Big Games in Small Places: The Perceived Impact of the African Youth Games on Organizational Capacity in Botswana

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Big Games in Small Places: The Perceived Impact of the African Youth Games on Organizational Capacity in Botswana

Master Thesis of Louis Moustakas

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2016
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Abstract

In May 2014, Botswana hosted its first-ever Major Sport Event (MSE), the 2nd African Youth Games (AYG). These Games brought 51 countries to Botswana and featured 2000 athletes competing in 21 sports. In the broader international sporting context, these Games are part of a growing number of MSEs being hosted in transition and developing economies. Also notable in the Botswana case is the high level of involvement of the National Sport Federations (NSFs) in the preparations for the event. Following Hall et al.’s (2003) conceptualization of capacity, the goal of this thesis is to investigate how hosting a multi-sport MSE can influence the overall capacity of sporting organizations, namely these NSFs, within a developing economy. The topic will be explored using the results from and analysis of semi-structured, qualitative interviews with individuals from the Botswana sport system. The results show that individuals perceive positive gains related to skill and knowledge development, international relationships and, in some instances, material resources. Conversely, negative outcomes include the lack of opportunities to apply or continue to develop these new skills, strained relationships within the Botswana sport system, and unmet financial expectations. The results further show that these different capacity outcomes do not exist independently, but are rather strongly interrelated. Moreover, the findings reveal that the AYG, though taking place in a developing economy, share many similar capacity outcomes with other MSEs. However, these results may also indicate that NSFs in developing or transition economies face greater relative positive or negative effects.
### Abbreviations

<table>
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<tr>
<td>ANOCA</td>
<td>Association of National Olympic Committees of Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AUSC</td>
<td>African Union Sport Council</td>
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<tr>
<td>AYG</td>
<td>African Youth Games</td>
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<td>BAYGOC</td>
<td>Botswana African Youth Games Organizing Committee</td>
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<td>BLTAD</td>
<td>Botswana Long-Term Athlete Development</td>
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<td>BNOOC</td>
<td>Botswana National Olympic Committee</td>
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<tr>
<td>BNOC</td>
<td>Botswana National Olympic Committee</td>
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<tr>
<td>CF</td>
<td>Continental Federation</td>
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<td>CGF</td>
<td>Commonwealth Games Federation</td>
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<td>DSR</td>
<td>Department of Sport and Recreation</td>
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<tr>
<td>IOC</td>
<td>International Olympic Committee</td>
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<td>IF</td>
<td>International Federation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M&amp;E</td>
<td>Monitoring and Evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSE</td>
<td>Major Sport Event</td>
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<td>MYSC</td>
<td>Ministry of Youth, Sport and Culture</td>
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<tr>
<td>NSF</td>
<td>National Sport Federation</td>
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<tr>
<td>SVM</td>
<td>Sport Volunteer Movement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UB</td>
<td>University of Botswana</td>
</tr>
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<td>YOG</td>
<td>Youth Olympic Games</td>
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1. Introduction

In April 2012, the Botswana National Olympic Committee (BNOC) formally submitted a bid with the Association of National Olympic Committees of Africa (ANOCA) to host the 2nd African Youth Games (AYG) in Gaborone in May 2014 (Xinhua News Agency, 2012). Almost a year later, in March 2013, the AYG were officially awarded to Botswana and a hosting agreement was signed (International Sport Press Foundation, 2013). The following month, the Botswana African Youth Games Committee (BAYGOC) was officially formed and, by February 2014, there were 25 paid staff and 12 interns within the organization (Botswana African Youth Games Organizing Committee, 2014c). This organizing committee was born out of the BNOC’s bid and, therefore, the two organizations greatly overlapped. Namely, the CEO of the BNOC was also appointed as the CEO of the BAYGOC (Butler, 2014), and the two organizations shared office space and other staff members.

Beyond the preparations relating to areas such as transport, accommodation, catering and logistics, the BAYGOC had to organize the staging of international-standard competitions for 21 different sports (Anderson, 2014). Typically, such multi-sport events appear to hire specialists to manage a sport or a small group of sports. Thereafter, these managers would coordinate with the National Sport Federations (NSFs) and International Federations (IFs) to set the competition rules, prepare venues, find officials and source volunteers.

Instead, for the AYG, individuals from the NSFs — most whom worked on a volunteer basis — were required to coordinate and organize all aspects of their respective sport competitions, hence giving these individuals and their NSFs significant additional workload. For the BAYGOC, these moves were part of an outsourcing strategy that both looked to cut costs and help build capacity within the Botswana sport sector (Botswana African Youth Games Organizing Committee, 2014a; Keetile, 2014; Koothupile, 2013b).

In the lead up to the Games, there were reports of resignations and political strife within the organization (Mokganedi, 2014; Sunday Standard Reporters, 2014). However, in spite of these issues, the AYG were generally perceived as a success (Koothupile, 2014). Taking place over ten days between the 21st and 31st of May 2014, it was the biggest event ever hosted in the country, staging competitions in 21 different sports and welcoming approximately 2000 athletes from 51 countries (Anderson, 2014; Botswana African Youth Games Organizing Committee, 2014b).

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1 Here, NSFs refer to the organizations governing a specific sport within Botswana, while IFs refer to the organizations governing a sport at the international level. Continental Federations (CFs) also exist, and here refer to those federations governing a sport at the African level.
1.1 Research Problem and Relevance

The notion of capacity was a recurring theme in the BAYGOC’s public discourse and the involved NSFs were told that their contribution to organizing the AYG would give them an opportunity to build their own organizational capacity (Botswana African Youth Games Organizing Committee, 2014a; Keetile, 2014; Koothupile, 2013a, 2013b; Mokganedi, 2014). In fact, this claim was even made in the official bid book for the AYG: “The 2014 African Youth Games will also directly benefit the national sport associations involved in terms of improving their organizational capacity and interaction with continental and international sports federations” (Botswana National Olympic Committee, 2013). However, there was no systematic assessment of the post-Games impact conducted in Botswana and, in the scientific literature, there is no research on the impact of major sport events (MSEs) on the overall capacity of the participating sport organizations. Much of the literature looks at the economic, touristic, or social effects of these events. Some capacity-related issues, such as human resources, infrastructure or organizational networks are also discussed, but not necessarily in relation to sport organizations.

And yet, with more and more transition or developing economies, like Botswana, having hosted or getting set to host multi-sport MSEs, it is increasingly relevant to research how the staging of such events can impact sport organization capacity in such countries. Azerbaijan, Samoa and Brazil have recently hosted youth or senior multi-sport events, while the Bahamas, Kazakhstan, Turkmenistan, Ivory Coast, Argentina and South Africa\(^2\) are scheduled to do the same within the next six years (Association of National Olympic Committees, 2016). It is reasonable to assume that, unlike more traditional hosting nations such as the United Kingdom, the United States, Australia, or Germany, the sport systems in these countries do not necessarily possess the skills, knowledge, experience, networks, processes, and resources associated with the regular hosting of MSEs or other events. This relative lack of experience in terms of hosting could therefore have different implications on the capacity development of national sport organizations. For example, as the experience of hosting may still have a high-degree of novelty, the opportunities for learning and skills development are likely higher than for more traditional hosts. In contrast, this lack of experience may also lead to mistakes that have negative long-term consequences for the sport organizations involved.

Though a precise definition of MSEs is elusive, most available definitions refer to common characteristics such as the scale, reach, international participation and complexity of the event (Busa, 2012; Malfas, Theodoraki, & Houlihan, 2004; Müller, 2015; North West Sports Event Directory, 2009). Busa (2012) offers the following definition:

---

\(^2\) The terminology and country classification come from the World Economic Situations and Prospects report by the United Nations (2013). All of the countries mentioned either fall into the ‘developing economies’ or ‘economies in transition’ categories.
“A mega-event is a large-scale, internationally sponsored, public entrepreneurship activity engaging a long-term multi-sector organization within the host city and nation with the double goal of supporting overall local and regional development and advancing universal values and principles to meet global challenges”

Given the number of athletes, the number of participating countries, the multi-national workforce (Botswana African Youth Games Organizing Committee, 2014a), the focus on capacity, the presence of the International Olympic Committee (IOC) (Koothupile, 2014), and the striking of a broadcast agreement with the Pan-African Supersport network (Osborne, 2014), the AYG largely meets the definition above and can thus be classified as a MSE. Accordingly, the AYG can provide a good starting point to investigate how hosting a multi-sport MSE can impact the capacity of sport organizations in general and, more explicitly, within a developing economy.

Indeed, the goal of this thesis is to investigate how hosting a multi-sport MSE can influence the overall capacity of sporting organizations, namely NSFs, within a developing economy. The topic will be explored using the results from and analysis of semi-structured, qualitative interviews with individuals from the Botswana sport system. The Botswana case is particularly relevant to explore this topic, as the NSFs were highly engaged in the preparations for the event and, with the event now more than two years ago, it is appropriate to begin examining the longer-term impacts of hosting.

1.2 Structure

This thesis begins by introducing the theoretical framework. The concept of capacity, and its definitions, will be presented. The different conceptualizations of capacity will also be discussed, and, at the end, the definition and conceptualization underpinning in this study will be brought forth. Indeed, the framework underpinning this study will serve to guide the structure of the rest of this thesis, as the literature review and results will be divided and presented per the selected conceptualization of capacity. This is not meant to create redundancy, but rather to provide a clear, logical thread for the presentation of this thesis.

Thereafter, the necessary background on the context and structure of Botswana sport system will be discussed. Namely, this includes the overall structure of the sport system, the financing of the sport system, the key national sport policies, and the sport participation trends in Botswana. A collection of related literature and policy documents support this presentation of the Botswana sport system. Given the at times limited official documentation, this section also uses, when needed, results from interviews to fill in relevant information gaps.

Afterwards, a literature review looking at capacity building and the impact of MSE hosting will be presented. The different approaches that may help build organizational capacity, as set forth in
capacity building literature, will be discussed. The potential impacts of MSEs will also be presented and viewed under the lens of the selected conceptualization of capacity presented in the theoretical framework.

Then, the overall qualitative methodology of the study will be outlined along with a discussion of the study’s limitations. Afterwards, the results and discussion will be presented together. Given the qualitative nature of the data, and the reliance on interviews, this is done to present relevant quotations only once and lighten the text. Here again, the results will be presented according to our conceptualization of capacity. Namely, the results will be divided per effects on human resource capacity, financial capacity, relationship and network capacity, infrastructure and process capacity, and planning and development capacity. Finally, in the conclusion, the overall study and its findings will be summarized and the practical and research implications will be discussed.
2. Theoretical Framework

In the following, the literature on organizational capacity is addressed with a special focus on literature specifically relating to sport or non-profit organizations. First, the various definitions and conceptualizations of organizational capacity will be discussed. Thereafter, the definition and framework that will guide the rest of this study will be put forward.

2.1 Definitions and Conceptualizations of Capacity

Organizational capacity — hereafter also simply referred to as capacity — is a key concept for sport organizations, yet the term has become so broadly used that narrowing down its exact definition can be difficult (Brown, LaFond, & Macintyre, 2001; McPhee & Bare, 2001; Misener & Doherty, 2009; Svensson, 2015).

The notion of capacity is often found in literature related to health and health systems (Brown et al., 2001; Goodman et al., 1998; Potter, 2004). For example, Goodman et al. (1998) define capacity as “the ability to carry out stated objectives”. Furthermore, they view capacity as “a potential state” whereas competence refers to how skilfully that capacity is applied (Goodman et al., 1998). Similar notions are also found in literature related specifically to sport or non-profit organizations. Hall et al. (2003), in a report on the Canadian non-profit sector, state that “capacity refers to the ability to perform or produce” while also noting that the term is often used in reference to potential, or maximum capacity. Eisinger (2002) likewise defines capacity as “a set of attributes that help an organization achieve its mission”. And, in a study specifically related to non-profit sport organizations, Misener and Doherty (2013) define capacity as “the ability of an organization to harness its internal and external resources to achieve its goals”. Overall, the definitions converge around the idea that organizational capacity refers to the ability to achieve certain outcomes or goals. This general theme, in fact, is found in many of the other available definitions (Barman & MacIndoe, 2012; Colville, 2008; Horton et al., 2003; van Greene, 2003).

