funded by the IDNSF, a particular Norwegian SDP NGO was of interest to this study. The Norwegian SDP NGO was formed in 2002 and focused on establishing locally managed SDP programs in communities in a South-central Asian country and a Southern African country. In particular, the SDP NGO sought to

create local SDP programs concentrated on teaching martial arts to children – especially those who otherwise did not have access to recreational sport. As I previously explained in the methods chapter, I selected the Norwegian SDP NGO because I shared a similar interest in the specific martial art that the NGO promoted in its programs and I was curious about its approach to achieving development goals.

The Norwegian SDP NGO's key policy imperatives were to promote gender equality and advocate for the right for all to access sport. The SDP NGO sought to address these policy imperatives by developing locally-led, mass-participation focused martial art programs in the South-central Asian country and the Southern African country. The programs were meant to challenge heteronormative understandings of gender roles and to attend to the absence of local mass-participation sport opportunities.

According to the interviews, all of the Norwegian SDP NGO members shared experiences participating, competing, and teaching the martial art that the SDP NGO focused on in its activities (Brooke, personal communication, March 14, 2018). Therefore, it made sense that the SDP NGO's efforts were based on the particular form of martial art shared amongst its members. The SDP NGO acknowledged the IDNSF's belief that participation in sport (and in this case, participation in the martial art) held intrinsic value. For example, Owen described below how participation in the martial art program would empower participants:

The key objective is to basically try to give children, youngsters and especially women and girls the ability to attend [martial art] training. And in that way, help them to empower themselves, and give them something in their daily lives that they can master and something they can achieve and be proud of themselves. To give them a better chance of feeling good about themselves. To improve their self-esteem, and also the

physical and psychological aspects of training. You know, you train your body, you improve your physical and mental abilities. (Owen, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board member, December 2017)

The belief that sport participation is inherently beneficial to the participants' physical, mental and social well-being – all the time – has been heavily critiqued in the literature (see Hayhurst, 2014; Kidd, 2011). Indeed, the issues surrounding an over-emphasis on agency (e.g., “they can empower themselves”), and the neglect of the influence of social, political and economic structures in which individuals face. This is further discussed in Chapter 5.5; however, the SDP NGO negotiated these areas of tension by acknowledging that participation in the sport program must also be coupled with efforts to ensure the involvement of local leaders. Put into practice, the SDP NGO acknowledged that sport participation played a role in addressing the key policy imperatives; however, the development of a role model system through the sport program was equally important in promoting gender equality. Thus, the SDP programs advocated for the right for all to accessible sport by collaborating with orphanages and schools, and opening space for children and youth to participate in recreational sport. Moreover, the SDP programs trained community members interested in becoming program instructors to ensure that the programs had leaders informed of local needs and local goals. The SDP programs promoted gender equality by mentoring female program leaders, and by ensuring that young girls had dedicated space to play and learn (i.e., separated from boys) when needed, to respect local customs and values. Moreover, the SDP NGO trained program leaders on areas of organizational practices and administration required to maintain a self-driven and sustainable program.

The Norwegian SDP NGO established local SDP programs to work closely with orphanages and schools in communities where poverty and gender norms prevented individuals

from accessing sport. The martial art programs' key aim was to provide a space for participants "to belong, ... [where] health, self-esteem and equality between gender and ethnicities are promoted" (Norwegian SDP NGO, 2016, p. 5). Owen described below his understanding of the Norwegian SDP NGO and the local SDP programs' approach:

[...] a lot of the children and women taking part in these training projects in [the community], a lot of them are orphans or missing one or two parents, and they are basically not resource-strong. They have challenging life situations. [...] So, for instance, some of them, you know they can't afford to go to school so they have to work on the streets [...] They would not be able to have their parents pay for them to go to training sessions or activities of any kind if they had to pay for it. [The local SDP program is] completely free for them to participate. It's basically offered to those who need something more that don't have that much. (Owen, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board member, December 2017)

The Norwegian SDP NGO funded the local SDP programs to rent space and buy equipment needed to run the practices. The space was used to invite local children and youth to join the practices, where instructors would lead games, teach techniques, and supervise when participants were invited to spar with one another. More practice sessions were developed as interest and demand increased.

***"The training of trainers."***

[...] in the beginning we had a goal that every time we went there (into the communities) within twenty-four hours we should be at the [program]. Very hands on. We were training 6 o'clock in the morning. Three trainings in a row with street children and then

we went to the orphanage training. We were trainers in the beginning. (Brooke, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board member, March 2018)

As the SDP programs grew in participants, the Norwegian SDP NGO sought to train and mentor more locals to become program instructors. The Norwegian SDP NGO placed great value on ensuring that the local SDP programs had leadership equipped and able to promote mass participation sport and advocate for gender equality. The SDP NGO believed that the program instructors played a crucial role within the context of the SDP program, in that instructors frequently had the chance to develop rapport with participants and were often looked up to. According to Oliver, the instructors taught sport specific skills during the program and were recognized as role models:

Because [the martial art] is not like football where you can just play with a ball, it demands much more structure. You need [a uniform], you need [mats], you need a coach to teach you. You can't sort of explore by yourself and learn new techniques. You need someone to teach you. [...] And then because of that, you have role models, you are able to learn new things and get good experiences. (Oliver, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board Member, November 2017)

Oliver believed that as role models, instructors were in positions of influence and therefore, were able to encourage and promote the values of the program to the participants. For example, the presence of a female program instructor would potentially influence the way that children perceived the role of women in society. This was particularly relevant since the Norwegian SDP NGO worked in areas where the gender norms regularly excluded the involvement of women in the public sphere (e.g., in sport) or in positions of public leadership. Through this quote, Oliver outlined the Norwegian SDP NGO's assumption that sport coaches and all leadership involved

would become good role models for participants. The SDP NGO recognized that training was required for program leaders to adopt the responsibilities of becoming a role model. In order to address this assumption, the Norwegian SDP NGO focused on the “training of trainers,” (Oliver, personal communication, November 15, 2017) where the SDP NGO staff actively sought out and mentored interested individuals to become program leaders.

***The training of trainers: female leadership.***

The inclusion of women in leadership positions was an area of focus pertaining to the training of program leaders. First, the inclusion of women in leadership positions was considered as a way to advocate for women’s rights in the areas of operation. According to the 2015 Final Report, leading and participating in the marital art program was used to challenge existing gender norms:

[...] Even leaving the house is difficult as women need male company and approval whenever leaving. Through the inherent values in [participating in the martial art], we [Norwegian SDP NGO] try to show both the women and the men, that women can accomplish great things such as completing a hard workout or teaching techniques. [...] By showing their abilities, we (Norwegian SDP NGO) hope that women’s involvement in society can increase in other places. (Norwegian SDP NGO, 2016, p. 8)

That is, the Norwegian SDP NGO aimed to support female leadership and participation in sport with the expectation that it would affect the way in which women were represented in other areas of social life. Second, as the Norwegian SDP NGO and the SDP program promoted female participation in sport, it was also necessary that the martial art program provided female leaders to accommodate for local customs and values. According to Owen, the local SDP program was equipped with female instructors to allow for “more girls to start [...] since [the SDP NGO] can’t

force the girls to come, but [the SDP NGO] *can* have female [instructors] to conduct training *for females* [to encourage participation]” (Owen, personal communication, December 15, 2017, emphasis included).

Thus, the Norwegian SDP NGO encouraged greater female representation in leadership positions and participation in sport with the hopes that it could challenge gender inequities related to women’s and girls’ abilities to access sporting opportunities. According to Owen, the SDP NGO and the local SDP programs were initially met with resistance from the local community:

Sport for all is [about] letting everyone in the society participate in sport. [...] when they started with the training sessions in [Asian country], it was only for men. And a lot of them were quite reluctant towards the idea of having children – especially women – participating in [martial art] training. It was just unheard of. [...] They weren't too keen on having them participate. [Brooke] told me once that one of the [men] – when she asked them why they didn't want children to participate in training – the [man] answered saying that there is no use having children [practicing the martial art] because they are not any good at it. Which is basically ridiculous to say because you have to start at some point. But that was just the general opinion and attitude towards it in the beginning of the project, like 15 years back in time. But things have changed immensely. Now, it is basically more or less accepted that children and especially women are training [in the martial art program]. That's one thing that's changed a lot. (Owen, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board member, December 2017)

Ultimately, the Norwegian SDP NGO and the local SDP programs observed and documented growing numbers of children and women who participated in the martial art programs. The SDP

NGO attributed the increase of participants to the local community's change in understanding of the role of sport and gender norms. In other words, the SDP NGO saw the growth in numbers – especially an increase in female participants and program leaders – as indicative of the community's gradual acceptance of women and girls in the realm of sport and play. The SDP NGO considered this observation to be a step forward to achieve its key policy imperative of promoting gender equality.

*The training of trainers: administration.*

The Norwegian SDP NGO understood that financial support was required in order for the SDP program to maintain its role within the community. While the SDP program was locally led and had grown in the number of participants, the program still needed the funding to pay for space, equipment and the potential to hire new instructors. The SDP NGO knew that funders often looked to support organizations that had methods of monitoring and evaluation – and therefore, trained the SDP program leaders to adopt similar administrative practices:

The last couple of years have been about focusing on how the [SDP program leaders] can run the projects [...] in a way that is acceptable in accordance with the guidelines that we get from our funders (the IDNSF and the NDA). Because they (SDP programs) have to be able to basically account for everything they do. Every dollar has to be shown. It has to be documented, what they do with the money. [The SDP programs] have to be able to do this themselves. (Owen, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board Member, December 2017)

It was the Norwegian SDP NGO's goal to ensure that the SDP programs were self-sustaining in being able to maintain its operations. The goal was to prevent the SDP programs from developing a sense of over-reliance on the SDP NGO, in the case that the SDP NGO was limited in its ability to aid in the program efforts. Since the SDP NGO considered the programs as the

means to address its key policy imperatives, it was critical that the programs were well-equipped for the long-term:

So our ultimate goal is that each project is completely self-driven, self-reliant except for the economic funding. We want to get to where the project can do all the practical things themselves. Everything associated with the training, like attending and hosting transportations, food, security, and doing all the budgets and financial reporting. (Owen, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board Member, December 2017)

The Norwegian SDP NGO's key policy imperatives for its involvement in SDP was the promotion of gender equality and the right to sport for all. The SDP NGO addressed its policy imperatives by establishing locally-led sustainable mass-participation focused martial art programs. The SDP NGO trained locals – and in particular, women – who were interested in the program to lead and mentor participants. The programs provided space and equipment to children and youth to learn and practice the martial art. Ultimately, the SDP NGO sought to equip the SDP program leaders with the skills and organizational practices such that the programs would be self-sustaining and long-standing – to further the efforts of promoting gender equality and the right to sport for all.

This section outlined the key policy imperatives of four Norwegian actors involved in SDP. In particular, the findings in this section point to the promotion of gender equality and the right to participate in sport as shared policy imperatives among all four actors. The means by which the Norwegian actors used to address its policy imperatives was what made each actor distinct. While the NDIR ended its involvement in SDP, the NDA, IDNSF and Norwegian SDP NGO each approached SDP from different perspectives: the NDA funded Norwegian SDP initiatives; the IDNSF worked with Southern sport federations and SDP NGOs to build mass-

participation infrastructure; and the Norwegian SDP NGO developed locally-led mass participation SDP programs. The next section investigates how differences in organizational values and approaches have led to areas of tension, and how such tension was negotiated among the Norwegian SDP actors in this study.

#### **4.2 RQ 2: How are incongruences in organizational values among Norwegian SDP partners negotiated?**

This section of the broader Results chapter investigates the incongruences in organizational values and the ways in which they were (or were not) negotiated by the IDNSF, NDA and the Norwegian SDP NGO. This section: 1) reiterates the organizational structure and the Norwegian actors that occupies the SDP space in Norway; 2) identifies the incongruences in organizational imperatives and tensions within the partnerships amongst Norwegian SDP actors, and; 3) examines how the incongruences were (or were not) negotiated.

##### ***4.2.1 Organizational structure and organizational values***

The NDA, the IDNSF, and the SDP NGO were the three key Norwegian SDP actors of interest to this section of the study. This is because the NDA, IDNSF and the SDP NGO were the most involved with SDP in the Norwegian SDP space. Figure 1.0 below outlines the donor-recipient partnerships between Norwegian SDP actors. Notably, the Norwegian SDP NGO was one of the few Norwegian SDP initiatives that the IDNSF funded, and similarly, the IDNSF was the only Norwegian SDP-focused organization that the NDA funded.

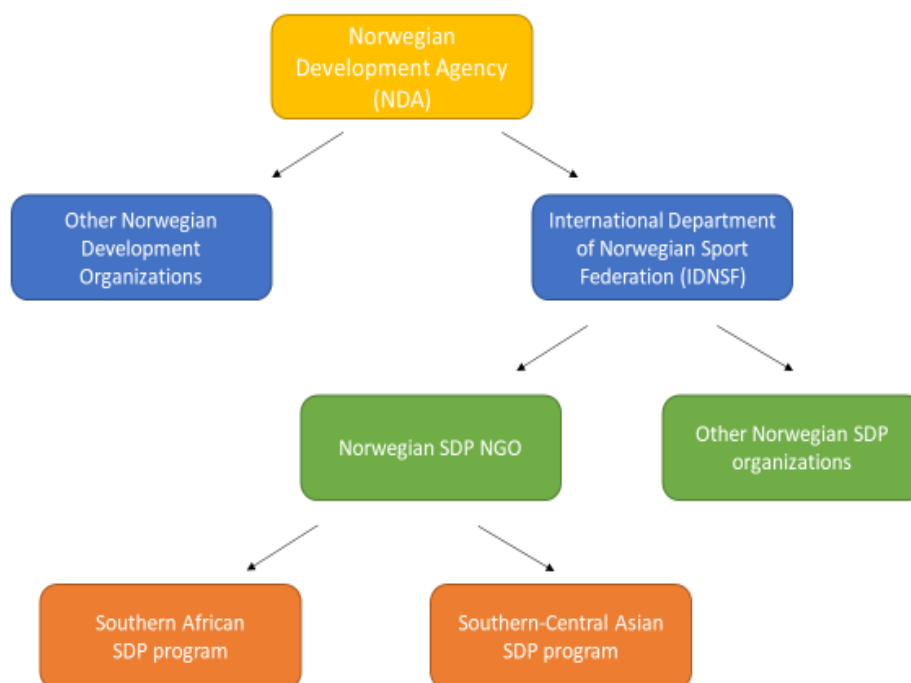


Figure 1.0 – the flow of monetary funding from donor to recipient.

In order to examine the incongruences in organizational values among the three key Norwegian SDP actors, the values of each organization are reviewed in this segment. To recap, the NDA funded the IDNSF to promote human rights and gender equality in and through sport. Due to a lack of expertise in sport, the NDA adopted a quality assurance role to ensure that the IDNSF consistently and regularly reported its progress and expenses. The IDNSF's involvement in SDP largely focused on the training of Southern sport federation leaders such that they would be able to sustain mass participation-based and local-led sport programs. The IDNSF therefore funded opportunities for instructor training, policy development, and administrative training for Southern sport federation leaders. In the same vein, the Norwegian SDP NGO's participation in SDP centred on developing and supporting its associated SDP programs in South Central Asia

and Southern Africa. Specifically, the NGO's participation involved training local program instructors, mentoring program leaders on the administrative duties required to operate the program, and providing funding for equipment and program maintenance.

#### ***4.2.2 Organizational imperative incongruity***

All Norwegian SDP actors involved in this study seemed to experience tensions mostly between top-down (TD) and bottom-up (BU) approaches to (sport for) development efforts. The top-down/bottom-up tension has been well documented in the body of international development literature and SDP scholarship (e.g., Black, 2017; Kidd, 2008; Rauh, 2010; Svennson, 2017), whereby top-down actors and practices often took over bottom-up orientations to development (see Black, 2017; Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010). Two examples of the top-down/bottom-up tensions in the research herein were evidenced through: 1) a culture of managerialism perpetuated by Norwegian SDP donors through their work with recipient entities; and 2) policy development imposed by the IDNSF on to its funding recipients.

Further, this section investigates the tension between sport development (SD) and sport *for* development (SDP) orientations between partnering organizations. Research has documented how the tension between SD/SDP orientations has been problematic – in that partnerships between SD and SDP actors have often led to a focus on attending the goals of one orientation to the neglect of the goals of the other (Black, 2017; Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010). To conclude, this section examines how the TD/BU and SD/SDP tensions were (or were not) negotiated between partners that upheld seemingly opposing development orientations.

#### ***Managerialism: “It is taking away from the [SDP] content.”***

One of the tensions between the Norwegian SDP actors was related to the amount of pressure placed on the NDA's funding beneficiaries to provide administrative measures of

progress. As previously mentioned, the NDA adopted a quality assurance role within the Norwegian SDP space. Thus, the NDA required the IDNSF (and, by association, the Norwegian SDP NGO) to submit organizational reports, financial statements and quarterly questionnaires to be able to remain eligible for funding (IDNSF, 2015). While these practices were integral in maintaining financial transparency, combating financial corruption, and tracking progress (IDNSF, 2015), the IDNSF and the Norwegian SDP NGO members expressed concern with being inundated with administrative processes. For example, in his role as the manager of the IDNSF, Ben described how the administrative processes had a crippling effect on the IDNSF's ability to focus on its SDP efforts:

We (the IDNSF) are struggling still to follow [the administrative requirements]. We find it too complicated sometimes. It is taking away from the [SDP] content. And some of the complaints from our side towards [the NDA] is that we are never in the position to discuss content. It's always about 'This is missing in the report' (Ben, IDNSF, Manager, November 2017)

Though the IDNSF and the Norwegian SDP NGO agreed that systems of monitoring and evaluation were indeed vital organizational practices, interviewees also noted that the actors' organizational values took a proverbial backseat to the administrative duties required by the NDA. Thus, the next section examines how a heavy focus on managerial practices (e.g., bookkeeping, evaluations used to compare goals and outcomes, etc.) used to promote financial accountability, organizational legitimacy, and program effectiveness resulted in the neglect of the organizational values and practices of the NDA's beneficiaries.