Organizational capacity is further broken down and conceptualized in literature. The oft-cited Hall et al. (2003) divide capacity into external and internal factors, which in the end combine to deliver organizational outputs, such as products or services. External factors include the environment, access to resources and historical factors. Specifically, the environment refers to the facilitators and constraints that exists within politics, public policy, regulations, societal values, societal needs, demographics, and “the nature and extent of competition among nonprofits, businesses, and government” (Hall et al., 2003). Access to resources speaks to financial, material and technological resources and how access to them is affected by the environment. Historical factors refer to past behaviours, activities or values that might impact the organization (Hall et al., 2003). In terms of internal — or organizational — factors, they are separated into human resource, financial and
structural capacity. Viewed as the most important element of internal capacity, human resource capacity refers to the “ability to deploy human capital”, including the skills, knowledge and behaviour of the people available (Hall et al., 2003). Financial capacity refers to the “ability to access and deploy financial capital”, and includes not only money, but also an organization’s assets and liabilities, which therefore includes physical resources. Finally, structural capacity is “the ability to deploy non-financial capital” and is further sub-divided into relationship and network capacity, infrastructure and process capacity, and planning and development capacity (Hall et al., 2003). Relationship and network capacity speaks to relations with individuals and stakeholders, including clients, members, partners and the public at large. Infrastructure capacity refers to processes and the day-to-day tools used by an organization, including its information technology and manuals. Finally, planning and development capacity refers to the “ability to develop and draw on organizational strategic plans, program plans and design, policies, and proposals” and can include elements such as developing a mission statement, developing policies, preparing funding proposals and planning activities in the longer term (Hall et al., 2003). Multiple studies related to organizational capacity explicitly apply Hall et. al’s (2003) model to their research (Misener & Doherty, 2009, 2013; Sharpe, 2006; Svensson, 2015; Wicker & Breuer, 2011, 2013).

Other conceptualizations of capacity can also be found. Looking at the issue of capacity in non-profit organizations, Vita, Fleming and Twombly (2001) divide organizational capacity into three broad categories: leadership, resources and outreach. Leadership encompasses individuals at every level, from volunteers to board members, and refers to these individuals’ abilities to articulate the organization’s vision and marshal the resources needed to achieve that vision. Resources is a broad category that includes financial resources, human resources, technological resources, and infrastructure. Generally, these refer to the availability of physical and monetary resources, though human resources also encompass the notions of skills and knowledge. Finally, the outreach category refers to dissemination, community awareness and partnerships (Vita et al., 2001). These three elements are further intertwined with the organization’s vision and mission and, in the end, combine to deliver product and service outputs.

In a book addressing capacity in research and development organizations, Horton et al. (2003) break down capacity into two broad categories: resources and management. Resources is further broken down into two sub-categories, namely staff members and infrastructure, technology, and financial resources. Overall, the resources category is meant to reflect “things that are traditionally thought of as ‘hard’ capacities, such as infrastructure, technology, finances, and staffing” (Horton et al., 2003). Conversely, management is “concerned with creating the conditions under which appropriate objectives are set and achieved” and further divided into three sub-categories, specifically strategic leadership, programme and process management, and networking and linkages (Horton et
al., 2003). Strategic leadership refers to the ability to plan and react to the overall environment, programme management is concerned with the delivery of services for clients, and process management refers to the management of resources and processes associated with research and development (Horton et al., 2003). Finally, network and linkages speaks to an organization’s ability to develop and manage relationships with internal and external stakeholders (Horton et al., 2003).

Overall, these conceptualizations share many commonalities. The above all set aside categories or sub-categories dedicated to financial and material resources, human resources, and organizational networks. The main differences rather reside in how these categories are divided and how the interactions are depicted.

2.2 Selected Definition and Framework

Misener and Doherty’s (2013) definition of capacity as “the ability of an organization to harness its internal and external resources to achieve its goals” is used as the basis for this study. As their work refers directly to sport organizations, their definition is especially relevant for the following study. Furthermore, their definition reflects many of the elements found in other work (Eisinger, 2002; Hall et al., 2003) and can therefore be seen as broadly applicable.

To further conceptualize organizational capacity, the framework proposed by Hall et al. (2003) is used. As mentioned previously, the model is frequently applied in literature on capacity and, as it relates to non-profit organizations, it is relevant to apply it to Botswana sport organizations, most of which are volunteer run non-profits. The presence of a relationship and network capacity category is also extremely valuable in the context of research in and about Botswana. Botswana society places high value on consultation, cooperation, and communication (Lewis Jr., 2005; Merriam & Ntseane, 2007). Therefore, the ability to build relationships, manage networks and work with stakeholders are key success drivers in Botswana and should be a featured component of capacity in this environment. Finally, this conceptualization is also valuable because it depicts some level of interaction between the organizational capacity areas and takes into account enabling and limiting factors in the environment, factors that may be especially pertinent in analysing capacity-related outcomes in a developing economy like Botswana. The overall conceptual framework is depicted in Figure 1.
Figure 1. Conceptual framework of organizational capacity (Hall et al., 2003).
3. Botswana Sport System

Botswana is a landlocked country in Southern Africa and is bordered by Namibia, Zambia, South Africa and Zimbabwe. Its landmass is over 600,000 square kilometres, making it comparable to Texas or France in size, and has a sparse population of just over 1.8 million inhabitants (CIA World Factbook, 2016).

Despite the relatively low population, the sport system is diverse and complex, featuring government, the Botswana National Sport Commission (BNSC), the Botswana National Olympic Committee (BNOC), over 30 NSFs and numerous other multi-sport organizations (Botswana National Sports Commission, 2016c). The following seeks to provide an overview of this sport system. First, the overall structure of organized sport in the country will be presented, including a look into the roles of government and non-government structures. Afterwards, the nature of sport financing will be discussed, followed by an overview of sport policy and sport participation in Botswana.

3.1 Sport System and the Structure of Organized Sport

At the national level, there are two main centres of power in Botswana sport, namely the BNSC and the BNOC. Though in theory the BNSC should be responsible for sport development and the BNOC for elite sport, in practice the two organizations have somewhat overlapping mandates. Their activities and policies both target the areas of elite sport, sport for all and sport development (Botswana National Olympic Committee, 2014a, 2015a; Botswana National Sports Commission, 2016a; Ministry of Youth, Sport and Culture, 2001).

Describing itself as the “supreme custodian for sport in Botswana”, the BNSC is an arm of the Ministry of Youth, Sport and Culture (MYSC) and has broad authority over the Botswana sport system (Botswana National Sports Commission, 2016a). This authority was further expanded when the Parliament passed the Botswana National Sports Commission Act of 2014, which gave the BNSC greater control over the activities and budgets of the NSFs. Overall, the BNSC is responsible for implementing the national sport policy, coordinating sport development activities, coordinating short-term and long-term planning, managing sport facilities, promoting inclusive sport participation, coordinating NSF funding and overseeing NSF budgets (Botswana National Sports Commission, 2016a; Botswana National Sport Commission Act of 2014, 2014). At the elite sport level, the BNSC authorises “participation of national teams in international sport competitions”, provides funding and training opportunities to athletes, (Botswana National Sport Commission Act of 2014, 2014) and controls participation in events organized by the African Union Sports Council, including the African Games, which is the continent’s top multi-sport event, and regional youth games (African Union Sports Council Region 5, 2016; Botswana National Sports Commission, 2016a, 2016b).
The BNOC receives a majority of its funding from the government but, as per the Olympic Charter, is a distinct organization outside of the government (Olympic Charter, 2015). The BNOC is responsible for the country’s participation in all Olympic and Commonwealth events, including the Olympic Games, Youth Olympic Games, African Youth Games, Commonwealth Games, and Commonwealth Youth Games (Botswana National Olympic Committee, 2014a). In addition, through their access to Olympic Solidarity funding, the BNOC can support training and education opportunities for athletes, coaches, sport administrators and researchers (Botswana National Olympic Committee, 2014b). The BNOC has also taken a leading role in implementing a new Long-Term Athlete
Development (BLTAD) strategy that focuses on youth sport, mass-participation and elite athlete development (Botswana National Olympic Committee, 2015a).

The Ministry of Youth, Sport and Culture, through its Department of Sport and Recreation, sets and monitors national sport policy and provides funding for sport organizations (Ministry of Youth, Sport and Culture, 2001). In addition, the Minister is empowered to give directives to the BNSC and appoint its CEO (Botswana National Sport Commission Act of 2014, 2014).

### 3.2 Financing of Sport

Sport is largely financed by the government through the MYSC, which in turn directs funds to the BNOC and the BNSC (Botswana National Sport Commission Act of 2014, 2014). The latter coordinates those funds and distributes them to the NSFs. The amount of funding given to each NSF is dependent on which tier a NSF is classified. Those classified in a higher tier receive more funding whereas those in a lower tier receive less funding. The classification is largely based upon the amount of clubs affiliated to the NSF and the presence of the sport in primary, secondary and tertiary schools (Anonymous NSF Source 05, personal communication, September 2016). One NSF in the lower tier reported receiving 180,000 Pula³ (15,000 EUR) per year to fund their operations (Anonymous NSF Source 05, personal communication, September 2016).

The BNOC has the exclusive ability to apply for Olympic Solidarity funding and some of that funding is especially intended for the benefit of the NSFs (International Olympic Committee, 2016). Olympic Solidarity programmes include coach and administrator courses, the development of national sporting organizations, research scholarships, and athlete scholarships (International Olympic Committee, 2016). IFs also play a role in funding NSFs as many of them have programmes to provide financial and material support for the development of NSFs (Chappell, 2004). Many organizations also rely on private companies to provide sponsorship support (Chappell, 2004). For example, local diamond company Debswana is a sponsor of the Botswana Football Association (Botswana Football Association, 2016). However, a policy is now in place that prevents alcohol companies from sponsoring sport, hence limiting the financial opportunities of sport organizations and events (Kolantsho, 2016).

### 3.3 Sport Policy

The most recent, formal national sport policy dates back to 2001 and the National Sport and Recreation Policy for Botswana (Ministry of Youth, Sport and Culture, 2001). This document outlines both priority goals for national sport and defines the roles of the sport organizations in the country. The document gives broad, at times overlapping mandates to actors in the Botswana sport system. For

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³ Pula is the currency of Botswana. For comparison, 1 Euro is worth about 12 Pula.
example, both the BNSC and the BNOC are tasked with the preparation of international teams and both are encouraged to develop sports at the grassroots level (Ministry of Youth, Sport and Culture, 2001). Nine priority areas are mentioned in the policy and are largely centred around the capacity of national sport organizations, the development of sport facilities and sport participation. Table 1 provides a summary of those priorities.

Table 1 Priorities outlined in the Sport and Recreation Policy for Botswana (Ministry of Youth, Sport and Culture, 2001)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Priority</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Priority 1</td>
<td>To establish a clear, integrated structure for the planning, co-ordination and delivery of sport and recreation opportunities at all levels.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Priority 2</td>
<td>To increase and build capacity of clubs and national sport associations in the development and management of their sport.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Priority 3</td>
<td>To improve the facilities for sport and recreation in Botswana.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Priority 4</td>
<td>To build a national approach to elite athlete development that will increase the standard of performance in sport in Botswana.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Priority 5</td>
<td>To ensure that all Batswana(^4) are aware of the benefits of participation in sport and recreation and have opportunities to become involved in all aspects of sport and recreation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Priority 6</td>
<td>To increase and sustain the quality and the number of people trained in all aspects of sport.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Priority 7</td>
<td>To develop and implement a system of information, research, monitoring and evaluation that will measure the contribution of sport and recreation to the attainment of the country’s socio-economic integration and its human development objectives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Priority 8</td>
<td>To develop a culture of sport in Botswana.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Priority 9</td>
<td>To develop a broad-based sport and recreation programme.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Arguably, the most significant sport policy document since 2001 has been the aforementioned Botswana National Sport Commission Act of 2014. This law changed the BNSC from a council to a commission, defined its role and significantly expanded its powers. Similar to the previous policy, the BNSC is tasked with, amongst other things, implementing national sport policy, managing sport facilities, promoting sport participation, promoting sport tourism and hosting sport events (Botswana National Sport Commission Act of 2014, 2014). The BNSC’s authority has notably increased in regards to its ability to oversee the programmes and budgets of the NSFs as well as to authorise teams for international competitions (Botswana National Sport Commission Act of 2014, 2014). In addition, a more recent set of national goals for Botswana sport have been developed by the BNSC. Known as high-level targets, the BNSC namely aims to improve the contribution of sports to society, to improve

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\(^4\) Batswana is the plural demonym for Botswana, whereas Motswana is the singular demonym.
athlete performance, to increase event hosting and to increase sport participation (Botswana Swimming Sports Association, 2014).

In 2014 the BNOC began developing a Botswana Long-Term Athlete Development (BLTAD) strategy, a strategy which was later adopted by the MYSC and BNSC in 2015. BLTAD describes itself as:

“a framework for safe and progressive long-term sport success and/or life-long participation in sport. It provides age appropriate guidelines for development of Batswana of ALL ages, gender, ability, and backgrounds, that are based on scientific AND psycho-social principles of human growth and development” (Botswana National Olympic Committee, 2015b).

This framework emphasizes the development of fundamental movement skills, such as running, jumping, throwing or catching, at a young age and minimizes participation in competitive sport until youth are young teenagers (Botswana National Olympic Committee, 2015b). The strategy also emphasizes the different roles of the stakeholders in the Botswana sport system, tasking the BNSC with the development of youth sport, the BNOC with supporting elite sport, and the MYSC with coordinating collaboration with other ministries (Botswana National Olympic Committee, 2015a).

3.4 Sport Participation

Sport participation numbers are not readily available at the national or NSF level (Anonymous Expert Source 01 and 02, personal communication, September 2016). Anecdotal evidence, however, indicates that football, athletics, netball and volleyball are amongst the most popular sports within the country (Anonymous NSF Source 01, personal communication, August 2016). Some concrete data is available thanks to Sayed (2003) who surveyed 438 residents — 228 male and 210 female — between 18 and 40 years of age in three towns. Respondents could select more than one sport. Though dated, not representative of the general population, and not necessarily related to overall sport participation, these findings do help draw a picture of the popularity of sports in Botswana. Table 2 summarizes Sayed’s (2003) findings, which place football, tennis, netball, general fitness activities and basketball as the most popular activities. Volleyball and athletics also find themselves within the top-ten. Elsewhere, an analysis of the sport and recreation preferences in the Botswana Defence Force shows that soccer, volleyball, general fitness activities, and running activities are all practiced by at least a quarter of respondents (Young, Goslin, Potgieter, Nthangeni, & Modise, 2011). In a survey of 1664 respondents in six different cities, Amusa, Toriola, Onyewadume, and Dhaliwal (2008) similarly find that the most popular sports were “athletics, soccer, softball, swimming, table tennis and volleyball” and further indicate that 20% of respondents participate in sport three times a week. Unfortunately, their detailed sport participation data is not made publicly available.
In spite of evidence that Botswana has high interest in sport, socio-economic and socio-cultural factors are substantial barriers to sport participation (Amusa et al., 2008; Sayed, 2003). These barriers include lack of time and money, lack of transport and lack of facilities (Amusa et al., 2008; Sayed, 2003). Overall, these barriers likely play role in Botswana’s high rates of obesity. As of 2008, “48% of those aged 15 and above are overweight or obese” (World Bank, 2009) and 11.2% of the population suffer from obesity (World Health Organization, 2014).

Table 2 Sport participation in Molepolole, Serowe and Masunga amongst 438 residents aged 18 to 40 (Sayed, 2003)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SPORT</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
<th>MEN</th>
<th>WOMEN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Football</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennis</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netball</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fitness</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table Tennis</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volleyball</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Softball</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karate</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Athletics</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dance</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aerobics</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Badminton</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gymnastics</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handball</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cycling</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boxing</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rugby</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cricket</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hockey</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Squash</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skating</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. Literature Review

There are two main, relevant strands of literature available for the current study. One is related to the mechanisms and processes available to organizations to help build their capacity. Thus, the first part of this literature review will explore the different approaches to capacity building in organizations.

The second relevant area is concerned with the impacts of hosting a MSE. There is a varied literature on this topic and the effects discussed cover a wide range, from economic impacts, to crime, to housing and transportation. However, this review will rather explore how these events can impact the five predefined capacity areas, namely human resource capacity, financial capacity, relationship and network capacity, infrastructure and process capacity, and planning and development capacity.

4.1 Capacity Building

As mentioned in the theoretical framework, capacity is defined here as “the ability of an organization to harness its internal and external resources to achieve its goals” (Misener & Doherty, 2013). More specifically, capacity is conceptualized as a combination of external factors and human resource capacity, financial capacity, relationship and network capacity, infrastructure and process capacity, and planning and development capacity (Hall et al., 2003). The goal of the following section is to explore what mechanisms, actions or policies at the organizational level can help build this capacity.

Crisp, Swerissen and Duckett (2000) provide a useful outline of four main approaches to organizational capacity building. They contend that capacity building can occur through a top-down organizational approach, a bottom-up organizational approach, partnerships or community organizing (Crisp et al., 2000). The top-down approach refers to actions relating to organizational policy, incentives, and resource allocation. The bottom-up approach, on the other hand, speaks to workforce skill development and the generation of ideas (Crisp et al., 2000). Partnerships refer to “the development of partnerships between organizations or groups of people” (Crisp et al., 2000). Finally, community organizing means having community members “go from passive recipients of services to active participants” in change (Crisp et al., 2000). Though these approaches come from health-related literature, they nonetheless form a useful basis to discuss the potential methods an organization might use to increase its capacity and, therefore, will serve as the basis for the rest of this section.

It should be noted that acquiring supplemental financial and material resources can be a boon to an organization and is included in numerous conceptualizations of capacity (Glickman & Servon, 1998; Hall et al., 2003; Horton et al., 2003; Morgan, 1999; Vita et al., 2001). The benefits of acquiring additional resources are almost self-evident, as they can help “fill gaps that constrain the growth of capacity and the improvement of performance” (Morgan, 1999). Yet, extra resources can also mask other problems, create conflict or be misappropriated (Morgan, 1999). Ultimately, the extra benefit
provided by these resources is largely contingent on other influences, namely the organization’s mission, vision, goals, strategy, policies, leadership, and skills. In short, the ability to use financial resources competently and efficiently is heavily dependent on an organization’s capacity in other areas. Therefore, it is rather these areas that will be discussed in the following.

4.1.1 Top-Down Approaches

Top-down approaches generally relate to high-level organizational actions (Crisp et al., 2000). These approaches can take the shape of determining an organization’s aspirations — vision, mission and goals — setting the strategic direction, modifying the organizational structure and changing organizational incentives or pressures (Boris, 2001; Crisp et al., 2000; Morgan, 1999; Venture Philanthropy Partners, 2001). Clearly defining an organization’s aspirations, and aligning its strategies and structures with those aspirations, helps organizations delineate what they do and do not do, and can play a role in eliminating programmes or initiatives that have limited impact (Boris, 2001; Morgan, 1999; Venture Philanthropy Partners, 2001).

There are some examples of how these approaches can lead to positive capacity outcomes. Over nearly a decade, the Nature Conservancy reworked its mission statement, vision, approach, and goals. The new, clearer focus that these changes brought helped the organization triple “its revenues, staff, and number of offices” (Venture Philanthropy Partners, 2001). Similarly, by devolving planning and implementation activities to its local partners, as opposed to its central office, the Ghana Leprosy Service became more responsive to community needs (Babu & Mthindi, 1995). Business literature also emphasizes the importance of clear aspirations and strategies (Kotter, 1995; Nanus, 1992). In the end, however, for such approaches to be successful, there must be general consensus and limited conflict within the organization (Brinkerhoff & Morgan, 2010; Morgan, 1999). In addition, such efforts must not be limited to headquarters, but must involve the broader organization (Babu & Mthindi, 1995; Struyk, Damon, & Haddaway, 2011).

Organizations can also modify their internal incentive structures in an attempt to increase capacity (Brinkerhoff & Morgan, 2010; Crisp et al., 2000; Morgan, 1999). Generally, incentives can “shape staff commitment and motivation” and enhancing them can lead to greater output from an organization’s human resources (Brinkerhoff & Morgan, 2010; Morgan, 1999; Venture Philanthropy Partners, 2001). For example, Citizen Schools, a community-based education initiative, reworked its incentives to offer its employees benefits, professional development opportunities and new, prestigious job titles. This in turn led to greater staff retention, more funding and, ultimately, allowed them to reach more children (Venture Philanthropy Partners, 2001). An interesting counter-point comes from Grindle & Hilderbrand (1995), who, through case studies involving public sector organizations, find that effective performance is more often driven by “organizational cultures, good management
practices, and effective communication networks than it is by rules and regulations or procedures and pay scales”. Nonetheless, their research also recognizes the importance of fair promotions based on performance (Grindle & Hilderbrand, 1995).

4.1.2 **Bottom-Up Approaches**

Bottom-up approaches focus on training “members of the organization and providing them with skills and knowledge” that are not only beneficial to the individuals, but to the overall organization (Crisp et al., 2000). An overwhelming amount of literature speaks to the importance of knowledge and skill development within a capacity building context (Backer, 2001; Boris, 2001; Cairns, Harris, & Young, 2005; Glickman & Servon, 1998; Horton et al., 2003; Massell, 2000; Swiss Academy for Development, 2016; United Nations Environment Programme, 2006; Venture Philanthropy Partners, 2001). Though literature is unanimous on the importance of skill and knowledge development, isolated training activities are not enough to truly build capacity. Rather, individuals must also be given clear opportunities to use and perfect their newly-acquired skills (Potter, 2004; United Nations Environment Programme, 2006). And, ideally, training activities would be embedded in long-term programmes and “use a range of capacity building approaches in parallel” (United Nations Environment Programme, 2006).

There are some practical examples of skill development programmes in the available literature. In West Africa, a year-long, multi-module leadership development course was implemented. According to participant interviews, the programme helped them improve their leadership skills, and they were often able to give concrete examples of how they were able to use what they had learned, especially in relation to trust, listening and interpersonal relationships (Dia & Eggink, 2010). Contrastingly, training activities within India’s medical sector did not generate such positive results. Looking to enhance the planning skills of local units, the Indian government sent numerous doctors to take “micro-planning” courses (Potter, 2004). However, this initiative proved to be a poor fit for the local environment and the doctors did not have the opportunity to use the acquired skills (Potter, 2004). There are also examples of training and skill development occurring through MSEs and these will be discussed in more detail in section 4.2.

4.1.3 **Partnerships**

The role of partnerships, connections and networks are a prominent theme within capacity building literature. Much like skill and knowledge development above, literature is nearly unanimous on the importance of partnerships and networking (Backer, 2001; Boris, 2001; Crisp et al., 2000; Horton et al., 2003; Lopes, Malik, & Fukuda-Parr, 2002; Morgan, 1999). Indeed, many conceptualizations of capacity explicitly include categories relating to organizational networks or partnerships (Glickman
& Servon, 1998; Hall et al., 2003; Horton et al., 2003; Vita et al., 2001). As Boris (2001) points out, these networks and partnerships “have the potential to bring in new financial contributions, help identify potential board members or volunteers, improve operations, or meet a variety of other needs within the organization”. In addition, aside from maximizing resources, collaboration can expose staff to new ideas and ways of thinking (Boris, 2001).

Some literature within the sports field investigates the implications of these interorganizational relationships or partnerships. In a study of community sport organizations in Canada, Misener and Doherty (2013) find that organizations often rely on these relationships to secure tangible resources, but that additional investment in these linkages can also lead to gains in terms of promotion, media, and mentoring opportunities. Elsewhere, Casey, Payne and Eime (2009) look at collaborative projects between sport and health sector actors aiming at increasing sport participation. They conclude that these collaborations can yield positive results and that the “more formalized partnerships become, the more likely interventions will be successfully implemented and sustained” (Casey et al., 2009). Literature also shows that forming research networks can help African academic institutions overcome some of the constraints in their external environments (Mohamedbhai, 2012; Söderbaum, 2001). In addition, some research exists exploring networks created as the result of sport events (Chalip & Leyns, 2002; Kellett, Hede, & Chalip, 2008) and these will be discussed in section 4.2.