*NDA.*

In her role as an NDA adviser responsible for overseeing the funding agreements between the NDA and the IDNSF, Tory described how the NDA had very little knowledge and experience managing SDP initiatives. That is, SDP was an approach that was relatively new and emerging as compared to the other development approaches supported by the NDA (e.g., UNICEF), and therefore, the IDNSF had very few resources to support the IDNSF's efforts. As such, the primary focus for the NDA was to adopt a quality assurance role whereby the quality of SDP initiatives was correlated with the ability to meet the NDA's administrative demands:

[...] as I said, [the NDA did] not [have] a lot of expertise or specific knowledge of 'sport for all' within [the NDA]. Our kind of support would then be more in terms of administration, the quality of their projects, not maybe in the sport sense. More of the administrative and ensuring that things are done in the best possible way. To ensure strengthening of these organizations [by] making sure they follow the agreed reporting deadlines [...] [we] ensured that they achieved the results that they planned for. Through a quality assuring role. (Tory, NDA, Adviser, February 2018)

Thus, the NDA worked to ensure that the IDNSF: 1) met reporting deadlines, 2) consistently submitted progress reports; and 3) achieved the proposed goals. Enforced from the top-down, the (re)production of a reporting culture represented a general focus on quantified managerial practices – where rigorous bookkeeping (rather than organizational imperatives or program quality) was equated to organizational success and acted to secure future funding opportunities. Indeed, the NDA seemed to value the qualities of the development organization more than the effectiveness of the initiatives developed by said organizations. During the interview, Tory reflected on the way in which the growing pressure for the IDNSF to constantly provide

administrative accounts of performance represented the NDA's neglect towards the development goals that the IDNSF sought to address. In other words, Tory described how the NDA's administrative demands took part in shifting the IDNSF's priorities such that the precedence was placed on subscribing to the NDA's reporting culture rather than addressing the IDNSF's own development goals:

Yeah, it's more of the administrative stuff that we focus on. And now I think it's a big discussion on whether the pendulum has swung too much in [that] direction. We're (the NDA) just focusing on the administrative [processes] and forgetting the actual content of these agreements that we're working on [with the IDNSF]. So, I mean, that is definitely a big discussion in [NDA] these days. How do we address the [social] issues as well?

(Tory, NDA, Adviser, February 2018)

The NDA requested for funding beneficiaries (i.e., the IDNSF) to have a comprehensive set of systems for “results-based management (monitoring) [and] evaluation” (IDNSF, 2015, p. 5). This included annual plans, financial reports, narrative reports, annual result reports, and organizational and financial self-assessments (IDNSF, 2015). The IDNSF used the wide array of reports to communicate with the NDA that the IDNSF's efforts were progressive in promoting human rights and gender equality in and through sport:

I think that it is important for us (the NDA) that [the IDNSF] has reflected well on their strategy and that they are able to document it in a way where we can understand, even from a non-sport, technical perspective. So a lot of it is based on them documenting it and communicating well: how they are doing things, how they're foreseeing that this will lead to particular changes, maybe assumptions that they need to address. (Tory, NDA,

Adviser, February 2018)

To summarize, the NDA lacked experience working with SDP and therefore, they largely limited themselves to adopting a quality assurance role. In its quality assurance role, the NDA equated the IDNSF's ability to consistently provide reports, meet deadlines and reach its goals with the organization's capacity to uphold SDP efforts.

*IDNSF.*

According to the IDNSF, the NDA's administrative demands limited the IDNSF's SDP efforts due to the strain placed on the human resources required to maintain accounting and reporting duties. From the IDNSF's perspective, this was due in part to its primary role as a sport-oriented actor rather than a development-focused actor. Since the IDNSF's expertise was in working with sport federations and developing mass-participation sport systems, the upkeep of the administrative duties required by the NDA was difficult for the IDNSF to adapt to. In other words, where resources could have been spent on focusing on the commitment to promoting human rights through SDP initiatives, those same resources were utilized to train members to address the reporting requirements for funding:

We (the IDNSF) find the system hard to answer or follow all the criteria they have. One reason is that this development work (i.e., SDP) is a very small portion [of the NDA's agenda]. [...] All our systems are not the system that [the NDA] requires, [for example] how we do accounting [...] It is much easier for a development organization that has that (development) as their core business. They easily follow the rules and regulations from [the NDA]. [...] We find it too complicated sometimes. It, (the administrative work) is taking away from the [SDP] content. And some of the complaints from our side towards [the NDA] is that we are never in the position to discuss content. It's always about 'this is missing in the report' and this and that, all these bureaucratic things instead of discussing

sport for development and how you go about it. All these things. So that is a frustrating thing that we have towards [the NDA]. (Ben, IDNSF, Manager, November 2017)

From Ben's perspective, the NDA did not value the IDNSF's SDP efforts. That is, according to Ben, the NDA was unaccommodating and largely uninterested in the IDNSF's work: unaccommodating because the NDA seemed to overlook the IDNSF's lack of experience in administration, yet still required a high standard; and uninterested because the NDA seemed to be more focused on the IDNSF's administrative abilities rather than the contents of the SDP efforts. Despite this sense of tension between the IDNSF and the NDA, the IDNSF still required the NDA's funding. Therefore, to meet the demands, the IDNSF delegated resources to focus on administration – which was to the neglect of the IDNSF's SDP work.

On a separate front, part of the IDNSF's SDP responsibilities included partnering with, funding and supporting Southern sport federations, the Southern SDP program and Norwegian SDP NGOs working abroad. Since the IDNSF's partners received NDA's funds – albeit, indirectly through the IDNSF – similar administrative requirements were imposed on to the IDNSF partners. On one the 2016 results report, the IDNSF described to the NDA how the reporting requirements from the NDA should be reviewed. According to the IDNSF, the NDA's reporting requirements were extremely difficult for the IDNSF's partners to meet. In the case that the IDNSF's partners were able to meet the requirements, there were often consequences to the partners and the associated SDP efforts (e.g., reduced financial resources):

The financial reporting requirements need to be improved and made easier for partners. Although developed and implemented by [the IDNSF], operating under strict financial guidelines has required more work, and in some cases reduced the efficiency of [the IDNSF's] processes. We (the IDNSF) feel there is [also] a need to consider options that

take into account the growth of the [IDNSF's] partners in developing their skills and abilities to prepare proper financial reports. This is not to say that we (the IDNSF) will reduce accountability expectations but that we need to look at the capacity of partners and have criteria that respect their levels of competency. An example is where [the IDNSF] has agreements with new partners for small amounts of funds such as \$5,000 and the cost of an international audited report is anywhere from \$2,000 to \$3,000 USD. (IDNSF, 2016, p. 26)

According to the IDNSF's example, there were instances when the cost of monitoring, evaluating and reporting would amount to a sizable portion of the partner's funding and resources. Thus, the IDNSF's request for a review of the necessary sets of administrative practices was driven by the desire to focus its resources (and its partners' resources) on furthering SDP efforts, rather than audited reports for the NDA.

*Norwegian SDP NGO.*

Since the Norwegian SDP NGO was a beneficiary of the IDNSF's funds (and therefore, the NDA's funds by association, see Figure 1.0), similar administrative criteria were expected from the Norwegian SDP NGO. One of the members of the SDP NGO described the pressure of ensuring eligibility for future funding opportunities by closely adhering to the requirements of the IDNSF:

It can look like financial requirements that they (the IDNSF) have to audit, and financial training of our staff. We (the Norwegian SDP NGO) have never done that before. That is something that is needed. And when it is suggested to us, it is very hard for us to say 'No, that's not what we should do.' Of course that is something we should do. (Owen, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board Member, December 2017)

The Norwegian SDP NGO is an organization composed of volunteers with very limited experiences working in the realm of development. With little to no understanding of how to work with the funding applications and reporting criteria, the Norwegian SDP NGO's partnership with the IDNSF was beneficial in maintaining eligibility for future funding agreements:

It was always a lot of work writing all the applications, having all the formal papers in order. Since we have always been volunteers, so we did this on weekends and evenings. So [the IDNSF] have taken over and made the applications much more professional. All our documents are much more in order than they used to be. So I think that has been positive (Oliver, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board Member, December 2017)

While there was a degree of compliance to the rules and regulations set by the NDA and the IDNSF, the members of the Norwegian SDP NGO also recognized the importance of maintaining systems of monitoring and evaluation. When asked why they believed that financial accounting was important, the board member pointed to the ways in which NGOs require systems to safeguard against financial corruption and maintain transparency:

But, you know, that's just to safeguard against corruption. Because I guess that's the biggest risk with non-government organizations and basically any organizations that gets funded by a government fund or any other way. That you have to be sure that the money the organization is getting is being used for what they're saying that they are using it for. Not something completely else. So yeah. All the reports and all the questionnaires and everything acts to safeguard and make sure that this (corruption) doesn't happen (Owen, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board Member, December 2017)

When asked about the challenges associated with the process of applying for funding, one of the Norwegian SDP NGO members described the lack of specific training on the NDA's

administrative demands as problematic. As the IDNSF mentored the Norwegian SDP NGO with strategies to address the managerial practices (e.g., using particular terminology; answering in a ‘correct fashion’), the Norwegian SDP NGO learned more about the reporting culture associated with further funding opportunities:

I guess some of the challenges might be like our understanding of the reports and the requirements. And what [the staff] at [the IDNSF] wants us to fill in. For me who isn't educated within this specific area, [the IDNSF staff help] to understand what the scope of the questionnaire really is. It's a lot of terminology you have to understand and you have to know to basically answer the questionnaire in the correct fashion. So I guess that's one challenge with [the IDNSF]. (Owen, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board Member, December 2017)

Despite the IDNSF's efforts to lighten the work burden by ensuring that the Norwegian SDP NGO's administrative practices met the NDA's reporting standards, the managerial demands were still taxing for the SDP NGO. According to Brooke, the Norwegian SDP NGO was required to delegate some of its fund to keep up with the ongoing administrative work. Brooke further acknowledged that the administrative duties were necessary; however, also expressed frustration when mentioning that the SDP NGO could have spent those same funds on furthering its SDP efforts:

The problem is, of course, that there will be [more] administrative stuff as the organization (Norwegian SDP NGO) gets bigger. Earlier on we could always tell people that 100% of our funding [...] was spent on [the local SDP programs]. Now it's a different story because we have to have 7.5% [from the budget] cover administrative work for example. Which in a way makes it more sustainable. So I'm not saying it's only

negative, but for us for a small project, [the fact that part of the budget is spent on administrative work] feels very negative. But I do understand that this is not necessarily only negative (Brooke, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board Member, March 2018)

In relation to the abovementioned issues highlighted by Brooke, one of the key organizational imperatives for the Norwegian SDP NGO related to the promotion of gender rights through creating opportunities for young girls to participate in sport. In the beginning, the Norwegian SDP NGO members provided female instructors to lead the local SDP programs and to train local females interested in becoming program leaders. As the SDP program grew and the IDNSF and the NDA required more rigorous administrative reporting, the Norwegian SDP NGO designated its resources away from its SDP work and toward addressing the reporting culture of its funders:

In the beginning, we (the Norwegian SDP NGO) had a goal that every time we went there within 24 hours we should be at the [SDP program location]. Very hands on. We were training 6 o'clock in the morning. Three training in a row with street children and then we went to the orphanage training. We were trainers in the beginning. Now it's very different. [...] Like nowadays, it's more administrative work, helping them reporting, planning, but in the beginning, we were trainers (Brooke, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board Member, March 2018)

In order to report back to the IDNSF and the NDA, the Norwegian SDP NGO was required to increase the amount of supervision of its Southern SDP program partners. This took the form of investigating further the details of daily operations and requiring the SDP program leaders to report accordingly. From the perspective of one of the Norwegian SDP NGO members, this contributed to a sense of mistrust between the SDP NGO and the Southern SDP

program and has drawn away SDP program leaders to attend to the work of reporting instead of focusing on the demands of the program:

We (the Norwegian SDP NGO) ask them (the local SDP program leaders) always more and more questions. So they have to report more and more. And some of the questions we ask is maybe very obvious; like 'how many children are at each training right now?' And then they have someone to check out who's there [...] And then we have to start asking controlling questions in a way. What did you do [during] that training [session]? Can you take a photo of that? Can you take a photo of [this]? I think they feel we ask a lot of questions [...] And at the same time we support them less and less. And the reasons why I say we support them less and less is because we have some reductions in the project. But the largest part is that the numbers of [participants are] increasing. Each child is getting less and less. And all the price[s] in [the areas of operation] [are] increas[ing]. So they (the local SDP programs) get less, but we demand more [...] administrative work. And what they (local SDP program leaders) really want to do is be trainers running their course, taking care of their children. (Brooke, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board Member, March 2018)

Ultimately, and taken together, the abovementioned excerpts from interviewees highlight the burden of the managerial demands being felt by the NDA's SDP funding recipients. While various international development scholars point to the importance of organizations (i.e., NGOs) practicing sound management skills in order evaluate program effectiveness, efficiency and themes of financial accountability (see Lister, 2003; Suchman, 1995); others suggest that these same actors must be able to preserve their autonomy, organizational mandates, and identities in order to achieve the goals set for SDP (e.g., addressing gender inequalities) (see Hayhurst &

Frisby, 2010; Rauh, 2010). In contrast, interviews with NDA funding recipients demonstrated that the managerial culture imposed on the NDA was largely non-negotiable, and fund recipients were required to abide by the demands in order to continue to receive funding. In short, the NDA's reporting culture caused the IDNSF and the Norwegian SPD NGO to divert a significant amount of human resources and attention toward addressing the administrative requests of the NDA. Since the IDNSF and the Norwegian SPD NGO had limited resources to begin with, the results indicate that the NDA's reporting criteria resulted in the partial neglect of the organizational priorities and SDP goals set out by the IDNSF and the Norwegian SPD NGO.

### ***Policy Development and Implementation***

The development and implementation of policy was another area of organizational tension. In particular, this tension was described between members of the IDNSF and the Norwegian SPD NGO.

As discussed in previous sections, the IDNSF used its resources to support its fund beneficiaries (i.e., the Norwegian SPD NGO, Southern sport federations and Southern SDP programs) in building organizational structure and practices that would promote safe and accessible mass participation sport. In order to have wide-spread influence, the IDNSF believed that the Southern sport federations required the development and implementation of policies concerned with topics such as corruption and gender-harassment prevention. For instance, the IDNSF provided examples of corruption-prevention policies (e.g., documents outlining the expectations for partners to uphold degrees of monitoring and evaluation) for the Southern sport federations to further develop in writing. The implementation of such policies took the form of coaching and

expecting the Southern sport federations (among other IDNSF's partners) to accurately produce proper monitoring and evaluation practices (e.g., organizational reports, fund accounting). Further, the IDNSF considered policy development as a means to increase organizational legitimacy – in that organizations with written policies on its role, goals and approach to development were considered to be more legitimate than actors without such policies. In this context, the IDNSF associated organizational legitimacy with the potential for funding. In other words, potential funders were assumed to be more likely to support organizations deemed to be legitimate. Indeed, this was demonstrated when the IDNSF reported to the NDA – in the application for funding – the increase in the number of IDNSF partners that introduced “codes of conducts, child protection, gender and corruption [prevention] policies” (IDNSF, 2016, p. 6) as indicators of organizational success. In short, for the IDNSF, policy development referred to the writing and publishing of documents that outlined practices and conduct that should be expected from its partners. The implementation of such policies was demonstrated through the IDNSF's work to ensure that the policies were placed into practice.

*Norwegian SDP NGO.*

Since the Norwegian SDP NGO was a beneficiary of the IDNSF's funding, the SDP NGO was required to spend resources on developing the policies pertaining to child protection, HIV/AIDS prevention, codes of conduct, and strategies outlining the need for consistent and accurate accounting (Norwegian SDP NGO, 2016). While there was general consensus by the SDP NGO board members to closely abide by the IDNSF's requirements to develop the policies listed above, the findings suggest that the consensus was largely based on a desire to comply with the funder's requests. According to Oliver:

[...] It isn't always easy to get a new boss. Now we (Norwegian SDP NGO) have to answer to them (the IDNSF). There was some friction in the beginning. Before we understood the different roles that we were supposed to have, we felt that they were second guessing our decisions and they were feeling that we were difficult [to work with]. (Oliver, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board member, November 2017)

Notably, where the IDNSF emphasized working with sport actors (i.e., Southern sport federations, the Norwegian SDP NGO) to address gender inequality systemically through policy development, the Norwegian SDP NGO attended to similar issues by working alongside and mentoring program leaders and participants. For example, on the 2016 Annual Report, the IDNSF requested the SDP NGO to include notes specifically on “policy development toward inclusion”; however, instead of developing said policy, the SDP NGO described how its martial art programs were creating spaces where “all ethnicities are training in the [programs] [...] and females are encouraged to join [practices]” (Norwegian SDP NGO, 2016, p. 6). In other words, the issue of ensuring that sport programs were inclusive was approached differently by the two actors: the IDNSF wanted a policy developed; the SDP NGO thought it better to create spaces in its programs that were inclusive of all.

Considering how the Southern SDP programs were funded by the IDNSF through the Norwegian SDP NGO, the IDNSF expected the Norwegian SDP NGO to aid the SDP programs in developing and implementing the policies mentioned prior. Two particular types of policies were mentioned through the interviews with the Norwegian SDP NGO members: 1) child-protection policies, and 2) financial corruption-prevention policies. Brooke commented on her experience with child-protection policy development at the program level:

When we (Norwegian SDP NGO) entered into [a partnership with the IDNSF], they were very scared because they also didn't want us [...] They never asked for us to be a part of their project because, as I said, we were always on the ground; always bottom-up. And our numbers were opposite of what [the IDNSF] normally report[ed]. Because they report like how many policies have you developed and implemented; how many administrative staff do you have? And we were like 'Zero, zero, zero and a thousand children.' So we talked to the [staff] from [the IDNSF] [...] and she told me, 'We were very afraid and scared when you came into our project because we had a totally different culture – in a way – and focus.' And we still have this. Okay, I do understand that it's big to have child abuse policies. I do understand that, but it's very hard when the children on the [mat] are starving. And then say 'No, we will use this money to go there and develop a child abuse policy.' And it feels like the focus is very far away from every day...how their lives actually are in [their communities]. But on the other hand, I do understand...I mean we don't want abused children. The first time, I was in [the area of operation], the trainer there hit the children training. I was completely shocked. And that's actually maybe the only time I said, 'If this ever happen again, we will not cooperate with you. Ever again.' [...]. That was really a culture shock. So I do understand, but we didn't develop a policy. We just said 'No, this is not acceptable.' (Brooke, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board Member, March 2018)

Indeed, the experiences described by Brooke demonstrate critical gaps between the Norwegian SDP NGO's realities on the ground (e.g., starving children) and the IDNSF's more lofty policy aims (e.g., preventing child abuse). Since the IDNSF aimed to address human rights violations and gender inequality through a top-down approach (i.e., strengthening the organizational

practices of Southern sport federations and local SDP actors), the practicality and value of the IDNSF's priorities were consistently questioned by the Norwegian SDP NGO staff members. For example, and from Brooke's perspective, the development of policy overshadowed the very tangible issues related to the extreme poverty, and lack of food security, experienced by the program participants. In addition, Brooke believed that the Norwegian SDP NGO's resources could be better spent on the SDP programming (e.g., program leadership training; providing food for children after practice) rather than developing policies that were "very far away from every day" life. The tension between policy and practice, where policy is regularly discourse-driven, and does not necessarily lead to practice, is further discussed in Chapter 5.1.

The demand from the IDNSF for fund recipients (i.e., Norwegian SDP NGO, and by association, Southern SDP programs) to have policies outlining the reporting criteria was another instance where the Norwegian SDP NGO staff members questioned the value of policy implementation. For the SDP NGO, the development and implementation of corruption-prevention policies at the SDP program level emphasized the need for the program leaders to accurately report expenses and accounting details in a timely manner. During the interview, Brooke described how the development of a policy was not necessary to ensure that the SDP program leaders would abide by the regulations associated with expense reporting. Instead, building rapport and having open communication between the Norwegian SDP NGO and the Southern SDP program leaders was reportedly more effective in ensuring that all expenses were recorded:

And same with like a corruption [policy], we never had a problem with it: trusting our [SDP program leaders]. We had trouble explaining [to] them that if we give [them] money - if we give [them] \$100 - then they are supposed to buy [for example] like ten

[pieces of sport equipment]. And [instead] they buy nine and they give \$10 to a child that was hungry. [Perhaps] because [the child] came to training and there was an extra [child] at the training and they (the SDP program leaders) had to buy extra food for this one child. Which is fine because we (the Norwegian SDP NGO) also have a budget for that. But then they (the SDP program leaders) have to report it. [...] On one hand they (SDP program leaders) feel "Oh you think a [piece of sport equipment] is more important than food?" [And we say] 'No, that's not the point; you have to report and tell us.' And if it's a big change [in money], you have to apply for it before you change it. And these things, we worked a lot, a lot, a lot, but we never developed a policy for it (Brooke, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board Member, March 2018)

Further, on the broader topic of policy development, the annual reports submitted by the Norwegian SDP NGO to the IDNSF pointed to a particular silence when the topic of policy development was raised. That is, despite the IDNSF's stance on the importance of policy development, the Norwegian SDP NGO seldom reported about the process of implementation or the effectiveness of policies in its SDP work. Instead, the annual reports from 2012 to 2016 generally focused on proposing practical strategies to meet the increased number of (female) participants, and the practices adopted in order to ensure punctual and accurate accounting (Norwegian SDP NGO, 2015; 2016). For example, the report detailed how space was secured to create programs in new areas, the establishment of monitoring and evaluation, and the ways the SDP programs were to attain equipment necessary for use. In other words, the reports echoed what Oliver said about the focus of the Norwegian SDP NGO – that the key objective was always to “try to give children, youngsters and especially women and girls the ability to attend [martial art] training” (Oliver, personal communications, November 15, 2017). That is, the

findings emphasized the SDP NGO's approach in prioritizing on-the-ground needs associated with the SDP programs rather than the development of certain policies.

While Brooke highlighted how policy development played an important role in building the organizational practices of the Southern SDP programs, she also pointed to the ways that the development of policy overshadowed the priorities on-the-ground. For the Norwegian SDP NGO and the Southern SDP programs, it was more important to address issues related to structural inequalities such as poverty (i.e., hungry program participants) than it was to develop child-protection policies. Thus, Brooke described the ways in which the funds could have been spent on attending to the SDP NGO's priorities, such as feeding the children after the program session or on building rapport with the local SDP program leaders. Moreover, Brooke described how building rapport and maintaining a working relationship with the Southern SDP program leaders fostered similar results concerning the protection of children from abuse and the prevention of financial corruption. Therefore, to Brooke and the Norwegian SDP NGO, the area of incongruence and tension stemmed from the IDNSF's call to develop policy, which was often to the neglect of the immediate needs of program participants on the ground.

#### ***4.2.3 Sport for Development/Sport Development Tensions***

The tension between a focus on sport development (SD) or sport *for* development (SDP) was another area that was discussed during the interviews with the participants. Where sport development-oriented actors promote sport participation to achieve performance-driven goals in elite sport, sport *for* development actors have often advocated for mass-participation sport to address development goals (see Kidd, 2008). That is, the goals of the initiative largely aid in distinguishing the type of orientation an actor upholds in the realm of sport and development. Previous studies have described how large sporting bodies such as the IOC and national sport

federations have historically adopted a sport development focus in its development initiatives (see Guest, 2009; Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010; Shehu & Mokgwathi, 2007). Since the actors that occupied the Norwegian sport and development space included sport federation associates (e.g., the IDNSF as an actor under the umbrella of a broader national sport federation), and grassroots sport advocates (e.g., the Norwegian SDP NGO and Southern SDP program), the potential for tensions between Norwegian SD/SDP actors was worthy of further examination.

Despite the initial speculation that there would be tension between SD/SDP oriented approaches within the Norwegian sport and development space, each actor strictly prohibited the use of sport and development resources on promoting high performance sport. The individuals interviewed from the NDA, the IDNSF and the Norwegian SDP NGO outlined the ways in which mass-participation sport was the medium through which the actors would work in order to promote its organizational imperatives (i.e., promoting human rights, gender equality, addressing local social issues). This section examines the narratives of the representatives of each organization to outline their perspectives on how goals associated with elite sport were avoided in the Norwegian sport and development space.

#### ***NDA.***

According to Tory, the NDA funded the IDNSF's projects because of the IDNSF's approach in promoting the right to sport and gender equality. The NDA valued the IDNSF's reputation in Norway as a department within the broader sport federation responsible for the development of domestic mass-participation sport. From Tory's understanding, the NDA saw how mass-participation sport in Norway upheld the right to accessible sport and often sought to include women, children and the disabled. Therefore, it was assumed that the IDNSF would be able to produce similar results in the areas of operation:

I think for [the IDNSF], what we (the NDA) see as priorities is more the rights perspective, the fact that they (the IDNSF) are inclusive of people living with disabilities, and children. [The IDNSF] used their experiences in the Norwegian context where people living with disabilities, women and children have been included in policies for participation in sport. [...] So I think that's the angle for the [NDA]. (Tory, NDA, Adviser, February 2018)

When asked about why sport development methods (i.e., a focus on high performance sport) were not funded, Tory suggested that promoting elite sports in the areas of operation would not particularly advocate human rights or address any of the NDA's organizational priorities. On the contrary, the NDA valued the way in which the IDNSF's focus on mass participation sport in its work with Southern sport actors (i.e., Southern sport federations and local SDP programs) represented a step towards influencing systemic change in a top-down manner. That is, the NDA viewed the Southern sport organizations as a point of departure to further influence other areas of society on the themes of human rights and gender equality:

[The IDNSF's] entry point is not that sport should be a vehicle for bringing up other issues which a lot of other organizations have used, where it is a kind of an area to discuss HIV/AIDS, or all other kinds of issues. But [the IDNSF] sees it (sport) as a value in itself, to have that arena, and that it should be an arena that should be safe and democratic which can also then spill over into other arenas in society. So it's kind of building democratic institutions or organizations to ensure inclusion and equality in these organizations. [...] [the IDNSF and the NDA] have an agreed results framework where they have given us certain goals, and these goals are mainly working for 'sport for all' and inclusion, those kinds of phrases. And in any kind of review or evaluation they (the

IDNSF) would have to look at whether or not these goals have actually been met. And if they (the INDSF) phrased their goals differently, in the direction of more elite sports, I don't know if they would get support from us (the NDA). It is an integral part or the reasoning behind the support to [the IDNSF] is the 'sport for all' concept. (Tory, NDA, Adviser, February 2018)

***IDNSF.***

The IDNSF worked within the existing sport structures in the areas of operation (e.g., South-Central Asian region; Southern African region) in order to develop sustainable mass-participation sport models. This was largely due to the fact that the IDNSF drew from its understanding and experiences with working in sport in Norway. From the outset of the IDNSF's participation in SDP, and as demonstrated in the original policy outlining Norwegian involvement in SDP, "the aim of [Norwegian SDP] is to ensure that everyone has maximum opportunity to participate in appropriate physical activities. The [policy] targets grassroots sport. Competitive sport is not included" (NDIR, 2005, p. 37). According to Frank, the Norwegian sport actors (i.e., the Norwegian Olympic Committee and associated sport federations) emphasized the need for grassroots sport programs that advocated for gender equality and inclusiveness through a focus on mass-participation sport. Thus, the IDNSF sought to model its development work after the sporting landscape in Norway to address issues of human rights and gender inequality in the South:

We (the IDNSF) always say that we don't want to push our agenda on our partners. We don't want to go somewhere in the world and say 'You guys are in a bad state. We have the solution to your problems.' [...] We want our partners to be aware what they see themselves as their own challenges. And also to approach us, rather the other way

around. At the end of the day, we have our philosophy. We have our way of thinking. The Norwegian sport model, as we like to call it. Where we emphasize on grassroots sports, inclusion of girls, equality and so on. And when we discuss [SDP] with our partners, we can't also just leave our philosophy behind in Norway. So we need to balance this. We need to look at the needs of our partners but also what we can offer. Because our knowledge also comes from the way sport is being organized in Norway. So if a potential partner asks us to help them to further develop the elite side of sports, then we will most likely turn them down and say that we can't support this work because [they] don't have any grassroots sports. [They] don't have inclusive sports, [they] are not well organized, [they] don't have policies for inclusion, gender, child protection, so on. (Frank, IDNSF, Adviser, December 2017)

When asked why promoting elite sport was not on the IDNSF's agenda, Ben described the way in which high performance sport often acquired funding and support even amidst adverse conditions. Since there were very few grassroots sport programs in the areas of operation, the IDNSF saw it as an opportunity to address a niche in the Southern sport context. Therefore, the IDNSF brought its experience working in the Norwegian sport space to develop systems such that the Southern sport actors would be able to maintain grassroots sport programming:

There was no focus [by the Southern sport federations] on 'sport for all.' That is partly why we came in. And stressed the need for – well there are two arguments: one is that it is nice to do sport anyway. For different reasons. Some might be good athletes. Fine. Fine with us. But we are not supporting it financially. And there is always possible to find funding for elite sport. Even in the most poor countries. [...] But for 'sport for all,' for club development and things, no, that is why we came in. And with the history we have

had with ourselves, with the club system and what have you, that was the natural thing.

(Ben, IDNSF, Manager, November 2017)

Ultimately, the IDNSF explicitly stated its position against supporting systems of elite-sport in the South. The focus on developing models of mass-participation sport took different forms. For instance, the IDNSF sought to develop systems to sustain mass-participation sport in the South that included ensuring that its partners subscribed to the report culture, developing policy, and training Southern sport actors on approaches to mass-participation sport. Further, the IDNSF funded the Norwegian SDP NGO to establish a local SDP programs that focused on providing access to a mass-participation martial art program that targeted children, youth and women.

*Norwegian SDP NGO.*

The Norwegian SDP NGO decided against supporting the elite sport systems in the areas of operation due to two main reasons: first, the Norwegian SDP NGO was bound to the strict regulations by its funder (i.e., the IDNSF) to distinctly refrain from addressing high-performance focused goals; and second, the scope of interest for the Norwegian SDP NGO – from its establishment – was always to provide sport programs such that the masses would be able to participate.

Since the IDNSF outlined the ways in which its funds could not be spent on furthering the potential sport development agenda of the Southern sport actors, the Norwegian SDP NGO was required to follow suit. Isabel pointed to the donor-recipient relationship between the IDNSF and the SDP NGO and how it was one of the factors that safeguarded against funds being potentially used on sport development goals:

Actually, it's because [the IDNSF] doesn't support elite sports. Because there is no funding for elite sports. First of all, because [the Norwegian SDP NGO] gets the money

from [the IDNSF], we cannot help elite sport. So that is very very clear. [...] And that is very difficult to explain to [the Southern sport federations]. But with [the IDNSF], no matter how much money you get, you're not allowed to use it on sport [development] (Isabel, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board Member, February 2018)

In addition to the restrictions placed by the IDNSF, the Norwegian SDP NGO had very little interest in using its resources to further develop systems of elite sport in the South. Historically, the SDP NGO wanted to create the Southern SDP program based on the interest of local community members to participate in a martial art. As previously discussed, prior to the establishment of the SDP NGO, Stephen – one of the founding members – was working in a South-Central Asian country where martial art clubs were scarce and few. Upon discovering a club where he was able to practice, Stephen began encouraging the club leaders to include children in the practices. From there, the Norwegian SDP NGO was created to address the growing interest from the masses to participate in sport. In this context, the goal of the SDP NGO was always to provide the masses with access to a martial art program. Thus, focusing on elite sport goals seemed to be counterintuitive to the SDP NGO's goals:

You mean why [the Norwegian SDP NGO] is not funding elite sports? [...] It's not that we are against elite sport or anything, but the scope of our project is providing sports for the masses. We call in Norway, 'grassroots.' It's basically, the Norwegian sports focus in Norway is to provide sports for *most* (emphasis included) people. To enable people like anyone to attend. [...] So if they (Southern sport federation partners) want to focus on some specific outlets becoming elite athletes and training them and having them compete in tournaments, get ranked, and go to the Olympics and whatever, then that's not the scope of our project. We will not work against it but we will not use our funding to

support individual athletes (Owen, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board Member, December 2017)

Ultimately, the narratives of the Norwegian SDP actors have outlined the importance of developing mass participation sport in its SDP efforts. The actors have specifically highlighted their opposition to spending resources on furthering sport development associated goals. The experiences of inclusivity and gender equality through working and participating in grassroots sport in Norway (i.e., the “Norwegian sport model”) was a key motivation for the Norwegian SDP NGO to concentrate on mass-participation efforts. Thus, for the Norwegian SDP actors (i.e., the NDA, the IDNSF and the SDP NGO) developing systems of mass-participation sport was deemed as a worthy method through which social issues could ultimately be addressed.

This section identified and examined how top-down/bottom-up tensions were experienced by the Norwegian SDP actors. Further, this section investigated the potential sport development/sport for development tensions between the Norwegian SDP actors. The next section outlines the findings that relate to how the SDP actors negotiated the incongruences in organizational imperatives in the context of the tensions outlined above.

#### ***4.2.4 Negotiating Donor-Recipient Relationships in SDP: Tensions and Trust***

The section below draws from the experiences of the active Norwegian SDP actors (e.g., the NDA, the IDNSF, and the SDP NGO) and outlines how the incongruences in organizational values between actors were generally non-negotiable. That is, when there were disagreements between Norwegian SDP partners about organizational priorities, the fund recipient’s imperatives were often ignored in favour of donor priorities (e.g., reporting culture taking precedence over SDP efforts; policy development prioritized over SDP program needs). While there were unequal power relations exacerbated by donor-recipient relationships, there were

pockets of resistance and emphasized autonomy noted by the members of the recipient organizations. Thus, this section explores: 1) the pressure placed by donor organizations on recipients to maintain the donor's approach to development; and 2) the areas of autonomy negotiated between donor-recipient organizations.

The previous sections of this chapter pointed to the ways that recipient entities had organizational priorities and values subordinated in order to answer to the demands of its funders. For the IDNSF, this took the form of prioritizing the administrative demands of the NDA over furthering its SDP efforts in the South. For the Norwegian SDP NGO, a similar form of subordination took place when the SDP NGO was required to give precedence to the development of policy, rather than addressing immediate SDP program needs. In this context, the narratives of the Norwegian SDP actors outlined a great degree of pressure for recipient organizations to meet the concerns of its funders. As Brooke described, the Norwegian SDP NGO was continually compelled to develop rights-based policies by its funders:

Yeah, in one way, we (Norwegian SDP NGO) just have to give them (IDNSF) what they want. So for some of the policies, for example, they just say we have to do them. They have the money so they can just cut it – if we don't deliver what they ask us. (Brooke, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board Member, March 2018)

The consequences of being unable to meet the requirements of funder organizations included the reduction in funding or other forms of disciplinary action (e.g., termination of the partnership). For example, Owen described below how the Norwegian SDP NGO set rules outlining the steps to take if its Southern SDP program partners were to miss reporting deadlines:

So the last one and a half years, we've been focusing a lot on the [Southern SDP] projects being consistent in reporting and documenting what they're doing, basically every month.