Overall, though it is clear these partnerships can be beneficial, they do not happen spontaneously. Researchers and practitioners generally agree that, to maximize such partnerships or interorganizational networks, strategic vision, planning and coordination are key to leverage their full benefits (Casey et al., 2009; Chalip & Leyns, 2002; Kellett et al., 2008; Misener & Doherty, 2013).

4.1.4 Community Organizing

Community organizing is an approach to capacity building that involves transforming individuals from mere product or service consumers to active participants in change (Finn & Checkoway, 1998). In practice, this means identifying and working with members of the community to develop and implement organizational initiatives. Though this approach may foster new ideas and ensure community buy-in, it also runs the risk of unrealistically raising community expectations (Crisp et al., 2000). The engagement of the broader community can also be relevant to the success of partnership or networking activities. For example, in their work on projects between sport and health sector actors aiming at increasing sport participation, Casey et al. (2009) conclude that partnerships can benefit from the involvement of diverse stakeholders, including at the community level.
4.2 Event Impact

A large body of research exists dealing with the various impacts sporting events can have on a host community or country. An important number of those studies deal with the broader economic effects of hosting and present a mix of both positive and negative economic outcomes (Crompton & Lee, 2000; Gratton, Shibili, & Coleman, 2006; Humphreys & Prokopowicz, 2007; Kasimati, 2003; Matheson, 2006; McCartney et al., 2010; Preuss, 2005; Siegrfried & Zimbalist, 2006). Tourism is another oft-discussed area in relation to MSEs, especially in terms of visitor perception and visitor attraction, but here again the results are mixed (Gibson, Willming, & Holdnak, 2003; Lee, Taylor, Lee, & Lee, 2005; McCartney et al., 2010; Preuss, Seguin, & O'Reilly, 2007; Solberg & Preuss, 2007). The impact of MSEs on local sport participation is another common topic. Some events may have led to increased participation (Malfas et al., 2004; Truno, 1995), while other research shows decreases in overall participation (Harris, 2015; MORI, 2014). Various social issues have also been analysed through the lens of sport events, including crime, transport, housing (McCartney et al., 2010), public perception (Balduck, Maes, & Buelens, 2011), national wellbeing (Kavetsos & Szymanski, 2008), and urban development (Jones & Stokes, 2003; Maennig & Du Plessis, 2009; Misener & Mason, 2009; Smith & Fox, 2007). However, as the purpose of this study is to examine the effects of a MSE on the capacity of the involved sport organizations, such studies will not be discussed in detail.

Rather, this section looks to explore the notion that MSEs can “act as an accelerator in the development of organisational capacities” (Leopkey & Parent, 2012). Thus, in the following, the impact of MSEs on organizational capacity will be presented, specifically by looking at how these events can impact the areas of human resource capacity, financial capacity, relationship and network capacity, infrastructure and process capacity, and planning and development capacity (Hall et al., 2003).

4.2.1 In Relation to Human Resource Capacity

Several studies look at the impact of MSEs on the individuals involved, especially volunteers, event staff, and administrators. In fact, Gratton and Preuss (2008) contend that “employees and volunteers achieve skills and knowledge in event organization, human resource management, security, hospitality” and service through their involvement in MSEs. This notion is regularly confirmed in research. In a survey of 200 volunteers from the 1994 Lillehammer Winter Olympics and 200 volunteers from the 2000 Sydney Summer Olympics, Kemp (2002) finds that perceived increases in professional skills, job skills and knowledge are common outcomes of volunteer participation. Similarly, in a survey of 50 students who volunteered at the Lillehammer Winter Olympics, respondents generally reported that “they experienced increased social skills, job-specific competence, and knowledge about society” (Elstad, 1996). A survey of 2001 Canada Games volunteers also shows significant levels of perceived skill enrichment (Doherty, 2009). Though much research specifically
relates to volunteers, similar skill development can also accrue to committee members and administrators involved with an event (Brown & Massey, 2001; Cashman, 2006; Hall, 1997; Truno, 1995). The development of athletes and sport officials is another possible outcome of MSEs. For example, through interviews with stakeholders from the 2005 Pan American Junior Athletic Championships, an improvement in the skills of athletes, officials, and coaches are noted as a result of the event (Taks, Green, Misener, & Chalip, 2014).

Participation in such events can also impact social capital, or, in other words, the networks within and between different groups (Misener & Mason, 2006). In fact, the aforementioned Canada Games volunteers reported social enrichment as the main perceived benefit from their participation (Doherty, 2009), while social gains are likewise reported by Kemp (2002) and Elstad (1996). Misener and Mason (2006), in a discussion paper, argue that social networks are “created through participation, planning, volunteering, and often consumption of, events”. Though not sport-related, a literature review on the benefits and costs of volunteering in various community organizations also reveals that social benefits are one of the main perceived benefits of participants (Chinman & Wandersman, 1999). The above benefits are not automatic, but often directly linked with how active the volunteers are (Chinman & Wandersman, 1999). The perceived acquisition of skills is also contingent on individual backgrounds and the tasks assigned (Chinman & Wandersman, 1999; Doherty, 2009; Downward & Ralston, 2006).

This development of skills at the individual level can also lead to gains at the organizational level. For instance, following the 1992 Barcelona Olympics, it is claimed that local sport organizations and other companies benefited from the know-how and experience of workers who were involved with the Olympic Games (Truno, 1995). Still, it remains unclear to what extent these new skills and social networks benefit the individuals, their employers, and their broader communities. No literature has been located detailing how the skills gained through MSE involvement can help either sport or non-sport organizations.

It should also be noted that there are perceived costs incurred by the volunteers, especially in terms of the use of one’s personal time and the development of interpersonal conflicts (Chinman & Wandersman, 1999). These costs, or a lack of overall perceived benefits, can discourage people from volunteering further, hence limiting the potential positive capacity impact of MSE hosting. Thus, Downward (2006) suggests that organizers need to focus, first of all, on promoting and harnessing the personal development of volunteers in order to attract and retain these individuals.
4.2.2 In Relation to Financial Capacity

Hall et al.’s (2003) conceptualization of financial capacity includes assets and liabilities. Assets are defined “anything tangible or intangible that can be owned or controlled to produce value” (O’Sullivan & Sheffrin, 2003). Therefore, it holds that the physical infrastructure and equipment that are often part of MSEs are relevant in the following discussion. In fact, the hosting of MSEs can often provide the necessary political impetus to spearhead infrastructure and equipment investments (Malfas et al., 2004). Some of these investments may come in the form of public infrastructure, such as roads, transport or housing, while others may be specifically sport-related (Malfas et al., 2004), and, therefore, directly impact the capacity of sport organizations in the host city or country.

Some infrastructure investments can have lasting, positive impacts on the local sport system. In the case of the 1992 Barcelona Olympics, large infrastructure investments were associated with the Games (Brunet, 1995) and contributed to “an increase of 75.8% as far as installations were concerned, and of 126.4% in the case of sports venues” (Truno, 1995). The combined effect of these new facilities was to enhance the resources of certain sports, help increase sport participation and help introduce new sports to the general population (Truno, 1995).

Most of the infrastructure investment for the 1996 Atlanta Olympics were channelled towards sport facilities. After the Games, the new Olympic Stadium “was converted to a 45 000–48 000 seat baseball park for use by the Atlanta Braves baseball team. Other new facilities, such as the Aquatic Center, basketball gym, hockey stadium and equestrian venue, were given to educational establishments or local authorities” (Essex & Chalkley, 1998). In Canada, hosting events such as the 1988 Winter Olympics, 1999 Pan-American Games, and 2001 World Athletics Championships left behind a legacy in terms of national-level training facilities (McCloy, 2002). In addition, a new state-of-the-art facility was built for the 2005 Pan American Junior Athletic Championships, and stakeholder interviews indicate that the facility created more opportunities for high-calibre athletes (Taks et al., 2014). Overall, in an analysis of final reports from 12 Olympic Games, Leopkey and Parent (2012) find that nine of the official post-Games reports claim that the events generated sport-related legacies, which namely refer to sport development and sport facilities.

Many of the results above, however, originate relatively shortly after the event itself. As more time passes, the reality of underused or unused facilities often becomes clearer, as was the case with facilities associated with the Sydney 2000 Olympics and Athens 2004 Olympics (Mangan, 2008). Though some of the facilities in Athens eventually found use (Mangan, 2008), others remained abandoned many years after the event, leaving behind so-called “white elephants” (Mangan, 2008; Papanikolaou, 2013). Political disputes and lack of strategic planning are frequently at the heart of this problem (French & Disher, 1997; Mangan, 2008; Papanikolaou, 2013). Furthermore, though new infrastructure may be created, the associated building, maintenance and debt costs can be significant
(Horne, 2007; Mangan, 2008; Papanikolaou, 2013; Whitson & Horne, 2006) and can even limit other forms of investment (Whitson & Horne, 2006), hence generating negative longer-term financial capacity outcomes.

Much of the literature on MSE-related infrastructure addresses solely the Olympic Games and the above studies often present only general background on the post-Games use of those facilities. Even when facilities or equipment are reported to still be in use, the exact data on the quantity, frequency and nature of that use are scarce.

4.2.3 In Relation to Relationship and Network Capacity

Relationship and network capacity is defined as the “ability to draw on relationships with clients, members, funders, partners, government, the media, corporations, volunteers, and the public” (Hall et al., 2003) and some research has shown that MSEs can indeed impact these organizational networks (Brown & Massey, 2001; McCartney et al., 2010; Truno, 1995).

The temporary nature of such events, or their “liminality”, can enable discourse and “bring together groups that might otherwise not come together”, allowing for the formation of new networks (Chalip, 2006). For example, a twinning scheme associated with the 2006 Melbourne Commonwealth Games paired the city of Port Phillip with the team from Papua New Guinea. This allowed the municipality to use the presence of the visiting team to leverage new cultural insights, relationships and organizational networks (Kellett et al., 2008). Similarly, when the Australian region of Hunter Valley hosted a pre-Olympic training camp, the area used it “as a networking opportunity for local stakeholders to create relationships with visiting actors such as Olympic sponsors, national sport delegations, media stakeholders, international businesspeople, and dignitaries” (O’Brien & Gardiner, 2006a). Such effects were also reported during the 1992 Barcelona Olympics, where the local sporting community used the event as an opportunity to connect with the international sports network and federations (Malfas et al., 2004; Truno, 1995). The exact nature and impact of those linkages are unfortunately not discussed in detail.

The ability to successfully leverage these networking opportunities is also highly dependent on the vision and planning of the host community or organization. In the aforementioned twinning scheme, another city was paired with the Welsh team, but the vague mandate of the programme and the lack of strategic vision from the host community prevented them from generating the same benefits as Port Phillip (Kellett et al., 2008). Likewise, Canberra also hosted a pre-Olympic training camp, but their “failure to plan for networking and relationship development actually cost the region in terms of lost opportunities for commercial activity” (O’Brien & Gardiner, 2006a). Indeed, literature emphasizes the need for greater strategic planning and coordination to leverage the networking opportunities associated with MSEs (Bramwell, 1997; Chalip & Leys, 2002; O’Brien & Chalip, 2008).
Though most of these examples do not explicitly relate to sport organizations, they do make plain the networking opportunities that can come with hosting MSEs.

4.2.4 In Relation to Infrastructure and Process Capacity

At the outset, it is important to recall that Hall et al. (2003) define infrastructure and process capacity as “the ability to deploy or rely on infrastructure, processes and culture, products related to internal structure or day-to-day operations (e.g., databases, manuals, policies and procedures), information technology, and intellectual property”. Therefore, the term infrastructure here does not relate to the large scale, physical sporting infrastructure and equipment discussed earlier. Rather, it relates to overall organizational and technological processes, tools, and methods.

Truno (1995) asserts that “for the Barcelona sports world, the organisation of the Olympic Games has meant a tremendous opportunity for improving its methods of management” and uses the development of a public-private facility management scheme as an example. Elsewhere, the Organizing Committee for the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games developed an information management system that was eventually purchased by the IOC to create the Transfer of Know How programme between Olympic hosts (Cashman, 2006).

Generally, though, this topic receives minimal attention in literature and in the broader definitions of MSE legacies. In their analysis of the legacy-related themes in bid documents and final reports from Olympic Games between 1956 and 2016, Leopkey and Parent (2012) do not set aside a category related to technology or technological processes. However, they do establish a category for informational and educational legacies, which is defined as relating to “opportunities for gaining experience, knowledge, personal development, research and governance capacity/processes”. Eight of the 12 final reports claim having delivered such legacies, while another eight of the remaining 44 bid documents refer to this topic. Without individually exploring these reports, it is unclear if these claims refer rather to the development of skills and experience, or to the development of processes.

4.2.5 In Relation to Planning and Development Capacity

Planning and development capacity speaks to the “ability to develop and draw on organizational strategic plans, program plans and design, policies, and proposals” (Hall et al., 2003). Specifically, this can include developing a mission statement, developing policies, preparing funding proposals, and planning activities in the longer term (Hall et al., 2003). In relation to MSEs, this is often expressed in regards to an organization, city, or country’s ability to bid for and host more events. For example, by hosting the Pan American Games in 2007, Rio de Janeiro was hoping to position “itself to be a better Olympic Games host in the future” (Curi, Knijnik, & Mascarenhas, 2011). Similarly, the OECD (2010) notes that hosting increases the capabilities to “manage similar projects in the future and makes
vital steps towards furthering an events strategy”. The claim that hosting the Olympics acts as a catalyst for future event hosting is also made by the IOC (International Olympic Committee, 2013). Though logically and anecdotally this notion may make sense, no literature has been located analysing MSEs’ ability to foster the planning, development and staging of future events.

Elsewhere, MSEs have been shown to accelerate the development of sport-related policies. For instance, Leopkey and Parent (2012) claim that “amendments in sport hosting programmes and development of Games-specific Bills (e.g. The Olympic and Paralympic Marks Act 2007 for the Vancouver 2010 Games) have been seen as a result of hosting” an Olympic Games. Again here, though, no literature comprehensively reviewing the policy impacts of MSEs was located.
5. Methodology

Qualitative, semi-structured, face-to-face interviews were conducted with individuals from Botswana NSFs and local sport experts between August 23rd and October 12th 2016. In total, eight individuals from NSFs and five experts were interviewed\(^{5}\), with interviews lasting between 35 and 52 minutes each. Individuals from NSFs are defined as those who have been involved with their respective sport since at least 2013 and were involved in the preparations for the AYG. These interviews assess how the individuals perceive changes within their NSFs between 2013 and 2016, how they recall their experience with the AYG, and explores any link between the perceived changes and the AYG. Local experts are individuals who hold high positions within the Botswana sport system, possess multi-sport experience and have higher academic degrees. These experts provide a broader overview of the changes within the NSFs and the impact the AYG, and allow for follow-up on claims made by NSFs.

Prior to each interview, participants were explained the general purpose of the research and told that their statements would remain confidential, that neither their names nor sport affiliation would be mentioned in publication. The latter was done to allow interviewees to feel comfortable expressing negative opinions without fear of repercussion. Interviews were recorded with a digital recorder and interviewee approval was obtained to do so (Zorn, 2007). The interviewer usually met participants in informal environments such as a local café. This was done to avoid professional or sport-related settings where other colleagues might be nearby and increase the risk of obtaining socially desirable answers. Following literature on this method, interviews were organised around a limited set of predetermined open-ended questions and further questions, or probes, emerged from the dialogue between interviewer and interviewee (Barriball & While, 1994; Dicicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006; Duke Initiative on Survey Methodology, 2014; McNamara, 2009; Myers & Newman, 2007; Nadin & Cassell, 2006; Rapley, 2001; Turner III, 2010). Interviews started with questions about changes within the individual’s NSF or within the general sport system, and that was used to transition towards a broader discussion about the individual’s role in the AYG and the perceived the impact of the AYG on Botswana sport organizations. At the end, individuals were asked about what things they would do differently if they were to host such an event again. Prior to the interviews, general guidelines were drawn to guide the interviewer and these are made available in the appendix. Throughout, the researcher took notes during the interviews and asked probes or follow-up questions when potentially relevant topics arose. The use of a more general introductory topic was done to give interviewees time to become comfortable with the interview setting and help reduce the risk of socially desirable answers. Similarly, probes were also used to help minimise the chances of obtaining socially desirable answers.

\(^{5}\) The names, as well as the sport or organizational affiliations of the interviewees are kept confidential. Botswana is a small country with a tightly interwoven sports community. Therefore, revealing these facts could easily compromise the confidentiality promised to the interviewees.
answers, as they can maximise the “potential for interactive opportunities between the respondent and interviewer which helps to establish a sense of rapport and reduce the risk of socially desirable answers” (Barriball & While, 1994).

Afterwards, the interviews were selectively transcribed⁶ into word processing software. In other words, passages relating to the impact of the AYG, as well as those that help support the presentation of the Botswana sport system in section 3, were transcribed. Other segments, for example relating to non-games related changes within an organization or other general information, were generally excluded from transcription. This was done in recognition of the exceedingly time-consuming and selective nature of transcription (Davidson, 2009; Halcomb & Davidson, 2006). As Halcomb and Davidson (2006) state, “transcription should be more about interpretation and generation of meanings from the data rather than being a simple clerical task, the need for verbatim transcription in every research project that generates verbal interview data must be questioned”.

The transcriptions were then organized and coded in qualitative analysis software MaxQDA. The codes reflect the different capacity categories presented by Hall (2003), namely human resource capacity, financial capacity, relationship and network capacity, infrastructure and process capacity, and planning and development capacity. Each code reflects an outcome of the Games on one of those areas, and is further coded as either a positive or negative result. As this thesis investigates perceived effects on capacity, the capacity-related codes must necessarily reflect outcomes that occurred after the Games. Two other codes, Background and Other, are used to reflect items that speak to the general background of the African Youth Games or that relate to other issues present in Botswana sport. These codes are not marked as positive or negative. A breakdown of the codes is presented in Table 3.

### Table 3 Overview and definition of Qualitative Codes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Human Resource Capacity</td>
<td>Statements relating to the availability of human resources and the skills of those human resources.</td>
<td>“Because I learned a lot.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“The Youth Games were an eye-opener, we did not have anybody who knew anything about (our sport).”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Capacity</td>
<td>Statements relating to the availability of financial and material resources, including infrastructure and equipment.</td>
<td>“Yeah, we got no money.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“Judo they still have the mats, taekwondo they still have the mats.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

⁶ Transcripts can be made available on request if individuals have a reasonable justification for consulting them. These transcripts are not included here as they contain information that could help personally identify an interviewee and again compromise the confidentiality promised to them.
### Relationship and Network Capacity

Statements relating to relationships with other organizations, people or the public.

“There is definitely more of an awareness of the sports in Botswana than there were before.”

“I think internally the impact of having to do everything was to cause a lot of tension and bring out a lot of ugliness in people that you hadn’t seen before.”

### Infrastructure and Process Capacity

Statements relating to day-to-day operations, processes, and technology.

“We get to know the events are going on. So emails are shared all the way across.”

### Planning and Development Capacity

Statements relating to planning, research, and development, namely relating to strategic vision, programmes, monitoring and evaluation.

“The sort of guys that were doing the feedback session were quite open to constructive criticism.”

### Background

Statements providing general background information on the African Youth Games.

“I guess there were two parts of that. There is a hosting part and also the preparing the team part.”

“Cycling, the competition was held in a residential area.”

### Other

Statements relating to non-Games related aspects of Botswana sport.

“[There are] 39 sports federations that are affiliated with BNSC.”

Finally, during interviews and informal visits to sport organizations, sport policy and strategy documents were also obtained to support the results and help gain a clearer picture of the Botswana sport context.
6. Limitations

Qualitative research suffers from some inherent limitations. The presence of the researcher during data gathering can affect the responses obtained (Anderson, 2010). In addition, the quality of research is highly dependent on the skills of the researcher and can be more easily influenced by the researcher’s personal biases (Anderson, 2010). And, as the findings are not supported by quantitative data, the results instead rely on the perceptions of the interviewees. Much like the researcher, these interviewees come with a set of biases and predispositions that influence their answers and attitudes towards the AYG.

The sample of NSFs and experts interviewed may also not form a completely representative picture of the Botswana sport system. In some facets, for instance age or gender of the interviewees or the financial capacity of the organizations, the sample is mostly representative of the broader system. However, in other areas, such as the nationalities of the interviewees or the popularity of the sports, the sample cannot claim to be perfectly representative. For example, though some influential NSFs formed part of the sample, others, such as Athletics, did not participate in the research.

A maximum number of interviews were conducted to help isolate the abovementioned issues, but the very process of selecting interviewees could have also generated biases. The researcher previously lived and worked in Botswana, and therefore has professional or personal relationships with many of the interviewees. This undoubtedly has an impact on the interviews, however the hope is that these relationships encouraged participants to openly and honestly share their thoughts rather than generate any bias or illicit socially desirable answers. It might also be assumed that, if someone is willing to take time for an interview and to actively participate in research, it shows a certain level of commitment and pro-activeness. These very qualities may generate more positive capacity outcomes from the hosting of an event, and therefore increase the amount of positive responses.

The interviews themselves also present limitations. The semi-structured, in-person interviews had the goal of uncovering as much information as possible, but it is possible that the presence or absence of certain questions prevented the researcher from uncovering additional, relevant findings. Indeed, these interviews offer the chance to the researcher and interviewee to share a common time and space, but also force the researcher to split his attention between multiple parallel tasks, including taking notes and formulating “questions as a result of the interactive nature of communication” (Opdenakker, 2006). Thus, this may increase the risk of the researcher missing opportunities to ask, or not ask, certain questions or probes. Moreover, it must be noted that the first expert interview was conducted with both experts simultaneously and in a formal office setting. These factors undoubtedly

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7 Further specification of the characteristics relating to the representativeness of the sample will not be presented here for fear of weakening the confidentiality promised to the interviewees.
integrated biases into the responses that may not have been present given a different setting. All other interviews were conducted one-on-one in informal, café-type settings.

Finally, limitations may also be found in the transcription and coding of data. Though the decision was made to only selectively transcribe the interviews, other academics advocate for full, verbatim transcriptions of interviews (McLellan, MacQueen, & Neidig, 2003). Selective transcription or not, it is clear that qualitative research, transcription and coding are interpretative processes (Davidson, 2009; Halcomb & Davidson, 2006; McLellan et al., 2003). Indeed, despite the rules and definitions that were put forth for transcription and coding, the researcher’s own biases and opinions are impossible to exclude completely.
7. Results and Discussion

In this section, the results will be presented and divided per the conceptualization of capacity defined by Hall et al. (2003) and presented in the theoretical framework. Namely, the results will be presented according to human resource capacity, financial capacity, relationship and network capacity, infrastructure and process capacity, and planning and development capacity. When relevant, the results in each section will be further sub-divided into areas that reflect broad themes discussed in the interviews. The results are presented in the form of relevant quotations from the interviews conducted.

Table 4 provides a quantitative summary of how often each code was used in the transcriptions. Though only a rough summary, these numbers provide a sense of the direction of conversations and where the biggest perceived successes and failures were in terms of capacity development. Human resource capacity stands out as the most positively perceived category, and this is largely due to the majority of sources having felt that they, and others, learned and gained skills as a result of their participation in the Games. The negative results in this category rather come from the lack of continuity and opportunity for those skills to be used.

Table 4 Quantitative summary of codes used

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Difference</th>
<th>Positive %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Human Resource Capacity (+)</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>64,29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Resource Capacity (-)</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-25</td>
<td>25,49%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Capacity (+)</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Capacity (-)</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>-25</td>
<td>25,49%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship and Network Capacity (+)</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>61,11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship and Network Capacity (-)</td>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructure and Process Capacity (+)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>100,00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructure and Process Capacity (-)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning and Development Capacity (+)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-14</td>
<td>20,83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning and Development Capacity (-)</td>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POSITIVE TOTAL</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>-8</td>
<td>47,87%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEGATIVE TOTAL</td>
<td>98</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>188</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Financial capacity is, in contrast, much more negatively skewed. Many interviewees report having not received financial or material support promised to them, having had checks bounce or incurring debt related to the AYG. Many sources also speak of corruption within the Organizing

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8 These quotations are shown almost verbatim, though certain names or facts are redacted to ensure the confidentiality of the interviewees and light editing was done to enhance understanding and ease of reading.
Committee, corruption that ultimately siphoned funds away from the event and the NSFs. Despite these negative outcomes, some NSFs did receive significant material benefits and were able to use these new resources to bolster their activities after the Games.