If they don't meet our requirements of reporting within the time limits, first week of each month, then we actually have to put into effect a system of reduction in payments or funding in the individual project that did not meet our requirements (Owen, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board Member, December 2017)

While there were no narratives that outlined the ways in which the Norwegian SDP actors were disciplined for being unable to meet its funder's priorities, a common account of struggle emerged from the interviews. That is, the IDNSF and the Norwegian SDP NGO staff members described their concerted efforts to maintain their organizational identities while also addressing the pressing demands of funders. For instance, Oliver from the SDP NGO described the struggles involved in developing a working relationship with the IDNSF:

It isn't always easy to get a new boss. Now we (the Norwegian SDP NGO) have to answer to them. But there was some friction in the beginning. Before we understood the different roles that we were supposed to have, we felt that they [IDNSF staff] were second-guessing our decisions and they were feeling that we were difficult. After we had built a working relationship, it works much better now. They have much more trust (Oliver, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board Member, November 2017)

Ben from the IDNSF also underlined the challenges involved when supporting the funder's development plans:

All our (the IDNSF) systems are not the system that [the NDA] requires. From how we do accounting, and all the systems here. So we always have to have an excuse for being different. [...] We are struggling still to follow it. We find it too complicated sometimes. It is taking away from the [SDP] content. And some of complaints from our side towards [the NDA] is that we are never in the position to discuss content. It's always about 'This

is missing in the report' and this and that, all these bureaucratic things instead of discussing sport for development and how you go about it. All these things. So that is a frustrating thing that we have towards [the NDA]. It's not a very difficult position, but it frustrates us (Ben, IDNSF, Manager, November 2017)

Indeed, and as the quote above suggests, the IDNSF had very little administrative training as a development actor, and therefore, experienced challenges when trying to uphold the administrative standards set by the NDA. Further, Ben described how the process of meeting the NDA's standard was often to the neglect of the IDNSF's own SDP-related efforts.

Despite the struggle to maintain a working relationship between funder and recipient, the Norwegian SDP actors met the requirements in order to ensure future funding opportunities with their partners. In so doing, many of the Norwegian SDP actors described the relationship with its funders as partnerships defined by trust. For example, Ben points to the long-standing collaboration with the NDA and how mutual understanding of the IDNSF's values and goals set out for the SDP efforts (i.e., mass-participation sport as being a method to promote human rights and gender equality) resulted in the building of trust between funder and recipient:

Since we (the IDNSF) have been in the business [of SDP] for so long and have been allowed to have the same partners over many years, there is a kind of trust and understanding our role and [the funder's] role. So I think that you can't base everything on trust, but the risk [of financial corruption] is less, I think (Ben, IDNSF, Manager, November 2017)

Certain Norwegian SDP actors pointed to areas of the funder-recipient partnership where the recipient organization were granted greater autonomy. For example, upon reflecting on the partnership with the NDA, the IDNSF members highlighted the fact that the NDA encouraged

the IDNSF to make key decisions regarding its SDP efforts. For the IDNSF members, the authority to determine the nuances of its SDP efforts as a recipient organization was notable as they compared their situation with other SDP efforts. According to Ben, the NDA was “different from most [funders]. They allowed us (the IDNSF) to concentrate [on] for example organizational business instead of very narrow sided program, targeting girls between 12 and 16 [years old] doing this and that” (Ben, personal communication, November 17, 2017). In the same vein, Frank from the IDNSF also emphasized how the IDNSF held significant influence and autonomy in outlining the details of its SDP initiatives (e.g., target group, organizational imperatives) in comparison to other SDP projects:

Something that is important not to forget and to put into a bigger context: [the NDA] is still supporting us. They are giving [us] three to four year [funding] agreements. To do, not *whatever* (emphasis included) we want to do, but they are not instructing us. Not like with the example of [the country] I gave last time, where the [federal] government went to the sport sector said ‘We will support you, but only if you go to *this island*, and *this island on the Pacific*, and you *only* work on non-communicable diseases (emphasis included). Organizational development? Out of the question. Coach development? No way. Just bring in your people, do the training with the kids, make them active, and you go out after three years.’ I don’t think it was exactly like this, but I am just putting it forward like that. [The NDA] does not instruct us. (Frank, IDNSF, Adviser, December 2017)

Ultimately, the struggle to maintain a working relationship between Norwegian SDP funder and recipient actors was defined by a sense of compromise at the recipient level. That is, incongruences in organizational values and practices were not negotiated since the recipient

organizations depended heavily on the resources of its funders. Thus, despite the tension associated with opposing views on development methods (e.g., a focus on SDP programming rather than policy development), the recipient organization was required to abide by the regulations of its funders to ensure that future funding opportunities remain as a viable and prospective option. While the recipient Norwegian SDP actors discussed the heavy cost associated with meeting funder requirements, the SDP actors also shared success stories in being able to address its key SDP policy imperatives. For example, the IDNSF openly acknowledged that its relationship with the NDA allowed for a greater sense of autonomy as displayed by the ability to make key decisions in its SDP initiatives. Thus, while areas of compromise were recognized amongst the funder-recipient partnerships, the essential organizational imperatives and identities of the Norwegian SDP actors largely remained intact.

This section examined how Norwegian SDP actors experienced differences in values between funder and recipient partners. The interviews with the Norwegian SDP representatives pointed to top-down tensions where addressing the funder's goals were prioritized by the recipient organizations – to the point where certain recipient organizational values and practices (e.g. the IDNSF's focus on SDP efforts; the Norwegian SDP NGO's emphasis on local needs) were compromised. Further, this section explored how the top-down tensions between organizations (e.g., NDA-IDNSF; IDNSF-SDP NGO) were largely inflexible. This was due in large part to the recipient organizations' dependence on the funders' resources, reputation and knowledge in key areas (e.g., expertise in SDP work; knowledge in administration). Finally, this section examined the relationship between the IDNSF and the NDA to demonstrate that the partnership was not simply defined by the constraints placed by the funder organization. On the contrary, despite how the IDNSF's human resources were spread thin to address the funder's

priorities, the members of the IDNSF were grateful for the ways in which the NDA encouraged the IDNSF to make key decisions for its ongoing SDP efforts. The next section of this chapter examines the nature of the partnerships among the Norwegian SDP actors.

### **4.3 RQ 3: What is the nature of the partnerships among the Norwegian SDP actors?**

The previous sections pointed to the Norwegian SDP actors' key policy imperatives, the differences in organizational values and practices, and the way that differences were negotiated. This section examines the motivations behind the Norwegian SDP actors' decisions to establish partnership, to ultimately define the nature of the partnerships among the Norwegian SDP actors. The NDA-IDNSF and IDNSF-Norwegian SDP NGO partnerships were reviewed, and the nature of the partnerships were defined by themes of resource dependency, legitimacy, and reciprocity (see Oliver, 1990).

#### ***4.3.1 NDA-IDNSF partnership: why did the NDA partner with the IDNSF?***

As the primary funding agency for Norwegian development initiatives, the NDA funded many Norwegian development organizations to address development goals such as reducing poverty, promoting the right to education, and attending to gender inequality in areas of need. The NDA partnered with the IDNSF due to two main reasons: first, the NDA employed the IDNSF to achieve the NDA's development goals (i.e., addressing human rights violations and gender inequality in the South). Second, the findings suggest that the NDA used SDP to achieve non-development related goals, such as the establishment of a social image of Norway as a progressive nation involved in SDP.

For Tory, the IDNSF's ability to use sport to address the NDA's development goals was a key motivation for the NDA to pursue the partnership. In other words, the NDA believed that the IDNSF was useful in filling a gap in specialized services (i.e., mass-participation sport) in order

to achieve human rights and gender equality goals. Thus, the NDA funded the IDNSF to develop initiatives to advocate the right to access sport for all – particularly in areas where girls and women did not otherwise have access to sport:

I think for [the IDNSF], what we (the NDA) see as priorities is more the rights perspective the fact that they are inclusive of people living with disabilities, and children. [...] For working with rights and sports and ensuring safe participation for everyone. So, I think that's the angle for [the NDA]. And especially my department [...] where [human] rights are basically the over-riding feature that we see in most of the organizations that we work with. (Tory, NDA, Adviser, February 2018)

In his role as a retired NDIR member, Evan suggested that there were other reasons as to why the NDA was interested in partnering with the IDNSF. Namely, Evan proposed that the involvement of sport in the development agenda was based on the decision to build a particular social image of Norway. In other words, by including sport in the Norwegian development agenda and by funding Norwegian SDP initiatives, the NDIR and the NDA aimed to profile Norway as a humanitarian aid actor involved in relatively contemporary development methods:

There might also be political needs, for instance, in the [NDIR] to profile Norway on the basis for sport [for development]. For instance, there's one case coming up now [whereby] Norway is presenting itself as a candidate [a position within a council]. And then, of course, the [NDIR] in their campaign, in their dialogue, they might again use sport as making Norway more attractive. Or might use it as a tool to profile itself as a leading nation both in sports and generally. Because I think that Norway is probably one of the [top] countries in the world where sport has the strongest position. So to profile itself like for peace, for instance, is something that could be repeated. When and where I

am not so sure, but I certainly think that this [council] candidature could be an opportunity. (Evan, NDIR, Retired member, December 2017)

According to Tory, the NDA partnered with the IDNSF in order to address, in part, its gender equality and human rights development goals. From Evan's perspective, the NDA (and the broader NDIR) was particularly interested in SDP as a development method because of the way in which sport and SDP was able to create a specific political perception of Norway. Ultimately, the findings suggest that the NDA considered SDP to be useful for its organizational goals, and therefore, the NDA partnered with the IDNSF.

#### ***4.3.2 IDNSF – NDA partnership: why did the IDNSF partner with the NDA?***

According to the IDNSF funding application, “of the total aid income and grant [that the IDNSF has received], [the NDA's] funding represent[ed] 74%” (IDNSF, 2015, p. 2). That is, the IDNSF depended largely on the NDA's funding arrangements in order to continue operating in the Norwegian SDP space. To maintain continued funding, the IDNSF aimed to remain current in the development trends that received attention from the NDA. In other words, the IDNSF benefits from marketing its SDP commitments to address development issues that the NDA found interesting and worthy of funding:

In the beginning, we (the IDNSF) were fairly focused on developing sport, [...] [through] capacity building. Then we went into this trap. When AIDS came out as the ‘big thing,’ of course there were resources available for that and we went to that. We started [...] [a program focused on AIDS]. Easy to get additional funding. And it made sense but we forgot to strengthen the [sport] system. We forgot the tool – sport! Thus it became an activity *next* to sport, not integrated. We were not able to integrate it because we were not focusing on the sport club or the [sport] federation in [the areas of operation]. It became

almost like a competitor to the existing structure. And we realized that we changed focus [...] (Ben, IDNSF, Manager, November 2017)

The quote above points to the way in which the IDNSF – in its dependence on resources and its desire to acquire more funding – previously led its involvement in SDP toward other, more trendy goals. In the example above, funding was readily available for development organizations aimed toward addressing the issue of AIDS. As such, instead of concentrating on its specialized focus of strengthening sport systems to be able to provide mass-participation sport, the IDNSF shifted its focus toward producing efforts that would attend to AIDS-related concerns. According to Frank, this was not the only instance where the IDNSF intentionally aligned its goals with the aims of its funder (i.e., the NDA).

From Frank’s perspective, the IDNSF was required to “find their place” within the NDA’s development agenda since involvement in SDP was largely diminished in the Norwegian development agenda. To contextualize, at the time of the interview with Frank, the Norwegian SDP policy was over-written and the majority of the financial support provided was from the NDA. Thus, the IDNSF aligned its approach to SDP with the NDA’s development goals to ensure continued financial support:

Well, sport is not mentioned explicitly now: hardly any official documents from the government or from [the NDA] [include it]. But of course, civil society is high on the agenda. Gender inclusion, inclusion of people with disabilities, education. I think that is where we (the IDNSF) are trying to find our place. Under those headlines. Where sport is not mentioned, but sport, you know, when speaking of education for instance, sport can also be an arena for informal education. Because we believe that sport is also a place

where you learn leadership skills and life skills. (Frank, IDNSF, Adviser, December 2017)

The narratives above point to the IDNSF's dependence on the NDA's financial resources in order to continue participating in SDP. As such, the decision to partner with the NDA was determined largely by the NDA's ability to continue funding the IDNSF's SDP activities.

Ultimately, the findings in this segment highlighted two themes concerning the nature of the NDA-IDNSF partnership: 1) resource dependency; and 2) reciprocity. The IDNSF's dependency on the NDA's financial resources was demonstrated by the way that the IDNSF experienced shifting its focus toward achieving funder goals. While the IDNSF was dependent on the NDA for funding, the NDA also experienced benefits associated with the partnership. In other words, the NDA experienced a degree of asymmetrical mutual benefit through gaining positive political perception (i.e., a progressive image of Norway) and specialized development methods (i.e., SDP) to achieve NDA goals when the IDNSF gained funding.

#### ***4.3.4 IDNSF – Norwegian SDP NGO partnership: why the IDNSF partner with the Norwegian SDP NGO?***

The IDNSF participated in SDP to enact its “willingness to help those sport organizations that are not as fortunate as we are in the Northern part of the world” (Frank, personal communication, December 7, 2017). The IDNSF's partnership with the Norwegian SDP NGO was due in large part to the recognition that sustainable and systemic change in the Southern sport space required both bottom-up and top-down approaches. That is, in order to influence the Southern sport federations to accept and promote mass-participation sport, the IDNSF was required to work alongside the local SDP programs at the community level and the governing bodies (i.e., sport federations). At the time, the Norwegian SDP NGO already developed multiple

local SDP programs and had a good working relationship with the program leaders. The IDNSF valued the relationship that the Norwegian SDP NGO shared with the local community and acknowledged the way in which the Norwegian SDP NGO was able to provide mentors to lead the SDP programs. Thus, as the Norwegian SDP NGO advocated for the mass-participation approach to sport from the bottom-up (through working with the local SDP program and the community), the IDNSF worked alongside the Southern sport federations to encourage the adoption of rights-based policies and mass-participation sport programs. In short, the IDNSF was dependent on the Norwegian SDP NGO's legitimacy within the local community and the resources (e.g., qualified program instructors) that the SDP NGO provided.

The IDNSF's understanding of the "Norwegian sport model" largely informed its approach to SDP. The "Norwegian sport model" referred to the ways that sport was integrated in Norway – where mass-participation sport advocated through grassroots programs was one of the key tenants of the sport model. The IDNSF believed that the introduction of locally-led grassroots sport programs in the South would serve to address the issues of gender inequality and inaccessibility to sport. The IDNSF also acknowledged the role that local SDP programs played in providing readily accessible sport programs to local participants. Further, the IDNSF recognized that local SDP programs were better suited to sustain efforts as compared to foreign SDP initiatives. The IDNSF was extremely critical about the way in which foreign SDP initiatives often created local dependence on foreign aid. Moreover, from the IDNSF's experience, foreign SDP initiatives often failed to consult the existing local sport efforts to ultimately develop sustainable change in the Southern sport space:

There are so many [foreign SDP] NGOs, they jump the [sport] structures that are already there. They don't consider what is already there. They just come in, enter a country, and

say “Oh, [this country] is in such a terrible state. There’s nothing here. Let’s bring equipment, let’s bring some quality coaches, let’s make stuff happen on the ground.” And that’s what I find challenging with many of the NGOs. Those who are not springing out of local communities. Those that are coming from the outside. [They] didn’t really do an assessment of “Who else is on the ground working on [sport]? How can we work together?” (Frank, IDNSF, Adviser, December 2017)

Thus, the IDNSF funded the Norwegian SDP NGO to develop SDP programs led by local leaders. That is, the Norwegian SDP NGO funded the training and mentoring of locals to become leaders of the sport programs. The IDNSF recognized that local SDP initiatives were able to better address community needs through mass-participation approaches to sport. As such, the IDNSF’s cooperation with the local SDP programs was necessary since the IDNSF’s goals aligned with the goals of the local SDP efforts:

In [African country] you also find a lot of quite developed [...] NGOs using sport in their work and we (the IDNSF) realized quite early that in order to see [...] inclusive activities being actually implemented, we had to work with the [local] NGOs. Because they were on the ground. They were innovative. They designed inclusive programs for [...] children and youth in those high-density suburbs where most of them worked. And in comparison [...] maybe an NGO would offer really nice volleyball activities for children and youth. But the volleyball federation was not at that level at all. They hardly had any grassroots activities. The focus was on the elite side, the national teams. Instead of working through the official structures, we started supporting the NGOs. Which is not our natural partner because our natural partners are the sport organizations and the Olympic Committees. So, in spite of working with all these NGOs, we have always tried to engage with the sport

organizations and the federations and so on. And slowly, we have managed to get them on board. We have supported them in different ways. And we have also tried to build the bridge between the NGOs and the sport organizations (Frank, IDNSF, Adviser, December 2017)

Given that the Norwegian SDP NGO had already established a role in the African community and with the local SDP program, it was natural that the IDNSF partnered with the SDP NGO to support the NGO's efforts. In other words, the IDNSF saw the opportunity to support mass-participation sport efforts from the bottom up first, prior to working with the local sport federations.

As outlined in previous sections, the IDNSF also funded and trained the Norwegian SDP NGO to mentor the SDP program leaders in administration, instructor development, and policy writing and implementation. The IDNSF viewed the Norwegian SDP NGO as an important actor in establishing systemic change in the Southern sport space (i.e., developing a mass-participation sport culture). In particular, the IDNSF valued the bottom-up approach that the Norwegian SDP NGO adopted:

As you know, we (the IDNSF) are not directly involved with the participants. We are concentrating on the organizational part. So our partners do the practical interventions. So from the beginning we were more on the ground, had Norwegian instructors, trainers, whatever, but it has more or less stopped. So we believe in a certain [type] of organizations to make this sustainable. So that is [the IDNSF's] main focus. [The Norwegian SDP NGO], of course is more practically oriented and lead the [SDP program]. But our role is to see to it that the system functions. So that is why [the IDNSF] is getting their funds for. Mainly to strengthen sport structures where we are

operating. So when you ask about the actual target group, in our daily work we are not involved in that. (Frank, IDNSF, Adviser, December 2017)

While the IDNSF worked to address its policy imperatives at the level of the governing body (i.e., the Southern sport federation), it also partnered with the Norwegian SDP NGO to galvanize support for mass-participation sport at the community level. The instructors that the SDP NGO provided and the reputation that it had with the community was the reason why the IDNSF partnered with the Norwegian SDP NGO. Moreover, the IDNSF depended on the SDP NGO's access to program participants as a means to extend and increase interest in mass-participation sport.

#### ***4.3.5 Norwegian SDP NGO – IDNSF***

The Norwegian SDP NGO partnered with the IDNSF due to the funding that the IDNSF was able to provide, as well as the reputation that the IDNSF had with the NDA. The SDP NGO saw the IDNSF's reputation as being helpful to secure future funding opportunities for Norwegian SDP initiatives. Thus, the Norwegian SDP NGO believed that a good working relationship with the IDNSF was necessary to ensure that the SDP NGO would continue to be funded. This dependence on resources was expected since the SDP NGO was a relatively small organization established and managed by volunteers. Put differently, resource dependency and legitimacy defined the nature of the SDP NGO-IDNSF partnership.

Since the SDP NGO was largely dependent on the IDNSF's funding, the NGO always ensured that the IDNSF's requests were met. Thus, when the IDNSF made requests for the SDP NGO to begin changing the focus of its participation in SDP, the Norwegian SDP NGO was obliged to comply. As reviewed in previous sections, this was the case when the IDNSF required the Norwegian SDP NGO to allocate already limited resources to establish child-protection

policies – particularly when there were more immediate needs that the SDP NGO could have otherwise addressed. As Liz outlined, the need for the Norwegian SDP NGO to maintain a good working relationship with the IDNSF was imperative:

[The Norwegian SDP NGO] has funding now, it is [a] three-year period, and after that [they] don't know, [they] can never be sure. We (Norwegian Martial Art Federation) hope so, that the relationship between [the Norwegian SDP NGO] and [the IDNSF] are good because it's [the IDNSF] that is actually getting funding from [the NDA]. It's [the IDNSF] that we need to maintain the relationship [with]. (Liz, Norwegian Martial Art Federation, Adviser, November 2017)

The IDNSF's reputation as a recognized Norwegian SDP actor funded by the NDA was another important factor that influenced the Norwegian SDP NGO's decision to develop the partnership. When the SDP NGO began applying for funding from the NDA, the NDA noted that it no longer accepted applications for funding from organizations separate from the IDNSF. According to Oliver, the Norwegian SDP NGO and other smaller SDP efforts required the “professional” structure that the IDNSF was able to provide:

But due to restructuring, [the NDA] asked if the different [SDP] initiatives could work closer together. So after that we became a part of [the IDNSF's] application. But this was a request from [the NDA] that we went together. And they (the NDA) said also that we probably won't support these kinds of small grass-root initiatives. We need a more professional structure. So that is the main drivers behind us going together with [the IDNSF]. (Oliver, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board Member, November 2017)

The “professional structure” that Oliver refers to was echoed by other members of the Norwegian SDP NGO. Referring to previous sections of this chapter, the NDA was seeking an

organization that had the administrative capacity to monitor and report results to the NDA. The Norwegian SDP NGO depended on the IDNSF's experience in development since it lacked training in the clerical duties associated with ensuring administrative transparency (e.g., openly tracking and reporting spending; ability to navigate through funding application rhetoric).

So they [the IDNSF] have taken over and made the applications much more professional.

All our documents are much more in order than they used to be. So I think that has been positive. Also, it isn't always easy to get a new boss. Now we (the Norwegian SDP NGO) have to answer to them. There was some friction in the beginning. Before we understood the different roles that we were supposed to have, we felt that they were second-guessing our decisions and they were feeling that we were difficult. After we had built a working relationship, it works much better now. They have much more trust (Oliver, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board Member, November 2017)

Ultimately, the main motivation for the Norwegian SDP NGO to partner with the IDNSF was its dependence on the IDNSF's resources and the IDNSF's role within the Norwegian development space. The optics of being involved with the IDNSF granted the SDP NGO the perception of legitimacy – which would be helpful in securing future funding opportunities. While the relationship between the IDNSF and Norwegian SDP NGO had moments of friction and mistrust, the partnership was defined by resource dependency, legitimacy and reciprocity. For example, where the SDP NGO required funding, the IDNSF needed the SDP NGO's reputation within the local community. Though the partnership was considered to some extent reciprocal, there were areas where the benefits of the partnership were not entirely mutual. The next segment defines, characterizes, and further unpacks the nature of the partnerships among the Norwegian SDP actors.

#### ***4.3.6 What is the nature of the partnerships?***

Three themes emerged from the data regarding the nature of the partnerships among the Norwegian SDP actors: 1) resource dependency; (2) perceptions of legitimacy; and 3) reciprocity (see Oliver, 1990). Resource dependency refers to the way in which actors were reliant on the monetary or human resources of their partners. The perception of legitimacy refers to the way that actors were able to leverage their partner's reputation and to further justify their continued participation in SDP. Reciprocity signifies how the partnerships were formed with a degree of mutual benefit. In other words, the reciprocal nature of the partnerships represents the way in which it was advantageous for both partners within the relationship to continue co-operating with one another.

Each of the partnerships examined in this study had a degree of resource dependency found in the relationship. Dependency on monetary funding and human resources were most prominent among partners. Though this finding is perhaps unsurprising, since the partnerships were defined largely by donor-recipient relations, there are still important distinctions and novel elements to this finding. For example, the IDNSF and the Norwegian SDP NGO were respectively and collectively dependent on the NDA's funding in order to continue its SDP efforts. In a similar vein, the Norwegian SDP NGO was dependent on the IDNSF's human resources to be able to meet the administrative demands to consistently monitor and evaluate its participation in SDP.

The perception of legitimacy was also sought after within the partnerships among the Norwegian SDP actors. That is, the Norwegian SDP actors found value in the way in which their partners' reputations and roles in the wider forum of development legitimized their own participation in SDP. In other words, Norwegian SDP actors leveraged their partner's status to

further their own organizational objectives and goals. For example, the IDNSF's reputation as an accountable SDP organization largely influenced the NDA's decision to include the SDP NGO within the funding plans. To be exact, the IDNSF's experience in reporting and the mentorship that the INDSF provided to the SDP NGO was the legitimizing factor that the NDA valued. In a similar vein, the IDNSF's participation in SDP aided in legitimizing the reputation of the NDA (and by association, Norway) as a progressive actor in the development space. The adoption of SDP as compared to other approaches to development was considered to be a relatively new phenomenon. As such, the NDA's integration of SDP demonstrated its interest in a new method to address issues of human rights and gender inequality.

The reciprocal nature within the partnerships also defined the relationship between Norwegian SDP actors. Put differently, each Norwegian SDP actor mutually benefited from the partnership. For example, where the Norwegian SDP NGO gained in monetary funding for its SDP efforts, the IDNSF gained in access to the SDP NGO's array of qualified instructors and social reputation in the local communities. Where the IDNSF received funding for its SDP work, the NDA benefitted in being able to display its involvement in sport and development. This form of reciprocity was explicitly indicated when I was interviewing Owen from the Norwegian SDP NGO. At the time, Owen described the way that the Norwegian SDP NGO navigated through its relationship with the IDNSF – despite having a difference in belief with regard to the importance of policy development: According to Owen (Norwegian SDP NGO, Board Member, December 2017), “we [Norwegian SDP NGO] need them [the IDNSF] and they need us to be able to sustain [mass participation sport] in [the communities] in a practical manner.” The theme of reciprocity, in the same way, permeated the relationships among Norwegian SDP actors.

While there was a sense of shared benefit, each actor within the partnership did not necessarily benefit equally. There were costs associated with the decision to establish a partnership, whereby the funder often dictated the terms and conditions that the recipient organization was required to abide by. This was reviewed in previous sections where incongruences in organizational imperatives were negotiated. For instance, while the Norwegian SDP NGO received funding for its SDP efforts, it was also required to shift its organizational focus to achieve the goals set by the IDNSF (i.e., policy development rather than attending to the needs of the community). Similarly, the IDNSF was required to bear the cost of expending resources to meet the NDA's administrative expectations rather than focusing on its own SDP objectives.

Further, despite the way that the funder-recipient relationship developed asymmetrical power relations often favoring the funder's circumstances, there were areas of resistance from the recipients. For example, where the Norwegian SDP NGO was required to expend resources to develop child-protection policies at the local SDP program level, the SDP NGO staff instead spoke to the program leaders and mentored the leaders to ultimately prevent child harassment at the program level. While these narratives of resistance are few and far between, it is integral to note that the recipient organizations were not entirely passive recipients of the orders given by the funders.

Ultimately, the decision to establish partnerships among Norwegian SDP actors was founded on the basis of reciprocity. That is, resources and the perception of legitimacy were areas where partners mutually benefitted. The benefits of partnering, however, were asymmetrical due to funder-recipient relations. That is to say that the cost of partnering with a funder often led the recipient to relinquish, even minutely, its organizational imperatives.

#### **4.4 Results - Conclusion**

This chapter addressed the three research questions of interest by examining the key policy imperatives of the Norwegian SDP actors, the way that differences in organizational values were negotiated among Norwegian SDP partners, and describing the nature among the partnering organizations. Namely, this chapter pointed to how the Norwegian SDP actors largely shared the policy imperative of promoting human rights and gender equality in its participation in SDP. Areas of disagreement between organizations seemed to be due to the different approaches to address human right and gender equality promotion. The findings outlined how the differences in opinions were largely left unnegotiated, and the interests of the more powerful organization (i.e., the funding organization) regularly took precedence over the agendas of the recipient organizations. Finally, the results of the study herein outlined the reasons as to why Norwegian SDP actors partnered with one another and the nature of the partnerships that they were involved in. Resource dependency, the perception of legitimacy and reciprocity defined the relations between the Norwegian SDP actors, and aided in understanding how such dynamics influenced the day-to-day decisions of each organization. The next chapter draws from the results gathered in this chapter to discuss its relevance to the current body of literature.

### **CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION**

The findings of this research touched on a number of topics as it relates to the differences in approaches to SDP, relations between partnering organizations, relationships between actors that work in the realm of sport and development, and the way in which SDP work is conceptualized. As such, the discussion is structured by the following headings: 1) similar policy imperatives and differing approaches; 2) interorganizational relations among SDP actors, 3)

monitoring and evaluation; 4) tensions between partnering SDP actors: and 5) conceptualizing SDP.

### **5.1 Similar policy imperatives and differing approaches**

This study outlined the way that the Norwegian SDP actors shared the key policy imperative of promoting gender equality and human rights advocacy through sport. Further, the Norwegian SDP actors collectively aimed to develop the mass-participation sport culture in the areas of operation. The approaches taken to address the goal of achieving mass-participation sport differed amongst the actors. For example, the IDNSF adopted a top-down approach by working alongside the Southern sport governing bodies (i.e., sport federations) to develop and implement policies that would promote gender equality and human rights. On the contrary, the Norwegian SDP NGO worked alongside community leaders and participants to teach and uphold the values of gender equality and human rights through the local SDP programs. In many ways, the focus on policy development was an area where funder-practices overshadowed recipient-values. Despite reports from the Norwegian SDP NGO of the ways in which certain policies were far removed from the circumstances of SDP program beneficiaries, the findings of this research point to the consistent demand from certain actors for rights-based policy development. This finding upholds other studies of international development policy that consider how such models of policy “are poor guides to understanding the practices, events and effects of development actors, which are shaped by the relationships and interests and cultures of specific organizational settings” (Mosse, 2004, p. 663). In short, the results from this study note how the development of policy remains in the realm of discourse – and does not always or necessarily lead to practice. Despite this, policy development was still imposed by certain Norwegian SDP actors – regardless of how the same policies seemed to be discourse-driven and largely

impractical on the ground. For example, policy development (e.g., “rights-based policies” and “child-protection policies”) was seen by the Norwegian SDP NGO, and the Southern SDP program as unnecessary – since the message of ensuring gender equality and child abuse prevention was conveyed through the relationships between the SDP NGO and the Southern SDP program leaders. Within the context of the funder-recipient relationship, the recipient organization (i.e., the Norwegian SDP NGO) was often required to relinquish resources and effort to ensure that policies were developed – as a means to appease the funders (i.e., the IDNSF) by ‘ticking all the boxes.’

Where Hayhurst and Frisby (2010) outlined the ways in which the cost of establishing partnerships was the loss of organizational identity, the findings of the study herein demonstrated similar – yet distinct – results. Though the costs associated with partnerships took part in reforming the approaches of certain Norwegian SDP actors (i.e., adopting more managerial practices; developing policies), such costs did not reach the point of creating issues associated with organizational identity or goals. Indeed, the adoption of unfamiliar practices shifted the focus for some Norwegian SDP actors; however, the goal of providing mass-participation sport remained central to the Norwegian SDP actors (e.g., the IDNSF; Norwegian SDP NGO). Thus, the ways that policy imperatives were shared by the Norwegian SDP actors in this study was one of the key distinctions between my findings and the research conducted by Hayhurst and Frisby (2010). That is, since the Norwegian SDP actors mutually shared similar organizational values – such as the promotion of human rights and gender equality through establishing mass-participation sport – tensions arose from the nuances of *how* to best enact its values, rather than a sense of conflict associated with opposing organizational values. Thus – and where the organizations in Hayhurst and Frisby’s (2010) study had competing values and goals – the actors

in this study shared the same goals (e.g., developing mass-participation sport structures in the South), but seemingly opposing means to address the goal (e.g., policy development; working with community leaders). Thus, the SDP NGOs in both studies demonstrated limited degrees of autonomy; however, there seemed to be more room for dialogue between the actors in the study herein since they shared similar objectives (e.g., mass-participation sport systems).

## **5.2 Interorganizational relations: resources, legitimacy, and reciprocity between organizations**

This research demonstrates how stability, legitimacy, and reciprocity (see Oliver, 1990) permeated the interorganizational relations among Norwegian SDP actors. Thus, this study contributes to the existing literature that focuses on the nature of partnerships between SDP actors (e.g., Babiak, 2007; Black, 2017; Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010; Waldman & Wilson, 2017). Furthermore, the findings of this research echo the broader body of sport management studies that highlights how resources and perceptions of legitimacy are often exchanged between actors (see Babiak, 2007; Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010). Consequently, the results of the study herein align with studies that demonstrate how partnerships between development organizations are often mutually beneficial – albeit, frequently asymmetrical (see Black, 2017).

In particular, this study was in many ways analogous to Hayhurst and Frisby's (2010) research on the partnership dynamics between sport federations and SDP NGOs. In a similar vein to Hayhurst and Frisby (2010), this study explored the tensions and challenges evident in partnerships between SDP NGO(s) and sport federation(s). This study echoed the experiences of negotiating tensions caused by resource dependency (in donor-recipient relations), the pressures associated with an entity being overly reliant on the legitimation of partner organizations, and the costs paid by weaker partners to establish partnerships with more resource-rich and reputable

entities. While there were more similarities shared between this study and Hayhurst and Frisby's (2010) research as it relates to the topic of sport for development, this study herein focused more on the interorganizational relations between partners (e.g., stability, legitimacy, reciprocity). The distinctions between the study herein and other similar bodies of SDP scholarship is discussed in later sections of this chapter. Ultimately, this research aligns with the broader literature in acknowledging the existence and imbalance of power relations within partnerships amongst sport and development organizations (see Babiak, 2007; Black, 2017; Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010).

As I examined the partnerships between the Norwegian SDP actors, the theme of stability (through resource-dependency) (see Oliver, 1990) was extremely prominent. Since the active Norwegian SDP actors (i.e., the IDNSF and the Norwegian SDP NGO) were non-profit and volunteer-based, the dependence on its funders for monetary resources was a shared experience between the Norwegian SDP organizations. Further, my research points to the ways in which resource dependency refers also to the human resources shared among partners. In particular, this was demonstrated when certain actors relied on their partner organizations that were experts in specific disciplines (e.g., knowledge in administrative practices or experience in sport-related instructing/coaching) in order to continue operating in the SDP field.

Like Hayhurst and Frisby (2010), the dependence on resources – be it financial or human resources – meant that the organizations that were able to contribute in monetary or expert value gained an upper hand in the partnership. Thus, the organizations that were less dependent on such resources had more control and power to dictate the terms of the partnership. In the case of the funder-recipient relationship, such forms of resource dependency placed an enormous amount of power in the funder's hands, particularly since the funders were able to dictate the terms that recipient entities were to abide by. This finding was particularly relevant to the

broader study of partnerships within SDP (e.g., Babiak, 2007; Black, 2017; Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010) and highlighted the costs associated with funder-recipient partnerships. In many ways, these findings support other studies that highlight what transpires when a recipient entity fails to comply with a funder's demands. For example, a funding organization could simply dissolve an existing relationship with a recipient and, in turn, seek out potential partners that would willingly comply with the funder's requirements (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). In this case, the unequal power relations among funders and recipients were often associated with consequences – such as the loss of organizational autonomy and identity (Oliver, 1990). Indeed, this was also similar to Hayhurst and Frisby's (2010) study, where SDP NGOs felt it necessary to prove themselves worthy of funding through adopting monitoring and evaluation measures (a point which will be returned to below) – even if it was costly to the SDP NGOs' efforts.