Relationship and network capacity has two facets, a local one and an international one. Locally, interviewees reported increased interest and improved attitudes towards sport. However, they also noted that the stress and conflicts that arose from the AYG strained their relationships with other actors in the Botswana sport system, creating challenges that endured past the closing of the AYG. In contrast, the development of international relations and networks was an overwhelmingly positive finding, as the NSFs used the AYG to expand their networks and reach out to the CFs or IFs for their sports.

Infrastructure and process capacity presents limited findings, but as discussed below, some of the networks created by the NSFs allowed them to develop better processes for coordinating their activities. As for planning and development capacity, interviewees note that the uncertainty surrounding the Games, and especially regarding financial and material matters, prevents them from planning future activities or putting forth proposals, especially in terms of bidding to host an event. Many sources also note that the monitoring and evaluation (M&E) associated with the event was lacklustre and represented a missed opportunity to improve Botswana’s ability to host and deliver future events.

Though these results are presented in individual categories, they do not exist in isolation, but rather these various areas of capacity are mutually influential. Table 5 shows the amount of co-occurrence of codes — in other words, the amount of times a sentence or paragraph was coded with more than one code — and gives a general sense of these overlaps. This table shows that relationship and network capacity, followed by human resource capacity, have the most interactions with other capacity areas. It should be noted that this table only reflects when codes occur at the same time, and not one after another, hence only giving a limited albeit useful overview of the interactions between capacity areas.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>HRC (+)</th>
<th>HRC (-)</th>
<th>FC (+)</th>
<th>FC (-)</th>
<th>RNC (+)</th>
<th>RNC (-)</th>
<th>IPC (+)</th>
<th>IPC (-)</th>
<th>PDC (+)</th>
<th>PDC (-)</th>
<th>Sub total</th>
<th>Area total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Human Resource Capacity (+)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Resource Capacity (-)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Capacity (+)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Capacity (-)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship and Network Capacity (+)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship and Network Capacity (-)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructure and Process Capacity (+)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructure and Process Capacity (-)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning and Development Capacity (+)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning and Development Capacity (-)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The interviews show that the positive development of relationship and network capacity, namely at the international level through relationships built with IFs, has led to gains in terms of human resource capacity, financial capacity, and infrastructure and process capacity. Conversely, it is common to see that some of the unfulfilled financial or material obligations from the Games led to strained relationships, hence negatively impacting relationship and network capacity, and sometimes even further snowballing into negative human resource capacity outcomes, especially in the form of missed training and development opportunities for actors in the Botswana sport system. These connections will be brought up as necessary throughout the discussion of results.

7.1 Human Resource Capacity

7.1.1 Administrators, Staff, and Officials

The African Youth Games were consistently perceived as a boost to the skill, knowledge and experience of the individuals involved in the organization of the event. The interviewees, who were all heavily involved in the preparations for the AYG, reported that the experience provided such benefits to themselves and others in their organizations.
“I think the great thing was, individually, I learned a lot, I made a lot of friends (...) I also learned how to manage different people. That was my biggest challenge, having to manage a lot of people coming with different backgrounds and different culture” (Anonymous NSF Source 01, personal communication, August 2016).

“A lot of people have gained a lot of experience from these games” (Anonymous NSF Source 02, personal communication, August 2016).

“It taught me a lot. A lot of the stuff, we took for granted. We did not know how hosting games as big as that, how much work is needed to put up an event like that” (Anonymous NSF Source 04, personal communication, September 2016).

“The Youth Games were an eye-opener, we did not have anybody who knew anything about (our sport). We just knew (our sport) from watching it.” (Anonymous NSF Source 05, personal communication, September 2016).

Most of the skill acquisition came through the act of having to plan and deliver the events, but some of it also came from targeted training initiatives, namely addressed at referees and officials.

“The development of referees, technical officials, athletes, great. Because they pushed a lot of money into that” (Anonymous NSF Source 08, personal communication, October 2016).

Some interviewees also report that they can apply the skill and knowledge acquired in their professional operations. For example, one interviewee noted that the experience and knowledge gained from the AYG was helpful in the organizing of a 12-country administrator course. Another NSF mentioned that the officials that had received training because of the Games where now being used to officiate competitions elsewhere in Southern Africa. Responses also mention that other people, including former BAYGOC interns or employees, have benefited from the Games either in terms of skill acquisition or professional advancement.

“I’ve seen that some of the interns at the BAYGOC have been absorbed by some of the sporting structures. (...) I know the likes of (name), the likes of (name), their confidence was boosted. From there, they came out as different people, much more self-confident” (Anonymous Expert Source 03, personal communication, September 2016).
“It’s an experience that you don’t forget and that you use going forward” (Anonymous Expert Source 05, personal communication, October 2016).

“I’m grateful for the games, because if the games had not come here, I don’t think I would be where I am in (my sport), where I administer, I coach, and I’ve learned a lot about (the sport)” (Anonymous NSF Source 05, personal communication, September 2016).

However, interviewees also speak of the lack of opportunity to use these skills. They point to the lack of continuity in the Botswana sport system, where other events are being hosted — including the Botswana 50th Anniversary Celebration in September 2016, the World Youth Netball Championships in 2017, and the ongoing International Working Group on Women and Sport from 2014 to 2018 — but individuals who were involved with the AYG are not being engaged further. In fact, regarding those three events, interviewees indicate that no one who was involved with the AYG, save for one board member, is being used for those other events.

“None of those people there are now continuing on to other projects (...) I also think it’s an issue of ‘it’s my turn now’. I can’t really explain it but there doesn’t seem to be a realization that things need to be continuous. It’s lost knowledge and you’re bringing new people on board who were maybe not learning from mistakes” (Anonymous Expert Source 04, personal communication, September 2016).

“Or me, if I don’t get a chance to work for another games organizing committee, it is an experience that I will never use again because nobody recognizes there are people that worked and need to be groomed” (Anonymous Expert Source 05, personal communication, October 2016).

These findings are consistent with the literature on event impact, which finds that participation in the planning and delivery of a MSE can have positive outcomes on individual skill development (Brown & Massey, 2001; Elstad, 1996; Gratton & Preuss, 2008; Hall, 1997; Kemp, 2002; Truno, 1995). Taks et al. (2014) also note the development of referees and officials as a key outcome in their study.

The findings also echo the literature on capacity building, which regularly points out that to truly maximize this skill development, individuals must have opportunities to use the skills acquired (Potter, 2004; United Nations Environment Programme, 2006). Given that none of the major upcoming events chose to engage individuals involved with AYG, they both denied the chance for these
individuals to further use and build their skills while also likely reducing the overall human resource capacity within their own organizations.

7.1.2 Volunteers

Within the BNSC exists a department solely dedicated to the registration and provision of volunteers for sport organizations and events. This department is known as the Sport Volunteer Movement (SVM) and they maintain a national database of registered sport volunteers. NSFs and other events can use this database to request volunteers. In the lead up to the AYG, a large drive for volunteers was conducted and numerous new individuals registered online in this database. Amongst interviewees, there is recognition that that has helped increase the availability of and access to volunteers.

“[The SVM] has grown in terms of the numbers” (Anonymous Expert Source 01 and 02, personal communication, September 2016).

“I think a lot of volunteers are still coming on board in sport because they worked on the African Youth Games and I think nowadays you don’t suffer when you go to the SVM (...) They are always ready to assist” (Anonymous Expert Source 05, personal communication, October 2016).

The above statements speak to the greater numbers and availability of sport volunteers in the country and show that sport organizations have less difficulty accessing these volunteers. The exact quantitative data on volunteers were requested from the SVM, but were not provided to the researcher. Nonetheless, these anecdotal reports do point to an increase in the availability of volunteers. And, as the SVM is an organization dedicated purely to sports volunteering, this is a development that benefits actors across the Botswana sport system, including the NSFs. However, interviewees did not mention how involvement in the AYG contributed to the skill development of these volunteers. As an aside, it can also be said that the presence of a national sport volunteer database is one of the more advanced features of the Botswana sport system.

7.1.3 Athletes

From the outset, it is worth noting that, as the host country, Botswana was allowed to submit more athletes than any other participating nation. Indeed, the higher quota allocated to the host country is typical practice in multi-sport MSEs. In general, many interviewees noted that experience was a valuable learning and benchmarking opportunity for athletes.
“it gave them an idea of what they can do and how they could go out and do things, how there is an opportunity for them sport” (Anonymous NSF Source 03, personal communication, August 2016).

“so for them that engagement showed them the level they should be competing at, where their weaknesses are and where they need to improve. I don’t think they had that reality check until Gaborone 2014” (Anonymous NSF Source 08, personal communication, October 2016).

Others even noted that the Games helped increase the number of active athletes for certain sports.

“We had women’s boxing before, but I think after the Games the interest in boxing by women sort of doubled, if not tripled” (Anonymous Expert Source 03, personal communication, September 2016).

“We got a new crop of athletes who didn’t know (our sport)” (Anonymous NSF Source 05, personal communication, September 2016).

One expert source also noted that the Games served as springboard for many of Botswana’s most talented athletes, especially in athletics and swimming.

“They would’ve generally grown, but the incentives and the motivation that they derived from Gaborone 2014, as far as I’m concerned, has contributed a lot. The Youth Games fast tracked their growth” (Anonymous Expert Source 03, personal communication, September 2016).

Conversely, one federation expressed concern that, given the extra number of athletes they were permitted to send, they may have rushed some of their athletes and turned them away from the sport completely.

“So I’m saying we might’ve destroyed the future of these young girls because we put them in [such] a high level of competition” (Anonymous NSF Source 02, personal communication, August 2016).

More generally, interviewees also report a high-level of attrition amongst their participating athletes. Some NSFs even reported having not retained a single athlete from their Youth Games squads. One
expert source notes that less than half of Youth Games athletes were retained on their respective national squads.

“There were 198 of them, not half of them were still retained in national teams, which is horrible. So there is a lot of drop-off from the kids who were obviously elite at that time. (...) I think that is an issue of us not aligning our system properly and not having good monitoring” (Anonymous Expert Source 04, personal communication, September 2016).

In general, these findings reflect the conclusions of Taks et al. (2014), who also note athlete skill development as one of the main outcomes of hosting. As for the issue of athlete attrition, though these findings may appear disheartening at first glance, they are in line with research conducted in other parts of the world. For example, Hollings (2013) finds that, over a 20 year period, 74% of New Zealand athletes who competed at the World Junior Athletics Championship never subsequently represented their country at the senior level. Conversely, Hollings (2013) also notes that 32% of the athletes who were finalists or medallists managed to achieve the same at the senior level, hence giving some credence to the ‘springboard’ argument presented by the one expert source.

7.2 Financial Capacity

7.2.1 Finances

From a purely financial perspective, the impact of the games was seen as mostly negative for the NSFs. Reports of Games-related debt were a common feature of discussion with interviewees. One source spoke of finding Games-related debts upon arriving at a new job at one of the NSFs.

“So for (my sport) there isn’t really anything, if anything, debt that I found in the office that is traced back to Gaborone 2014” (Anonymous Expert Source 03, personal communication, September 2016).

One source reported that the outstanding debts belonging to the BAYGOC were transferred over to the BNOC, who had initially bid for the event, and that they were forced to cover 3 million Pula in leftover debts. Moreover, the fact of having to cover these payments forced the BNOC to cut in other areas, namely in terms of staff training and NSF athlete support, generating negative consequences both on the human resource and financial capacity for the BNOC and NSFs.
“In essence, because of the dissolution of BAYGOC, BNOC was left responsible for all the bills (...) we had to cut back on our staff training which was a shame, we had to go back to a lot of the codes saying that we couldn’t support all of the activities (...) it set the [BNOC] team back at least two years” (Anonymous NSF Source 07, personal communication, October 2016).