Organizational legitimacy was another prominent reason as to why SDP NGOs partner with high performance sport – a similar finding to Hayhurst and Frisby (2010). In turn, organizational reputation and status were factors that benefitted the Norwegian SDP NGO in opening new funding opportunities and galvanizing wide-spread support for the NGO's SDP efforts. Indeed, the established histories of sport federations allowed the partnering SDP NGOs to mobilize support and publicize its SDP efforts. In particular, the Norwegian SDP NGO adopted the IDNSF's reputation of legitimacy when the partnership between the two parties developed. In so doing, the SDP NGO hoped to gain the perception of legitimacy in the eyes of the NDA – and in turn, the perception of legitimacy was assumed to help open future funding opportunities.

### **5.3 Monitoring and Evaluation: An ongoing burden to gain organizational legitimacy**

A culture of monitoring and evaluation was adopted by the Norwegian SDP NGO and the IDNSF to impress or abide by funder demands which ultimately helped to legitimize the accounts and activities of actors (see Kay, 2012). The SDP actors involved in this study actively sought out structural legitimacy to avoid being an organization defined by a “lack [of] acceptable legitimated accounts of their activities [...] [which] are more vulnerable to claims that they are negligent, irrational or unnecessary” (Meyer & Rowan, 1991, p. 50). According to Suchman (1995) and Meyer and Rowan (1991, p. 50), structural legitimacy refers to the way that organizations (e.g., the IDNSF and the Norwegian SDP NGO) “act on collectively purposes in a proper and adequate manner” in order to be deemed legitimate by audience entities (i.e., the NDA).

Further, the findings of this study align with Houlihan and Zheng’s (2015) research that highlighted how sport was often used as a resource by small states to create and promote socially constructed self-representations. My interview with Evan similarly suggested that the NDA adopted SDP in its development agenda to establish and strengthen Norway’s reputation as “a humanitarian superpower/a peace maker; [and] a society with a high level of equality” (Bátora, 2005, p. 16). According to Houlihan and Zheng, (2015), Norway’s position as a leading donor country in development initiatives and the commitment to grass-roots community sport (Houlihan & Zheng, 2015). From Nye’s (2008) observations, image building as an effort to further public diplomacy played an integral role in developing soft power. That is, as a country establishes and promotes positive perceptions of itself (i.e., admirable values, prosperity), the country gains influential ‘soft’ power to further develop moral legitimacy (Suchman, 1995) and to shape and co-opt the preferences and decisions of other nations and key decision makers.

Different forms of legitimacy were pursued by organizations such as the NDA, the IDNSF and the Norwegian SDP NGO, in order to enhance an actor's image in the eyes of potential funders and supporters.

The findings of this research echoed Ammeter et al., (2004) in outlining the linkage between the topics of legitimacy, accountability, and organizational trust. It seemed to be that as organizations developed structural and moral legitimacy (see Suchman, 1995) – in the form of remaining accountable by meeting the demands of its targeted audiences – the actors built interorganizational trust. The key takeaway point is that legitimacy is regularly determined by the audience – and therefore, the entity seeking the perception of legitimacy is often required to satisfy and meet the demands set by the target audience. For instance, organizational trust was enhanced when Norwegian SDP actors demonstrated accountability to their funders through transparent financial records. Das and Teng's (1998) research emphasized similar dynamics of trust between organizations due to their enhanced communication and exchange of information. However, certain anomalies emerged from my data set. For example, one of the interviewees outlined how one of the recipient organizations viewed the growing demand for monitoring and evaluation as a form of distrust. That is, for the recipient organization, the need to increasingly report on areas of spending and participation levels (among other reporting topics) demonstrated that their funder did not believe former reports and therefore, required more data to be gathered. This finding aligned with the body of research (see Mawdsley et al., 2005; Wilson, 2009) that explained how an increased “obsession with audits, targets and performance indicators” (Mawdsley et al., 2005, p. 77) and a growing sense of micro-managing often led to a sense of diminished trust between partnering organizations. A sense of distrust was seen as problematic for the broader goals of the partnership between the Norwegian SDP organization and its

Southern SDP partner. Indeed, the common objective for the Norwegian SDP actors and its associated partners in the South was the establishment of locally-led mass-participation sport efforts. Such a goal (i.e., leading mass-participation sport efforts) required strong partnerships between actors that allowed for each entity to collaborate and work closely together. A sense of distrust seemed to be counter-intuitive to developing the kinds of relationships between actors that would ultimately allow for mass-participation sport to grow in the areas of operation. Thus, the Norwegian SDP actor rebuilt trust by engaging and effectively communicating with its Southern partner to come to a mutual understanding of the intentions behind the increased demands for reporting.

Such forms of interorganizational relations (i.e., stability and legitimacy) outlined the asymmetrical power dynamics between Norwegian SDP actors. In other words, the actors that were able to contribute and add value to the partnership – in the form of funding, human resources, or organizational reputation – were often able to negotiate the terms of the partnership to their advantage. Thus, there were often costs for recipient organizations to pay as a price for partnership. At times, the cost of partnership for the Norwegian SDP actors was the loss of organizational autonomy and values – a finding that was demonstrated by Hayhurst and Frisby (2010). Two particular examples emerged from my findings of how the priorities and values of recipient-organizations took a proverbial backseat: first, the way that managerial practices were enforced by certain donor organizations; and second, how policy development overshadowed certain SDP practices.

Like Hayhurst and Frisby (2010), the funder-recipient relationship between Norwegian SDP actors perpetuated a culture where the recipient organizations were often required to provide forms of accountability and prove themselves worthy of partnership support. Indeed, a

culture of managerialism permeated each partnership examined within the study herein; often times, being enforced and imposed by donor entities. However, while Hayhurst and Frisby (2010) outlined how such forms of accountability were problematic because it often failed to include the voices of the targeted audience, the findings of this research differed by examining how managerial practices frequently overwhelmed the organizations required to adopt varying forms of administration. The results of this study align with other research in (sport for) development studies (see Edwards & Hulme, 1996; Kay, 2012) that focus on the crippling effects of an overemphasis on managerial practices “marked by concepts like accountability, transparency, participation [...] as well as practices like double-entry bookkeeping [...] project evaluation, and organizational self-assessment” (Roberts, Jones, & Fröhling, 2005, p. 1849).

The need, then, for Norwegian SDP actors to adapt to an increased workload due to obligatory managerial practices resulted in a loss of organizational value and autonomy. The loss was often felt by the actors that were required to expend already limited resources to meet the administrative demands of their funders. Ultimately, while organizations have resisted the onerous requirements of maintaining financial accountability (e.g., through keeping two sets of financial records – one for the funder and one that described how funds were actually spent (see Roberts, Jones & Fröhling, 2005)), this was not an issue that was mentioned in the context of Norwegian SDP stakeholders. Instead, the cost of maintaining the partnerships within the Norwegian SDP space was the foregoing of resources that could have otherwise been used to focus on broader SDP operations.

While there were tensions and costs associated with establishing partnerships among Norwegian SDP actors, it was also important to recognize the degree of interdependence and reciprocity between the partnering organizations. As mentioned previously, legitimacy and

resources were exchanged between partners. For example, an organization like the IDNSF would fund the Norwegian SDP NGO and, in turn, the IDNSF would receive insider-status through being associated with the SDP NGO, its local SDP programs, Southern sport federations, and local community networks. Thus, the partnership between the Norwegian SDP actors allowed for a degree of mutual benefit, albeit often times asymmetrically. This finding aligned with what Black (2017, p. 17) referred to as an “unequal symbiosis,” where the organizations within the partnerships relied on each other to carry out its roles within the wider goal of establishing mass-participation sport in the areas of operation. Indeed, and as demonstrated by the findings of this study, the funding organizations’ interests routinely predominated over the agenda of the recipient actors. Despite the difference in power relations among partnering organizations, this research ultimately outlined how power moved between Norwegian SDP actors. That is, the power relations were not unidirectional, and the recipient actors were not as easily malleable and lacking in agency as I presumed. Indeed, all actors within the partnerships held power – in the form of status, expertise, or resources – at varying points in the partnerships. Overall, the findings of this study represent an ongoing exploration of the nature of partnerships among organizations working in the sport for development realm.

#### **5.4 Tensions between Sport for Development and Peace, Sport Development, Top-down and Bottom-up approaches**

The results of this study intersect with two areas of research on the partnerships between actors working in the field of sport and development. In particular, my findings relate to the tensions found between partnering SDP actors that uphold seemingly opposing values and development agendas. As I reviewed the data on the Norwegian SDP actors, the conflict between top-down and bottom-up approaches to development, as well as the differences between sport-

development and sport for development orientations emerged. However, despite the differences in the approaches to achieve the common goal of developing more Southern mass-participation sport opportunities, my research aligned with Black's (2010) findings in acknowledging the pluralistic approach and co-dependence between organizations in Norwegian SDP that seemed to uphold differing beliefs.

In examining the approaches to establishing mass-participation sport in the South, both top-down and bottom-up methods were adopted by partnering Norwegian SDP actors. For instance, where the IDNSF applied a top-down by partnering with Southern sport federations, the Norwegian SDP NGO implemented its bottom-up focus through working with local sport leaders and participants. Put differently, the IDNSF believed that mass-participation recreational sport was best achieved through a top-down hierarchy, where the Southern sport federations would govern and require Southern sport actors (e.g., sport clubs) to adopt and implement policies and practices focused on ensuring sport to be accessible to all (e.g., gender-inclusive policies, child-harassment policies). Further, the Norwegian SDP NGO considered the involvement of local sport leaders and community members to be the most effective way of promoting mass-participation recreational sport. As such, the IDNSF developed relationships with the Southern sport federations and the Norwegian SDP NGO established locally-led SDP programs to ultimately promote mass-participation sport in the areas of operation. Indeed, the collaborative top-down and bottom-up effort demonstrated through the Norwegian SDP partnerships aligned with Black's (2010, p. 124) observation of how "neither "top-down" nor "bottom-up" development approaches [...] are sufficient on their own to generate sustainable and broadly based improvement in development conditions."

Further, the findings of this study highlighted how the cooperation between top-down and bottom-up approaches within the Norwegian SDP space could act as a link between local sport governing bodies and community-level needs and interests – a topic widely discussed in SDP literature (see Darnell, 2010; Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010; Kidd, 2011). SDP scholars have been critical of the top-down approach for advocating for development without addressing structural and contextual issues, as well as being far removed from the circumstances of targeted beneficiaries (see Darnell & Hayhurst, 2013; Kidd, 2008). Thus, the collaboration between top-down and bottom-up approaches within the Norwegian SDP space seemed to close the critical distance between the decisions made at the sport federation level and the needs and wants at the community level. A limitation of my study, however, was that I did not include the perspectives of the SDP program participants. Therefore, it is difficult to know the extent to which the bottom up approach was truly encapsulated by the Norwegian NGO to the extent that staff suggested throughout interviews.

The tension between sport for development/sport development orientations was also relevant to this research. SDP scholars have been critical about the participation of sport federations in the field of sport and development because sport federations have often sought to further the elitist and high-performance sport agenda whenever involved in the SDP realm (see Darnell, 2012; Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010; Kidd, 2011). According to Kidd (2008), where sport development initiatives are ideologically based upon high performance and elite sport, sport *for* development orientations are instead meant to engage participants who have not already participated in sport. Therefore, the latter (SDP) is supposedly unconcerned with organized athletic training and competition. In the context of examining the partnerships within the realm of SDP, SDP actors (e.g., NGOs, local programs) have pursued ongoing collaboration with sport

federations because the federations were often represented as powerful entities with access to financial, political and social resources (Black, 2017; Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010). Furthermore, an overemphasis on sport development goals (e.g., athlete poaching, establishing feeder systems) and the neglect of potential sport *for* development agendas within the partnerships between actors in SDP has been an issue highlighted by scholars (e.g., Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010). To summarize, the involvement of sport federations within SDP has often been critically viewed since the elitist, high-performance focused goals frequently upheld by sport federations opposed the mass-participation, development-centred objectives of SDP actors.

The findings of this research differed from the abovementioned studies in that the IDNSF (i.e., an actor closely associated with a Norwegian sport federation) made clear that elite sport goals were explicitly excluded from the Norwegian SDP agenda. Indeed, the Norwegian sport model and the national sport culture played an integral role in the way that the Norwegian SDP actors approached its efforts in the South (see Darnell, et al., 2019). In turn, since the Norwegian sport federations valued and worked in both elite and mass participation sport in Norway, the Norwegian SDP actors adopted similar conceptions on how sport systems should be organized in the areas of operation. The Norwegian SDP actors, then, recognized the presence of elite-sport goals within the Southern sport systems, and sought to establish certain structures within the Southern sport federations such that mass-participation sport would become an objective that the Southern actors would pursue. As such, this research demonstrated how a sport federation and an SDP NGO worked together to address a common goal (e.g., developing mass-participation sport) – albeit, by using differing approaches (e.g., policy development; community-based work). As discussed above, where the IDNSF sought to partner with Southern sport actors to reform the Southern sport structures and systems, the SDP NGO galvanized local support for mass-

participation focused SDP programs. Further, this research offered a different perspective on the participation of sport federations in the realm of sport and development. For example, the findings of this study outlined how there were instances when the participation of sport federations (and its associated departments) in SDP contributed to the furthering of social and development efforts; rather than the elite-sport agendas that often characterized sport federations.

Ultimately, the study herein demonstrated pluralism among varying orientations to sport and development. The examples of the study pointed to how seemingly opposing approaches and areas of focus between partnering organizations were adopted in the Norwegian SDP space. The findings of this study echo (and extend) Black's (2010) observation related to how top-down/bottom-up (and sport-development/sport-for-development) approaches are not simply going to disappear. Therefore, in acknowledging the coexistence and partnership between the varying approaches to SDP, this research aimed to "draw connections between these various levels, [and] engage with organizations operating at different levels and in other issue areas, in a spirit of ongoing self-reflection" (Black, 2010, p. 125).

### **5.5 How is SDP conceptualized?**

The way that the Norwegian SDP actors approached their SDP efforts was reminiscent of the broader literature concerned with topics such as sport-for-all in SDP efforts, how SDP is conceptualized, and the instrumental value of sport in addressing development goals (see Coalter, 2010; Kidd, 2008). Further, this research uncovered how the sport culture of a nation-state influenced the way in which SDP efforts were adopted. As examined by Darnell et al., (2019, p. 218) the prominence and role of accessible and mass-participation sport in Norway coincided with a concern over the often-unethical nature of high-performance sport led to a "renewed commitment to sport's grassroots ideal and benefits." Since the focus for the

Norwegian SDP actors (i.e., developing Southern mass-participation sport) was largely informed by the way that sport was directed in Norway, topics of sport-for-all, grassroots sport, and the utilitarian value of sport were concepts that emerged from exploring the Norwegian SDP efforts. Indeed, and as discussed previously, the difference in approaches between Norwegian SDP actors was informed by their respective experiences of the Norwegian sport model. For instance, as an actor involved with the Norwegian sport federation, the IDNSF staff saw policy development and the role of the Southern sport federations as being integral to the development of a mass-participation sport model. On the contrary, the efforts of the Norwegian SDP NGO drew from the members' experiences of, and ties to, their participation in martial arts. Indeed, this finding aligned with Straume's (2013, p. 178) observation that Norwegian SDP efforts "followed in the same tracks as the sports development emphasized at home, with the 'sport for all' idea as its main denominator."

According to Skille (2011), sport for all has been a popular and central concept that aligned well with the egalitarian policies and culture of Scandinavian countries. The Sport for All Charter (Council of Europe, 1976) outlined the commitment for governments to support the call for all to have the right to participate in sport. In Norway, the concept of sport for all was an integral foundation on which the Norwegian sport model was built, ultimately displayed through the Norwegian Confederation of Sports' focus on the development of mass-participation, grassroots initiatives (IDNSF, 2011). This was a topic worthy of further discussion, as the findings of this research emphasized the ways in which the Norwegian SDP actors were committed to building systems to promote sport-for-all in the South. Given the Norwegian SDP actors' strong stance against elite-performance goals, the body of research pointing to the potential for a culture of elitism to emerge from sport-for-all oriented programs was relevant.

In particular, scholars have investigated the ways that the Norwegian sport system, despite the apparent pledge to advocate for sport-for-all in Norway, unintentionally developed a culture focused on exclusivity and elitism rather than the proposed egalitarian benefits associated with mass-participation sport (Säfvenbom et al., 2014; Skille, 2004). According to Skille (2011), the amount of responsibility placed on umbrella sport organizations (e.g., the Norwegian Confederation of Sports) to have more than one area of focus (i.e., elite sport and mass-participation sport) was one of the key reasons as to why the Norwegian sport system seemed to promote volunteerism and egalitarianism and inadvertently produced themes focused on achievement and competitiveness. While it would be outside the scope of this study to determine the results of the Norwegian SDP actors' efforts, it is important to recognize the potential for discrepancies between the intent behind the Norwegian SDP efforts, and the reception of such efforts. Put differently, the emphasis placed on the development of mass-participation sport in the Norwegian SDP approach should not necessarily guarantee the egalitarian and social benefits that the SDP actors anticipated. Thus, this study echoes the call made by Hayhurst (2009) to further examine the results and local perception of SDP activities and the partnerships between sport federations and grassroots sport actors in developing mass-participation sport efforts.

Through the findings of this research, I examined how the Norwegian SDP approach differed from the mainstream understanding and definition of SDP. According to Kidd (2008), SDP refers to the mobilization of sport as a vehicle for sustainable development (e.g., using sport programs to teach personal health, sexual responsibility). The Norwegian SDP approach differed conceptually, in that the Norwegian SDP actors focused on the instrumental and functional value of sport in addressing development goals such as the promotion of human rights and gender equality. Indeed, the perception that sport participation inherently leads to development goals

was an aspect that Kidd (2011) cautioned against. That is, the Norwegian SDP actors believed that participation in recreational sport would lead to broader human rights goals and gender equality in the areas of operation (e.g., the sport programs were assumed to challenge heteronormative gender roles by having female program leaders; participation in sport was assumed to indirectly teach participants leadership skills, “life skills,” and teamwork).