Another recurring theme was NSFs reporting that they had not received the funds promised to them, be it either in the form of allowances or support funds. In fact, half of the interviewees brought up one or both of the aforementioned issues. In the case of one NSF, which was a newer NSF founded in the lead up to the Games, it prevented them from running their federation and expanding their sport, thus having consequences far beyond simple financial capacity.

“And, yeah we got no money. All the money that was given to us by African Youth Games bounced. All of our checks bounced (...) With no money we can do nothing. And that really impacted us because we could’ve used that money to put on a local event. Maybe the sport would’ve grown a little bit” (Anonymous NSF Source 06, personal communication, October 2016).

The unfulfilled promises as regards to funding or allowances not only had implications on the operations of some organizations, but also negatively affected the reputation of NSFs with officials, coaches, and volunteers in the region. Generally, these implications go beyond simple financial capacity, but also touch on areas of human resource capacity, relationship and network capacity, and planning and development capacity. Where appropriate, these will be discussed in the sections relating to these elements. These results however indicate that these capacity elements do not exist in bubbles, but rather are interrelated and mutually influential.

7.2.2 Equipment and Infrastructure

In terms of equipment and infrastructure, the picture is much more nuanced than with the above money-related matters. Some NSFs, in fact, benefited by receiving valuable equipment that they have been able to use on a regular basis. One example that stands out is basketball, which was provided with an international-standard court for their 3-on-3 event. This court was provided in order to ensure that the event met the IF’s regulations and could stand as qualifying event for the Youth Olympic Games (YOG), which were later in 2014. The court is now reported as being used on a regular basis by the NSF, which can also be said to positively impact their day-to-day operations.
“Because basketball, they got the surface, so even after that they use the courts for tournament games, for their league games” (Anonymous Expert Source 01 and 02, personal communication, September 2016).

Another, newer NSF also reported that their equipment was paid by the BAYGOC and their IF, and with that equipment they have been able to get their sport up-and-running. Many others reported that NSFs received various equipment, including a boxing ring, fighting mats, and, most notably, the pool at the University of Botswana (UB) was upgraded with a new timing and heating system.

“Boxing, they got a ring that they use for tournaments around the country (...) from infrastructure, as best as I can recall, was only of swimming where they brought in the timing device and heating device” (Anonymous Expert Source 03, personal communication, September 2016).

“Judo they still have the mats, taekwondo they still have the mats, basketball like you said, canoeing I’m sure they still have their equipment” (Anonymous Expert Source 05, personal communication, October 2016).

Regarding the mats, there is some dispute about their exact origin. Other sources have claimed that the mats currently being used did not come as a result of the Games, but that they were rather independently received or purchased by the NSFs themselves. As for the swimming pool, this was by far the most expensive investment made in infrastructure for the Games. A timing system and water heating device were installed because, much like with basketball, the UB swimming pool needed to be brought up to certain international standards to be recognized as a YOG qualifying event. Based on multiple conversations, it also appears that this infrastructure stands out as the Games’ biggest white elephant. Instead of leaving a significant benefit to the national swimming federation, the UB pool is largely off limits to them due to the costs associated with using it. Despite the significant investment made in the facility on behalf of the Games and swimming, no agreement was made between the UB and the BAYGOC, or any other party, to ensure that the swimming federation could access the facility. Thus, other than for the yearly national championship, the swimming federation does not use the UB pool and the heating system has not been used since the Games.

“But now the challenge is that, after the closure of the games, it’s difficult to access the UB pool. But we are saying, if we had a pool for sport which is under either the BNOC or BNSC and
we have this within the system, then it would be an advantage for us” (Anonymous NSF Source 02, personal communication, August 2016).

“But the heating system, there is just no way you can use it. If you’re going to be expected to put fuel for one day, that costs 25,000. Then where do you get the 25,000 from?” (Anonymous NSF Source 04, personal communication, September 2016)

“The federations walked away with nothing. (...) Even now to book (the swimming pool for) a gala at the UB, the costs are huge” (Anonymous NSF Source 06, personal communication, October 2016).

“It’s not theirs, it’s the University of Botswana’s. I think during the negotiations they (the UB) were quite blunt to say, ‘we don’t need this equipment, we can teach in a cold pool, we don’t need a timer or anything. But you’re not going to install this and move, because we’re not going to allow you to tamper with our pool’. It’s remained there, because there was no proper consultation” (Anonymous Expert Source 05, personal communication, October 2016)

Elsewhere, other sources report that some NSFs did not receive equipment or infrastructure that was promised to them. For example, the tennis federation courts were to be resurfaced, but the process was stopped midway due to the engagement of unreliable contractors and the refurbishments were not taken up afterwards.

“The company which was contracted to do that (the tennis court) did a shoddy job and they had to be stopped” (Anonymous Expert Source 01 and 02, personal communication, September 2016).

“I don’t believe that the Organizing Committee, for whatever reasons or their hands were tied or whatever, I don’t believe they came through they said they were going to come through with. And I think that negatively impacted the federations” (Anonymous NSF Source 08, personal communication, October 2016).

There are also reports of Games-related equipment having been auctioned off without even notifying the NSFs or offering the equipment directly for the benefit of the NSFs.
“I went to South Africa and I come back, I find that equipment, some furniture had been auctioned. I say why are you auctioning, this is a legacy for sport codes” (Anonymous NSF Source 05, personal communication, September 2016).

Again, as with the monetary issues, these have not only had repercussions on the resources of organizations, but also on their relations with other actors in the Botswana sport system and on their ability to deliver programmes or host events. Some sources report that the unfulfilled promises led to tensions with people who, after their stints at the BAYGOC, returned to work elsewhere in the Botswana sport system. The long-term impact of this friction was also exacerbated by the significant overlap between the BAYGOC staff and other major actors in Botswana sport, namely the BNOC.

“The negative impact, definitely the relationship between (sport) and BNOC. Because, at the end of the day, the BNOC was running the AYG. It was the same people. You can try to differentiate but... They almost ran parallel to each other” (Anonymous NSF Source 08, personal communication, October 2016).

The findings here, especially in relation to the UB swimming pool, match that of other authors, who also find a legacy of underused or unused facilities following a MSE (Mangan, 2008; Papanikolaou, 2013). As others have also underlined, political disputes and lack of strategic planning seem to have exacerbated these problems (French & Disher, 1997; Mangan, 2008; Papanikolaou, 2013). The lack of a clear agreement with the UB with regards to granting NSFs, and especially the swimming federation, access to the pool stands out as a rather egregious lack of vision. Even if it was not financially feasible to simply give the equipment to NSFs, the lack of notification regarding the auction prevented NSFs from perhaps benefitting from acquiring equipment at lesser prices. Nonetheless, some NSFs, including boxing and basketball, clearly benefited from the equipment investments made as a result of the AYG.

What is a new finding here is the level to which the unfulfilled promises have impacted NSFs in other areas, including in their relations with other stakeholders in Botswana and in their ability to plan or host events. Two sources even went as far as to say that the undelivered equipment has prevented them from hosting higher-calibre regional or international competitions, while talk of friction or soured relationships were also a recurring theme. These issues, however, will be discussed in greater detail in the sections pertaining to planning and development capacity, and relationship and network capacity, respectively.
7.2.3 Corruption

Given that many of the NSFs’ expectations in terms of financial and material support went unmet, and that many interviewees underlined the already limited budget for the AYG, the issue of corruption stands out as a particularly negative outcome of the Games. The diversion of resources for less-than-legitimate ends likely further weakened the BAYGOC’s ability to deliver on its perceived promises. Overall, this topic was brought up unprompted by numerous sources. Some hinted at it in a more indirect manner, while others were more explicit.

“Of course, when people steal money they will not show you. They won’t show you they are stealing money, but we’ve heard that. We have been suspicious. (...) All of a sudden there is no money to the extent where you ask yourself ‘why are these people scrambling’? (Anonymous NSF Source 04, personal communication, September 2016)

“Some individuals came out of it with their bank deposits reading differently than they were before the Games (...) I think the official opening thing, people made a killing out of it. After the project, some individuals were driving nice new cars.” (Anonymous Expert Source 03, personal communication, September 2016).

Other sources have indicated that the government’s anti-corruption arm even held hearings regarding the Youth Games. Nonetheless, the extent of this corruption or mismanagement is not clear, and the exact amounts that were illegally extracted will likely never be known. The BAYGOC disbanded quickly after the Games (Butler, 2014) and one source indicated that the board never answered to the Ministry following to the event, hence adding to this general cloud of suspicion.

Having said that, it is important not to take these suspicions of corruption as outright proof of corruption. It is also worth noting that, according to Transparency International’s (2015) Corruptions Perceptions Index, Botswana is seen as the last corrupt country in Africa and the 28th least corrupt country worldwide. Furthermore, it is likely that individuals would harbour such suspicions for most MSEs, and therefore these allegations cannot be seen as a unique feature of Botswana or the region. Indeed, corruption allegations have permeated numerous other MSEs, including the 2002 Salt Lake City Winter Olympics, the 2006 FIFA World Cup in Germany, the 2010 Delhi Commonwealth Games, the upcoming 2018 FIFA World Cup in Russia, and the 2022 FIFA World Cup in Qatar (Kumar Mishra, 2016; Szymanski, 2016).
7.3 Relationship and Network Capacity

7.3.1 Public Relations

Sources regularly reported that the AYG improved the public awareness and perception of sport — both specific sports and in general — in the country. This was, in various forms, brought up by over half of the interviewees.

“The one thing I must say, and I’ve seen it with the Olympics now, there’s been so much going on around Olympics and been so much talk around town, which we’ve never ever had in Botswana before. Before we had the Youth Games, people were not too fussed about the Olympics or stuff. Now, it’s like because the Games were here, it’s created an awareness for people” (Anonymous NSF Source 03, personal communication, August 2016).

“I think it (the AYG) brought a lot of positiveness about sport, whereas in the past sport was like ‘why do we want to go play sport, why don’t you study?’” (Anonymous NSF Source 04, personal communication, September 2016)

(Somebody has taken full note of swimming. Somebody knows this swimmer called Naomi Ruele, who was there before Gaborone 2014. But it took Gaborone 2014 to bring that name closer to people.“ (Anonymous Expert Source 03, personal communication, September 2016)

Though most interviewees echo these sentiments, it is worth noting that there has been no data that supports the notion that the Games generated more interest in sport. Namely, membership numbers are poorly recorded by NSFs and participation figures, as discussed in section 3.4, are elusive. Furthermore, there have been no public surveys or media analyses conducted to assess any sort of increased awareness or interest. Hence, it is hard to substantiate these claims with hard data, as encouraging as they may be.

7.3.2 Relations and Networks in Botswana

The perceived impact of the AYG on relationships and networks in Botswana is decidedly more mixed. Though some sources report having developed friendships or built relations with government level actors, a large number also speak of increased friction with their stakeholders and organizations in the Botswana sport system. One of the main causes of this friction are the numerous unmet financial and material expectations that were discussed in 7.2. One story that stands out comes from an NSF
source who claims that, as a result of Games-related disagreements with the BAYGOC CEO, who also serves as the BNOC CEO, an athlete was almost prevented from participating in the Olympics.

“And unfortunately, going forward, because I gave [the CEO] such a hard time, in retrospect said some things that I shouldn’t have said, it put a big strain on the relationship with us. (...) My athlete almost didn’t go to the Olympic games because of that, because it’s a personal thing between me and the CEO. Because it’s personal with me, he tries in every way to block the athletes from qualifying for the Olympics” (Anonymous NSF Source 08, personal communication, October 2016)

Such dramatic stories are not the norm, but the idea of friction and strained relationships are general, recurring themes. One source reports that the unpaid allowances have eroded trust with some of their sport officials.

“Some of our officials even up to now or never paid their allowances, they were never given attire, but those are the people that made the games possible. So in terms of negative impact that is what we are experiencing right now, because now the first question that they always ask, if you are hosting an event, ‘are you going to get attire or you can get paid on time?’” (Anonymous NSF Source 02, personal communication, August 2016)

Others report more generally that the Games led to more tense relationships or eroded trust.