Researchers have been critical about positioning sport participation as a panacea for development issues (see Coalter, 2010; Donnelly, 2008; Kidd, 2008). As such, while the findings of this research exemplified how the Norwegian SDP actors saw participation in sport as a method to achieve development in and of itself, I respond by echoing Donnelly (2008, p. 382, emphasis included) in recognizing that “the statements [about sport’s ability to unify, create hope, address racial barriers and discrimination] are absolutely true, *and so are its opposite.*” In other words, while Norwegian SDP actors promoted sport-for-all and upheld certain intrinsic values of sport, there remains the potential for an ethos focused on competition and elitism that, consequently, reproduces inequitable perceptions and attitudes toward gender and race (Donnelly, 2008). Ultimately, the role of sport in SDP as displayed in this study reaffirms the need to recognize sport as being “socially and politically ‘malleable’ to the extent that it can be utilized to support various approaches to, and understandings of, development initiatives and politics” (Darnell & Hayhurst, 2011, p. 193).

In addition to the intrinsic and instrumental value of sport participation, the role of coach and program instructors was integral to the approach adopted by the Norwegian SDP actors. This was demonstrated when the members of the IDNSF explained how qualified coaches were required in order to establish “quality sport,” which in turn would encourage and teach participants to then become agents of change in addressing development goals. Put differently,

the participants were expected to experience and learn about gender equality and human rights through the principles of mass-participation sport through programs led by coaches and sport instructors. Indeed, research has outlined the potential benefit of having coaches mentor youth and children in the sport program context. For example, Das et al. (2015) found that the training of local community members in implementing sport programs (e.g., cricket) focused on promoting gender equality was an accepted approach to discuss issues of gender inequality. Further, having qualified coaches meant that the SDP programs had a degree of formality and structure – which points back to the way in which the Norwegian SDP actors upheld the intrinsic values associated with sport participation.

On the other areas of how SDP was conceptualized by the Norwegian actors, the findings of this thesis reinforce how the SDP activities (e.g., focusing on mass-participation sport through top-down and bottom-up methods) were in line with Kidd's (2011) recommendations on general SDP conduct. According to Kidd (2011), SDP programs should meet local needs, include intended beneficiaries in decision making, create accessible and lasting opportunities for participants, integrate skilled program leaders, and the involve other social initiatives associated with health, employment and youth development. Overall, the Norwegian SDP efforts met the standards set by Kidd (2011) namely by focusing on the involvement of the Southern sport federations and the local community in making key decisions. Norway's extensive history of participation in SDP buttressed a belief by the Norwegian SDP actors that change – in this case, the promotion of mass-participation sport, human rights and gender equality – was best enacted when the intended beneficiaries and participants were involved in the decision-making process. By integrating the Southern sport federations and the local SDP programs and seeking to “strengthen the existing sport systems,” the Norwegian SDP actors differed in approach as

compared to other SDP actors that developed lofty sport programs but “left with everything” if and when they departed the areas of operation.

Despite being largely recipient-oriented, it is important to note that the IDNSF only supported the decisions of the recipients when such decisions aligned with the values of the IDNSF. This finding supports Straume’s (2011) observation related to how certain Norwegian SDP actors did not approve funding unless the recipients agreed to abide by the principles of sport-for-all. The results of the study herein demonstrate similar findings, where the Norwegian SDP actors refused to support any and all forms of elite-focused sport programming. It would, however, be oversimplified to focus on the way in which the Norwegian SDP actors enacted its top-down power as a donor entity in imposing the sport-for-all criteria on recipient organizations – given the nature of the programs and the body of literature opposed to elite-sport promotion in SDP. As such, this result reiterated the difference in power relations between donor-recipient organizations, and the costs associated with establishing such partnerships (see Oliver, 1990). As a result, the recipient organizations were not prohibited from promoting or encouraging elite-sport; rather, it was made clear that the IDNSF (and associated funders) would not financially support such goals.

This chapter discussed the relevance of the findings of the study herein in relation to the body of literature concerned with examining the relations between partnering organizations, relationships between actors working in the realm of sport and development, and the way that SDP work has been conceptualized. While there were areas and topics where the body of SDP scholarship has been critical (e.g., perspectives on the utilitarian value of sport; defining sport for development), my aim for this discussion has been to adopt Wilson’s (2014) approach of balancing the critiques with the potential positive outcomes of SDP work. Ultimately, this

research aimed to maintain a ‘middle-walking’ stance by “maintaining a critical stance, and, at the same time, contributing to the development of theory and evidence-driven forms of SDP work” (Wilson, 2014, p. 6).

## **5.6 Postcolonial Theory**

Postcolonial theory has widely informed the study of SDP and is reflected in examples such as Hayhurst (2009), Darnell and Hayhurst (2012) and Darnell and Kaur (2015). The body of research has adopted postcolonial theory to destabilize dominant discourses of the global North and decolonize by examining the relationships of power and knowledge between entities (McEwan, 2001). In particular, McEwan (2001, p. 103) called for the postcolonial approach to adopt a posture where it is important to ask: “who is silenced, and why”?

The postcolonial approach was used in the study herein to examine how the Norwegian SDP actors interacted with its Southern partners, as well as to expose the potential for the furthering of neocolonial agendas. In particular, postcolonial theory was relevant in understanding the way that knowledge and power were connected. Said (1978) described how knowledge is a form of power, and therefore, those who possess knowledge are given authority. Further, McEwan (2001) explained how power has – and continues to be – controlled and produced in the North. Indeed, these understandings of knowledge, power and authority related to the way in which the Norwegian SDP structure sought to educate and “strengthen” the Southern sport federations. For example, the IDNSF appealed to its experience in organizing sport in Norway and its reputation as an expert in implementing systems of sport-for-all in its approach to SDP. As such, the IDNSF was able to provide training to educate its Southern sport federation partners on the matters of further developing structures focused on providing accessibility to sport for the masses. For example, as part of its approach to increase the number

of qualified SDP program leaders and coaches, the IDNSF was involved in creating an accredited system of education for sport leaders to standardize training across geographical regions (Frank, personal communication, December 7, 2017). From a postcolonial approach, this dynamic situated the Northern-based IDNSF in a position of authority based on its ability to educate, modernize, “define, represent and theorize” (McEwan 2001, p. 95).

Indeed, the IDNSF’s reputation and experience granted the organization the authority to set the conditions of the partnership with the Southern sport federations to the point of regulating and ensuring that the Southern sport federations (and the Southern SDP programs) followed the sport-for-all focus. Further, Frank described how the IDNSF was required to emphasize the focus on mass-participation, recreational sport as it was a key organizational value for the Norwegian SDP actor. Therefore, if and when the Southern sport federations accepted the partnership, it would be on the terms and conditions assigned by the IDNSF:

We (the IDNSF) always say that we don’t want to push our agenda on our partners. We don’t want to go somewhere in the world and say ‘You guys are in a bad state. We have the solution to your problems.’ [...] We want our partners to be aware what they see themselves as their own challenges. And also to approach us, rather the other way around. At the end of the day, we have our philosophy. We have our way of thinking. The Norwegian sport model, as we like to call it. Where we emphasize on grassroots sports, inclusion of girls, equality and so on. And when we discuss [SDP] with our partners, we can’t also just leave our philosophy behind in Norway. So we need to balance this. We need to look at the needs of our partners but also what we can offer. (Frank, IDNSF, Adviser, December 2017)

From a postcolonial approach, the narrative of the quote above may suggest that the IDNSF did not necessarily want to impose their values – but still, inevitably did so. However, from another perspective, the Southern sport federations still had the decision to accept or decline the offer of partnership with the IDNSF. Put differently, the IDNSF offered its support to aid in promoting human rights and gender equality through sport – while maintaining its organizational identity – and the Southern sport federations and local sport programs took up the offer, understanding the limitations and conditions associated with the partnership. Indeed, it should be noted that without the perspectives of the Southern sport federations and the local sport actors, this observation is limited to the cumulative narratives of the Norwegian SDP actors. However, according to the narratives, despite the ways in which the Southern sport actors were required to commit to the conditions of the partnership, the Norwegian SDP actors advocated for the co-construction of meaning between Northern and Southern actors. That is, the IDNSF and the Norwegian SDP NGO included local perspective to inform its involvement in SDP – especially through ensuring that local ownership was integral to the Norwegian SDP approach.

Ultimately, while the postcolonial approach was necessary to expose the potential for the fostering of neocolonial legacies within the Norwegian SDP landscape, the findings outlined how the Norwegian SDP actors adopted methods to prevent further perpetuating power differences between the North and the South. That is, the Norwegian SDP actors recognized their status as being in positions of privilege while also being outsiders to the communities that they operated in. In so doing, the Norwegian SDP actors actively sought to empower members of the community – from local leaders to the sport governing bodies – by encouraging them to develop ownership of sustaining the efforts that the Norwegian SDP actors were involved in initiating. In turn, the practice of fostering a degree of autonomy, the Norwegian SDP actors and the Southern

counterparts demonstrated the call by Baaz Eriksson (2005) to level the partnerships between Northern and Southern actors. In other words, the formation of the Norwegian SDP actors and their Southern partners' identities exhibited the beginning steps of challenging the binary image of "superior, initiating, efficient 'donor,' [and] the inadequate, passive, unreliable 'partner' or recipient" (Baaz Eriksson, 2005, p. 1). Overall, this finding echoed McEwan (2001) in outlining how such approaches promote the agency and allow for the exploration of understandings of Southern communities in the hope of ultimately overcoming inequalities stemming from neocolonial tendencies.

## **CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSION**

In many ways, this research was a response to Black's (2017) call to scholars to consider the potential for mutual benefit among diverse SDP actors that uphold seemingly opposing values. Thus, my study built on Black's (2010) pertinent observation that partnerships between actors that identified as being associated with competing coalitions (e.g., top-down/bottom-up orientations) continue to exist. Along these lines, my research underlined the importance of studying the fluid dynamics between partners, especially since neither top-down nor bottom-up orientations to development – and in this case, 'sport *for* development' and 'sport development' – will simply disappear, "nor are they sufficient on their own to generate sustainable and broadly based improvements in development conditions" (Black, 2010, p. 124).

Indeed, one of the key findings of this research was the degree of interdependence and reciprocity that defined the partnership between the Norwegian SDP actors. The collaboration between differing approaches to development (e.g., top-down and bottom-up; sport federations and grassroots initiatives) allowed for mutual benefit. The examples in this study demonstrated how the strengths of one organization were shared to address the weaknesses of others. In

particular, the findings outlined how resources and legitimacy were exchanged between actors, and how each actor was also limited and subjected to the terms and regulations of funder organizations.

Overall, this study strengthens the idea that the collaboration between organizations working with SDP, even those entities with seemingly competing values, is inevitable, and that these relationships have the potential for varying degrees of mutual benefit despite the differing values places on 'sport' (Black, 2017). However, my research also highlights the importance of acknowledging the asymmetrical forces within funder-recipient relationships. In turn, this research contributes to the continued exploration of how such partnerships between organizations act as grounds to examine the disparity in power dynamics between partners, and how such relations inform SDP implementation (see Black, 2010; Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010).

The study further contributes to the understanding of the role of partnerships, specifically in relation to the implementation of SDP partnerships from Norway. In particular, this research aligned with the current body of scholarship concerned with the focus on sport for all in the Norwegian SDP approach (see Darnell et al., 2019; Hasselgård, 2015). Indeed, the findings of my study explained how the sport for all culture in Norway informed the decisions made by key Norwegian SDP funders (i.e., the NDA). In turn, and as demonstrated in the study, the funders required their recipients, which included Norwegian SDP actors (e.g., the IDNSF, Norwegian SDP NGO, Southern SDP program, Southern sport federations), to adopt approaches that would only allow for a focus on mass-participation, recreational sport.

Upon reflecting and acknowledging the strengths and limitations of this study, the adoption of the multiple instrumental case studies approach was integral in weaving together a holistic understanding of the key organizational values of each actor and the relationship

between partnering organizations. By using multiple sources of data (i.e., interviews and documents), the process of triangulation was helpful and each source contributed differently to the findings of the research. For example, where interviews allowed for participants to express their personal experience and perspective on issues concerning tensions within partnerships, the documents aided in examining how such tensions were negotiated or overlooked when formalized through texts.

As discussed in earlier sections of the thesis, the most pronounced limitation of this study was the small number of representatives that were recruited in the interview process. I interviewed the only individual responsible for Norwegian SDP from the NDA, two of a possible two individuals from the NDIR, two of a possible two individuals from the IDNSF, one of a possible two from the NMAF, and seven of a possible eight from the Norwegian SDP NGO. Indeed, due to the lack of availability from potential participants, it was often difficult to secure interviews. Despite the challenge of having a relatively small sample size for certain organizations, the reflections offered from other interviewees about this limitation was extremely insightful. For example, one participant noted how the lack of response to the invitation to participate in this study was reflective of how the NDA saw SDP as a non-priority. This observation then informed the analysis of the documents, and the data gathered from the interviews with other actors aided in understanding how there could be potential for the NDA to express a lack of interest in SDP, and by association, this study. Overall, despite the challenges faced by a small sample size, the inclusion of other sources of data (e.g., document collection and analysis) offered new insights to further develop an understanding of each Norwegian SDP organization.

The fact that the Norwegian SDP actors all shared a common objective in promoting human rights and gender equality through sport set the relationship apart from other partnerships in the SDP literature (see Black, 2017; Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010). That is, whereas other studies have emphasized how partnerships were formed by actors that upheld different objectives and varying methods of achieving the objectives (see Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010), this study highlighted how the partnership centred on a common goal with different approaches to accomplish the goal. Thus, the relationship between Norwegian SDP actors may not be representative of how other actors involved in SDP interact with one another. In light of this, by exploring how partnerships are formed, the motivations behind collaboration, and by shedding light on the nature of the partnerships, the hope is to relate these findings to patterns of organizational behaviour to ultimately develop more equitable relations between organizations.

By having the opportunity to speak to the many individuals across the variety of Norwegian SDP actors, I had the privilege of connecting with the people and the organizations to learn about their personal experiences of participating in SDP. In acknowledging this, I also recognize that the next steps for the study of partnerships within SDP must also include the perspectives of the participants or beneficiaries of SDP projects. In so doing, the research will be able to better align the intentions of SDP actors with the realities and impact of the initiatives at the community level on the ground. Pursuing this type of research would be particularly meaningful in relation to the Norwegian sport culture – since much of the literature has pointed to the way that the focus by sport governing bodies on sport-for-all has created an unintended elitist and performance-centric culture (see Skille, 2011). According to Skille (2011), the structure of the Norwegian sport system has been counterintuitive to the goal of promoting sport-for-all. Since all sport (i.e., competitive and recreational, mass participation sport) in Norway is

governed by a single umbrella sport organization (e.g., the Norwegian Olympic Committee and Confederation of Sports), Skille (2011) argued that the focus on both classifications of sport has overwhelmed the Norwegian sport organization. Thus, despite the emphasis on a culture centred on inclusiveness and enjoyment for all in mind, Säfvenbom et al., (2014) and Skille (2011) assert that the Norwegian sport model continues to maintain an elitist culture. Further, in considering the ways that the partnerships in the Norwegian SDP realm have been largely asymmetrical and funder-driven, I concur with Black's (2017) call for the building up of like-minded coalitions of SDP organizations that are able to further their efforts while minimizing the costs and potential burdens of donor-recipient relations. Finally, in the spirit of remembering that partnerships among actors with different values will continue to exist, I conclude with Wilson's (2014, p. 6) call to approach the study of SDP with a "critical stance [while], at the same time, [seeking to contribute] to the development of theory and evidence-driven forms of SDP work."

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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A: List of Tables

*Table 2.0 Participant chart*

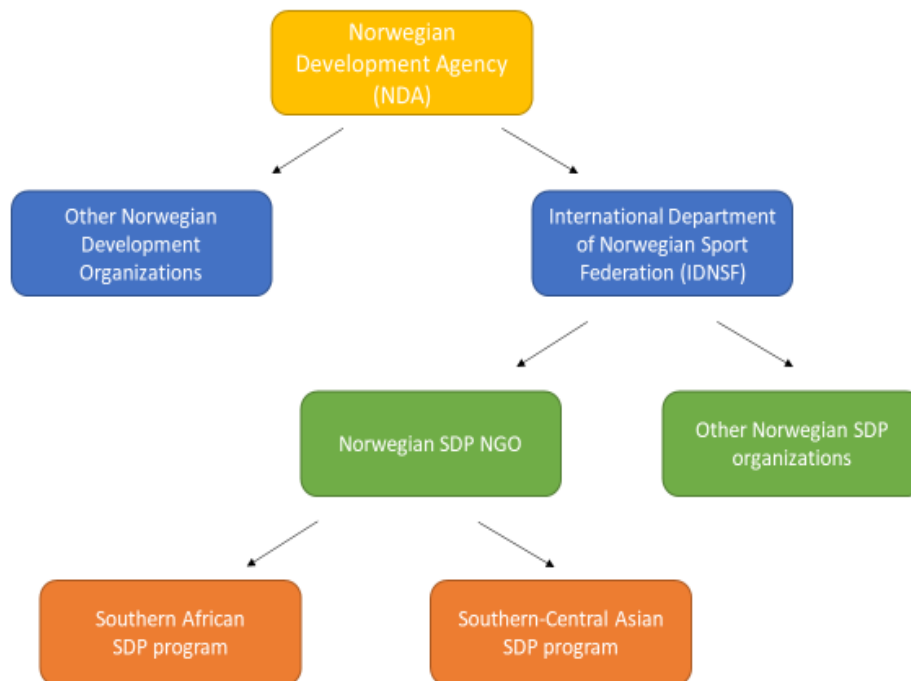
<b>Organizational Affiliation</b>	<b>Name</b>	<b>Organizational Position</b>	<b>Location of Interview</b>	<b>Date of Interview</b>
NDA	Tory	Adviser	Skype	Feb 2018
NDIR	Evan	Retired member	Phone call	Dec 2017
IDNSF	Ben	Manager	In-Person	Dec 2017
IDNSF	Frank	Adviser	In-Person	Nov 2017
NMAF	Liz	Adviser	In-Person	Dec 2017
Norwegian SDP NGO	Stephen	Former Board Member	Skype	Nov 2017
Norwegian SDP NGO	Brooke	Board Member	Skype	Mar 2018
Norwegian SDP NGO	Isabel	Board Member	Skype	Feb 2018
Norwegian SDP NGO	Oliver	Board Member	In-Person	Nov 2017
Norwegian SDP NGO	Owen	Board Member	Skype	Dec 2017
Norwegian SDP NGO	Thomas	Board Member	In-Person	Nov 2017

*Table 3.0 Overview of organizations*

<b>Organization</b>	<b>Acronym</b>	<b>N of people interviewed = 11</b>
Norwegian Department of International Relations	NDIR	1
Norwegian Development Agency	NDA	1
International Development department of a Norwegian Sport Federation	IDNSF	2
Norwegian Sport for development and peace NGO	Norwegian SDP NGO	6
Norwegian Martial Art Federation	NMAF	1

Table 4.0 List of documents collected and analyzed

<b>Name of document</b>	<b>Publication date</b>	<b>Authors</b>	<b>Target Audience</b>	<b>Document collection process</b>
Strategy for Norway's Culture and Sports Cooperation with Countries in the South	2005	NDIR	N/A	Organizational Website <a href="https://NDIR.no/en/">https://NDIR.no/en/</a>
<i>The Government's International Cultural Engagement Part II: Strengthening the Cultural Sector in Developing Countries</i>	2012	NDIR	N/A	Organization's representative
Norwegian SDP NGO 2016 Year End Report	2014	Norwegian SDP NGO	IDNSF	Requested from organization
Building Communities Through Sport	2015	IDNSF	N/A	Organizational Website <a href="https://IDNSF.no/english/">https://IDNSF.no/english/</a>
IDNSF Funding Application 2012 - 2015	2015	IDNSF	NDA	Requested from organization
IDNSF Final Results Report 2012-2015	2016	IDNSF	NDA	Requested from organization

**APPENDIX B: List of Figures**

*Figure 1.0 The flow of monetary funding from donor to recipient*

## APPENDIX C: Interview Guides

### Have you read and understood the Informed Consent Form?

**As you are aware, this interview will be recorded. Do you want to use a pseudonym (a made-up name) so that you remain anonymous in any publications that may come out of this study?**

1. Can you tell me a little about yourself?
  - a. What is your position within your organization?
  - b. How long have you been in this position?
  - c. What do you do as part of your work/day-to-day activities?
  - d. How did you come to be involved in sport and development?
  - e. What is your organization's role in Norwegian SDP?
2. How does your organization want the participants of the Norwegian SDP initiative to experience the program that is funded? How does your organization ensure that they have these experiences?
3. What does 'Peace' mean to your organization?
  - a. [*Probes*: How is it understood? How is it achieved through sport?]
  - b. [*Probe*: Does your organization's method to achieve the goal of peace differ from its partners? If so, how?]
4. Describe your organization's relationship with the other Norwegian SDP actors.
  - a. What are some of the challenges to, and benefits of, sustaining this relationship?
  - b. How does your organization apply for funding? Does your organization ever feel like it can challenge the requirements of funders when it applies for financial assistance in support of your work at your organization? [*Probes*: If so, how? If not, why not?]
5. How is your organization supported or challenged by the actions of the other Norwegian SDP actors?
  - a. [*Probe*: How does the mandate of your organization fit into the funding goals of your donors?]
  - b. [*Probe*: How has your organization negotiated the ways in which it has been limited by the actions of partners?]
6. How does your organization understand the concept of "sport for all"? How does the IDNSF's "sport for all" policy shape the work that you do at your organization, if at all?
7. In what ways does your organization as an organization support or challenge policies set by the Norwegian SDP actors related to 'sport for all' (e.g., NDIR's *Strategy for Norway's Culture and Sports Cooperation with Countries in the South*, IDNSF's *Joy of Sport – For all*)?
8. How does your organization understand high-performance sport?

- a. [*Probe*: In sport, there are often tournaments where athletes compete. At what level (i.e., regional, national) does a tournament become high-performance?]
- b. How does your organization support high-performance sport, if at all?

[*Probes*: If your organization does not support high-performance sport, what are some ways that performance-based outcomes are avoided at the program level? If your organization does support high-performance sport, in what ways? Do your organization's partners know about this? If so, how have they responded?]

## **APPENDIX D: Informed Consent Forms**

**Date:**

**Study Name:** Critically Examining the Norwegian Sport for Development and Peace Context: Partnerships and Policies

**Purpose of the Research:** The purpose of this research is to better understand the partnerships among Norwegian Sport for Development (SDP) stakeholders in the development and implementation of Norwegian SDP policy. This research will focus on: (a) the relationships between the Norwegian governmental agencies involved in SDP work, sport federations, and SDP non-governmental organizations (NGOs); and (b) the influence of these partnerships on SDP policy development and implementation. This research will use multiple case studies focusing on the Norwegian Department of International Relations (NDIR), the Norwegian Development Agency (NDA), the International Development department of a Norwegian Sport Federation (IDNSF), the Norwegian Martial Art Federation (NMAF) and a Norwegian SDP NGO. Multiple case studies will include: 1) analyzing organizational documents; 2) semi-structured interviews with key informants from each organization; and 3) participant observation. This research will be presented as an integral portion of Kelvin Leung's MA thesis, and will be disseminated through: 1) a final report shared with interested organizations and individuals; and 2) academic conferences and publications.

**What You Will Be Asked to Do in the Research:** I would like to invite you to participate in this study because you are associated with a Norwegian SDP actor as a present or former board member and/or staff. Your participation will consist of one semi-structured interview (via Skype, telephone call, or in person) that will last approximately 1 to 2 hours. The interview questions will mainly concern your position within the organization, your experience and knowledge of Norwegian SDP and funding programs, and your opinions regarding the role of the partnerships on your organization's programming and the utility, successes and broad operations of your organization. The time commitment related to the interview will vary depending on how much time you can give to this project, but will likely not exceed 2.5 hours in total. After the interview, we will transcribe the interview and then email it or mail it to you for

you to review and to edit as you deem necessary. The review can take about 30-60 minutes. Transcripts that are not reviewed within two weeks will be deemed as acceptable and will be used in the study. Written fieldnotes will also be recorded during and after interviews, but these notes will use pseudonyms and/or numeric codes through which to identify the participants throughout the field research.

Your participation will be a big help. The information you share will help to understand your experience in partnering with other SDP actors in Norway. The information will be used to develop stronger relationships between SDP partners to then create better programs and overall experiences in SDP.

**Risks and Discomforts:** I do not foresee any risks or discomfort from your participation in the research.

**Benefits of the Research and Benefits to You:** Your participation in this study will include contributing your knowledge about the role that partnerships play within the broader Norwegian SDP realm which could help foster stronger relationships between Norwegian SDP NGOs, the associated governmental agencies and the respective sport federations that are involved. Other benefits may include contributing your knowledge and having the opportunity to tell your story in your own words, and having your story documented and integrated into the broader discussions on the SDP landscape in Norway.

**Voluntary Participation and Withdrawal:** Your participation in the study is completely voluntary and you may choose to stop participating at any time. Your decision not to volunteer, to stop participating, or to refuse to answer particular questions will not influence the nature of the ongoing relationship you may have with the researchers or study staff, or the nature of your relationship with York University either now, or in the future. In the event you withdraw from the study, all associated data collected will be immediately destroyed wherever possible.

**Confidentiality:** All data, including final transcripts, audio-recordings, and handwritten notes will be retained in a locked cabinet in the sociocultural research lab in the School of Kinesiology and Health Science at York University, which will only be accessible by the research and his supervisor, Dr. Lyndsay Hayhurst. Furthermore, all electronic data will be stored in encrypted files whose access keys will be known only to the researcher and Dr. Hayhurst. The data, including final transcripts, field notes and audio-recordings, will be stored on Kelvin Leung's computer and locked filing cabinet until September 30, 2020. This material will not be made available to anyone other than the researcher, Dr. Hayhurst, and you at your personal request. No other persons will have access to the data without ethics approval. On September 30, 2020, Kelvin Leung will shred hard copies and securely delete digital copies.

You will be assigned a pseudonym (a made-up name). Furthermore, all identifying characteristics (i.e., organizational identity, position in organization) will be altered to promote anonymity. The research findings will be disseminated primarily to the Norwegian SDP actors (and other interested stakeholders that are mutually agreed upon), and through academic conferences, and publications, but your anonymity and confidentiality will be provided to the fullest extent possible by law. I do, however, recognize the importance of crediting sources of expert knowledge; as such, if you would like to be credited by name and position for your contributions, I will be glad to do that.

Where anonymity of participants in leadership positions of the international nongovernmental organizations (INGOs) cannot be guaranteed, the use of pseudonyms in lieu of individual names and the use of “senior manager” or “administrator” in lieu of the exact positions of participants are strategies that will be used in the final report. Additionally, these interviews (with NGO staff) do not involve the collection of sensitive information which also serves to minimize risk. Further, participants in leadership positions in NGOs will have a chance to retract, revise, or otherwise comment on the pre-analysis transcripts of their interviews. Finally, all participants will be offered the opportunity to check the accuracy of their transcript, and to stay in contact with the research team to hear about the outcomes of the project.

**Questions About the Research?** If you have questions about the research in general or about your role in the study, please feel free to contact [the researcher] or his supervisor.

This research has received ethics review and approval by the Delegated Ethics Review Committee, which is the delegated authority to review research ethics protocols by the Human Participants Review Sub-Committee, York University’s Ethics Review Board, and conforms to the standards of the Canadian Tri-Council Research Ethics guidelines.

**Legal Rights and Signatures:**

- I have read and understood the consent form.
- I have been given a copy of this consent form.
- I have had sufficient time to consider the information provided and to ask questions, and have received satisfactory responses to my questions.
- I understand that all of the information will be kept confidential and will only be used for scientific purposes.
- I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am completely free to refuse to participate or to withdraw from this study at any time, without the quality of care that I receive being affected in any way.
- I understand that this study will not provide any direct benefits to me.
- I understand that I am not waiving any of my legal rights as a result of signing this consent form.

- I have read this form and freely consent to participate in this study.

I (\_\_\_\_\_), consent to participate in *Critically Examining the Norwegian Sport for Development and Peace Context: Partnerships and Policies*. I have understood the nature of this project and wish to participate. I am not waiving any of my legal rights by signing this form. My signature below indicates my consent.

**Signature** \_\_\_\_\_

**Date** \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

**Signature** \_\_\_\_\_

**Date** \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

**Additional consent (where applicable)**

**1. Audio recording**

- I consent to the audio-recording of my interview(s).

**Signature:**

**Date:**

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

**2. Consent to waive anonymity**

I, \_\_\_\_\_ consent to the use of my name in the publications arising from this research.

**Signature:**

**Date:**

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

---

Check this box if you would like to receive a summary of the study findings. Your e-mail address and mailing address will be collected on a separate form.

If you do not check any of these boxes, you can still participate in the current study. You can also check these boxes off but decide in the future that you do not want to participate.

## APPENDIX E: Transcription Guide

Punctuation	Description	Meaning	Example
[...]	Ellipses within square brackets	Words removed from excerpt of transcript to use as an example. Used to limit the quote to the relevant information required for analysis.	We focus on the structures. [...] We have a consultant.  (Frank, IDNSF, Adviser, December 2017)
[example]	Word within square brackets	Word placed into transcript in order to provide clarity and understanding.  Also used to insert descriptions and names of organizations and activities to provide anonymity.	So we have been trying to do that for some time where you take a basic coaching course which is acknowledged by the whole region, do that in [one African country], you can continue with the next level if you travel to [another African country].  (Frank, IDNSF, Adviser, December 2017)
(example)	Word within parentheses	Word placed into transcript in order to provide clarity for reader. Used to remind reader of a particular organization or event.	When we (Norwegian SDP NGO) entered into [a partnership with the IDNSF], they were very scared because they also didn't want us [...]  (Brooke, Norwegian SDP NGO, Board Member, March 2018)

## **APPENDIX F: Recruiting and Sampling Memo**

While the process of recruitment and sampling for the Norwegian SDP NGO is described in more detail on pages 39-41, this appendix outlines the steps taken to recruit the other members of the study. The NDIR was a key organization to contact because it previously published a policy that outlined Norway's commitment to SDP activities (see NDIR, 2005). I received a response to my email which pointed to the NDIR's removal of SDP from its policy agenda. It was implied that there were no longer any individuals within the particular department of the NDIR that would be able to speak about its prior involvement in SDP:

With reference to your query, the previous [SDP policy] that you refer to has been changed. First in a White Paper to the Parliament in 2013, and further developed under two new governments. The strategy is for the Norwegian support to the cultural sector in developing countries, culture as in "cultural expressions." Sports is no longer included in this Strategy (NDIR, personal communication, November 7, 2017)

Upon further probing about the possibility to speak to a representative from the NDIR on its involvement in SDP, I received a response that directed me to reach out to another Norwegian SDP organization instead:

The SDP's head office in Geneva was closed a couple of years ago. However, [the International Development department of a Norwegian Sport Federation (IDNSF)] still has some activities running with support from [the NDA]. Contact person at [IDNSF] is [Ben] (NDIR, personal communication, November 8, 2017)

I moved forward with extending invitations to the Norwegian Development Agency (NDA) since I found that the NDA was responsible for funding all of Norway's development

related initiatives. I received a similar response from the NDA that outlined that there was no one who would be able to speak about the NDA's participation in SDP. Thus, I moved forward with reaching out to the IDNSF according to the recommendations from the NDIR. I received affirmation from two IDNSF members (Ben and Frank) who agreed to speak with me about the organization's involvement in Norwegian SDP. We agreed to meet in person at the IDNSF office in Oslo, Norway.

Once I arrived in Oslo, I met with Dr. Åse Strandbu, the professor associated with the Norwegian School of Sport Sciences who acted as my academic mentor during my stay in Norway. After consulting Dr. Strandbu about the status and aim of my study, I began meeting and conducting interviews with members of the Norwegian SDP NGO. Since the members of the SDP NGO were volunteers for the organization, many of the interviews were conducted in their work offices or at a local coffee shop. For example, my interview with Oliver took place at his company office during his lunch break. Brooke, another one of the board members of the Norwegian SDP NGO was unable to meet in person, and therefore, the interview was conducted through Skype. The interviews with the members from the Norwegian SDP NGO were useful for better understanding both individual and collective experiences with taking up and deploying SDP while partnering with other Norwegian SDP actors. The Norwegian SDP NGO members also referred me to Liz, an individual associated with the Norwegian martial art federation. The interview with Liz further reinforced the information gathered through the interviews with the members of the SDP NGO.

My interview with Ben and Frank from the IDNSF were conducted within a similar timeframe. The interviews with the IDNSF were integral to this study because the IDNSF was the principal Norwegian organization responsible for organizing and managing SDP related

activities. The insights gathered from the members were extremely valuable and the members introduced me to potential interview participants from other Norwegian SDP organizations. The recruitment process largely depended on snowball sampling, where access to other participants was granted through referrals from interview participants (see Noy, 2008). For example, Ben and Frank from the IDNSF introduced me to Evan, a retired member of the NDIR who was responsible for editing the Norwegian SDP policy originally published in 2005. Ben and Frank also reached out to Tory, the adviser from the NDA who was the authority for the funding agreements for Norwegian SDP initiatives. The snowball sampling effect was not exclusive to meeting potential study participants. Indeed, there was a similar effect when I began asking for documents that outlined the organizational imperatives of each of the Norwegian SDP actors. For example, when I asked Ben from the IDNSF for key SDP documents (see Table 3.0 on page 9), he was able to provide me with a wide array of records – from IDNSF’s funding applications to copies of previous SDP policies authored by the government. The documents were publicly available; however, the files were also archived such that it was largely otherwise inaccessible. Thus, without the connections from the members of the IDNSF, it would have been extremely difficult to collect input from the two organizations – especially after receiving messages from those same organizations (i.e., the NDIR and the NDA) that there was no one else who would be able to speak to me about the study.

I conducted a telephone interview with Evan – a former NDIR official whom I was referred to by other interviewees from the IDNSF. Evan’s participation in this study was vital because he was one of the editors of a key Norwegian SDP policy published in 2005 (see NDIR, 2005). The Norwegian SDP policy expressed the NDIR’s commitment to support and participate in SDP activities. At the time of the interview, the SDP policy was overwritten, and Evan’s

insight on the history of the SDP policy – from development, implementation and removal from the NDIR’s policy agenda – was indispensable. Evan’s knowledge on the Norwegian SDP structure, and specifically, the relationships between each actor involved in Norwegian SDP complemented and extended the accounts from the other SDP organizations.

The interview with Tory, the adviser for the Norwegian Development Agency was also coordinated through the members of the IDNSF. At the time, Tory was responsible for overseeing the funding agreements with the IDNSF and ensured that the application forms and funding conditions were met. Tory described the way in which the NDA acted as a key funding source for Norway’s participation in SDP; however, the organization had very little expertise in the forum of SDP. That is, SDP represented a minor fraction of the NDA’s commitment to development work compared to the wide array of other development initiatives that the NDA funded. According to the most recent publicly available evaluation of Norway’s participation in SDP (Nordic Consulting Group, 2011), the NDA allocated less than 1% of its funds to SDP initiatives. The interview with Tory was conducted through Skype since she was unavailable to meet with me in person.