“There were a few bridges that were burned during the time” (Anonymous NSF Source 01, personal communication, August 2016).

“(The AYG left behind) a lot of mistrust” (Anonymous NSF Source 07, personal communication, October 2016)

7.3.3 Relations and Networks Internationally

In terms of the NSFs’ relationships on the international stage, there is near-universal agreement that there has been an improvement in this area brought about through the AYG. In fact, many NSFs developed closer ties with their IFs or Continental Federations, and some even formally became members with them. These ties, in turn, allowed NSFs to access greater knowledge networks, human resources, and material support. Overall, the development of these types of international relations were brought up in eight of the twelve interviews.
The benefit of these relationships had both a short-term and a longer-term component. In the short-term, they allowed some of the NSFs to access the necessary material and human resources needed to stage their respective events.

“We had nothing to do with the federations. That was all through the Youth Games (...) We needed the assistance, we had never hosted a proper competition. And so it was a two-way thing, I think, it was a knowledge of what actually went into running the actual competition and it was also the equipment and stuff that was needed” (Anonymous NSF Source 03, personal communication, August 2016).

The Games also created an awareness of the international sporting structures underpinning the NSFs’ respective sports, and helped NSFs, as well as individuals, expand their personal and professional networks.

“The AYG brought some of the federations closer to the international and continental federations. Because some of them didn’t even know that there is a Continental body that they need to affiliate to” (Anonymous Expert Source 01 and 02, personal communication, September 2016).

“Most of them (the NSFs) didn’t even know what the International Federations were until the African Youth Games and then they would’ve felt or may be networked and built relationships” (Anonymous Expert Source 05, personal communication, October 2016).

As alluded to in 7.2, in some cases these relationships lead to direct material or financial benefits for the federations.

“[Our Continental Federation] still sends us emails saying ‘there is a camp or competition happening in Tunisia, we will cover the costs for two athletes and a coach to attend’” (Anonymous NSF Source 03, personal communication, August 2016)

“I think, if we didn’t host the Youth Games, we wouldn’t have been able to buy the sport equipment. It’s expensive” (Anonymous NSF Source 05, personal communication, September 2016)
In other instances, the networks built with the IFs and other visiting nations helped the NSFs achieve a greater level of international cooperation and coordination, especially as it pertains to the organisation and timing of international competitions. As this directly impacts on the NSFs day-to-day operations and processes, i.e. their infrastructure and process capacity, it will be discussed in more detail in the following section.

As with relations in Botswana, some of international relationships also suffered as a result of unmet expectations or obligations. One NSF reports that, at Continental meetings, they are still being asked why international athletes in their sport never received their medals.

“When I go, the presidents will be looking at me and say, ‘where are medals, our countries are waiting for our medals. Kids need that to get money through those medals in our country, but there are no medals’... And I still don’t have an answer” (Anonymous NSF Source 05, personal communication, September 2016).

Another NSF reports that funding earmarked by the BAYGOC for team training was pulled back at the last minute. Thus, the NSF had to cancel plans to train in South Africa and were left unable to pay outstanding bills to the hotel, where they had made reservations, and with the training provider. Afterwards, having developed an image as delinquents, the NSF’s reputation suffered considerably and the training provider — one of the top clubs for this NSF’s sport — suspended its relationship with the NSF. Here again, it is noteworthy the extent to which the unmet expectations in terms of financial and material resources had an impact reaching far beyond the immediate financial capacity of the NSFs.

“The [training provider] don’t want to have anything to do with [our NSF]. (...) Their whole professional team was working with our boys, but since the Youth Games we haven’t been invited back” (Anonymous NSF Source 01, personal communication, August 2016)

Generally, these findings reinforce Chalip’s (2006) claim that the fleeting nature of MSEs, or their “liminality”, can foster discourse, bring groups together, and allow for the formation of new networks. These findings also echo other authors who state that past MSEs were used by the local sporting community as an opportunity to connect with international sporting structures (Malfas et al., 2004; Truno, 1995). What does not come across in the interviews is the notion that these connections were intentionally nurtured through any sort of strategic planning or networking events. Rather, when connections were made, it appears to be purely through the initiative of the NSFs or through uncoordinated interactions during the AYG. Thus, though the outcomes here are generally favorable in terms of the development of international relationships and networks, it is also likely that failure to
plan for networking and relationship development limited the overall benefits that could be obtained in this area (Bramwell, 1997; Chalip & Leyns, 2002; O’Brien & Gardiner, 2006b).

7.4 Infrastructure and Process Capacity

As discussed within the literature review, there are limited results in relation to this area of capacity. Most notably, some NSFs enjoyed greater international coordination and cooperation in regards to events at the African level, namely improving the communication and scheduling processes.

“Before that we had sort of clashing events, tournaments. Now we managed to say, guys, if you have an event communicate to [the CF] so that [the CF] can come up with the calendar. This thing is helping us in terms of attending those particular events. So if Botswana is hosting an under 12 event, no other country is hosting an under 12 event” (Anonymous NSF Source 02, personal communication, August 2016)

“We get to know the events that are going on. So emails are shared all the way across” (Anonymous NSF Source 07, personal communication, October 2016).

No other major outcomes were found related to this particular category, but that is partially due to the narrow definition of the category presented by Hall et al. (2003), which largely focuses on technology and day-to-day processes. Thus, though financial and material resources obtained, or missing, because of the Games impact the organization, it is not clear how these affect the items referred to Hall et al. (2003), such as operational processes, manuals, and information technology. And, without clear mentions of these items in an interview, it is hard to conclude if NSFs have improved or regressed in this area. Nonetheless, it is very much conceivable that the skills acquired or relationships built through the AYG could have impacted day-to-day operations and processes, even though these changes were not made explicit in conversation.

7.5 Planning and Development Capacity

Planning and development is the “ability to develop and draw on organizational strategic plans, program plans and design, policies, and proposals” (Hall et al., 2003). Given that definition, there are two main areas where NSFs were impacted: in their ability to plan future activities, namely as far as hosting sport events is concerned, and in the ability to engage in monitoring and evaluation activities. M&E activities are included here as they are a key component of the strategic planning process. Outside those two areas, one statement stands out, where one expert noted that the AYG helped give focus and identity to some of the NSFs.
“[Some NSFs] identified themselves because previously, they were just in the dark, they didn’t know why they existed” (Anonymous Expert Source 01 and 02, personal communication, September 2016)

7.5.1 Activity Planning and Delivery

In terms of being able to plan and deliver activities, including hosting events, most NSFs indicated that there has not been an increase in that respect. As with other results, the ability of NSFs to deliver activities is highly contingent on other capacity areas such as human resource or financial capacity. One source, when asked about the prospects of future hosting, indicated that the Games may have provided a springboard for more hosting, but other factors were limiting that. Another expert source outright dismissed the notion of any catalyst effect.

“I can say yes [that the Games served as springboard for hosting], but I can say no. We don’t have money to host training camps or things like that” (Anonymous NSF Source 08, personal communication, October 2016)

“There hasn’t really been a catalysts effect on event hosting” (Anonymous Expert Source 04, personal communication, September 2016)

Another NSF, which was founded because of the Games, mentioned that the overall lack of assistance, including not having received the funds promised by the BAYGOC, has pushed them to the point where they are considering discontinuing their activities altogether and legally deregistering the organization.

“Basically, I’m going to go to them and tell them it’s not a viable entity. It’s only me involved, I have no assistance” (Anonymous NSF Source 06, personal communication, October 2016)

The issue of the UB swimming pool again comes up here, as the lack of a clear understanding or agreement about the pool has clearly hindered the planning or development of any activities there.

“So up to today we really don’t know whether [the NSFs] have a right to the pool. Even though it was installed for us we don’t have anything in writing. We wanted to have a contract to say can we please meet halfway so that we both benefit” (Anonymous NSF Source 04, personal communication, September 2016)
These findings must be taken with some caution. It is impossible to pin the gaps in planning and development capacity solely on the Games. And, one could even make the argument that the Games did not decrease capacity in this area, but that it rather simply stagnated. This thesis, however, does not take this view. In many cases, the unmet expectations and lack of clear information, such as with the UB pool or the unsurfaced Tennis courts, left the NSFs in positions of uncertainty and compromised their overall ability to put forward proposals, bid for events or plan activities.

It is noteworthy that one NSF in particular greatly suffered from these unmet expectations, to the point of not being able to pursue its activities further. One could assume that a NSF in a developed nation or one possessing more organizational capacity might have been better able to offset these financial challenges.

7.5.2 Monitoring and Evaluation

Many negative comments came during discussions of the wind-down of the Games and the monitoring or feedback processes associated with this wind-down. An AYG feedback session with NSFs was held by the BNOC and conducted exactly two years after the event. Based on multiple interviews, this seems to be the only formal monitoring, evaluation, or feedback activity in relation to the Games. Across the board, sources who attended the feedback session were very negative in their appraisals.

“It was useless (...) It was hopeless. I don’t even know what the feedback was about. We got there and they told us what we knew “ (Anonymous NSF Source 04, personal communication, September 2016).

“The feedback session was interesting. It happened two years to the day after the games, which I found quite funny because I don’t know how it takes you two years to give feedback” (Anonymous NSF Source 03, personal communication, August 2016)

“It was just a joke and I regretted going there (...) we made it not to talk about anything that is Negative” (Anonymous NSF Source 05, personal communication, September 2016)

Though the immediate capacity implications of failed M&E may not be evident, this missed opportunity prevents NSFs and other organizations — namely those hosting the Botswana Games or the World Youth Netball Championships — from improving their planning and development capacity via a formal evaluation and discussion of the AYG experience. In fact, interviewees indicated that high-ranking officials from both the BAYGOC and other upcoming events were completely absent.
“There was no one from the commission of significance” (Anonymous Expert Source 05, personal communication, October 2016).

Furthermore, the lack of proper monitoring and evaluation in this instance could be seen to be a missed opportunity to develop a culture of M&E within the Botswana sport system.

“I think it’s unfortunate that we have this trend of not coming up with what you call the evaluation process” (Anonymous NSF Source 02, personal communication, August 2016)

On the other hand, the staging of this feedback session, though ill-perceived by many, cannot be seen as a completely negative outcome. The very fact that a feedback session was held is a positive sign and, though key officials may have been absent, it nonetheless did allow the individuals from the Botswana sport system to have productive exchanges.

“Listen the feedback wasn’t all negative and the sort of guys that were doing the feedback session were quite open to constructive criticism” (Anonymous NSF Source 06, personal communication, October 2016)
8. Conclusion

The goal of this thesis was to assess the impact of being involved in a MSE, specifically the Gaborone 2014 African Youth Games, on the capacity development of NSFs in Botswana. Given the considerable amount of MSEs that have been or will be hosted in transition or developing economies, it is valuable to develop an understanding of how hosting such an event can impact the sport organizations in these countries, especially when they are asked to play an integral role in staging the event.

Findings were generated through semi-structured, face-to-face qualitative interviews with individuals from NSFs that were involved in the AYG and local sport experts. The interviews were recorded and thereafter selectively transcribed and coded, hence allowing for analysis of the data. Though this approach has limitations, which we discuss earlier in this thesis, the findings are both valuable and insightful. We find that the NSFs most notably perceive increases in capacity related to skill and knowledge development, international relationships, and networks, and, in some cases, material resources. Most notably, the vast majority of interviewees report positive outcomes related to the skill and knowledge development of human resources. Conversely, negative outcomes are found relating to the ability of NSFs to apply or continue to develop their new skills, strained relationships within the Botswana sport system, and instances of unmet financial obligations. What is most relevant here, however, is not so much how each individual capacity area was affected, but rather how they mutually interact. The interviews often indicate that the NSFs’ improved relations with their IFs led directly to financial or human resource capacity benefits. On the other hand, the unmet financial or material promises made by the BAYGOC created a deterioration in relations within the Botswana sport system and, in some cases, trickled down into even further difficulties. Beyond this mutual interaction, negative outcomes were also generated through the consequences of decisions made by or changes in circumstances at the BAYGOC level. For example, one can recall the story of the cancelled training funds for a NSF that later led to this NSF losing their partnership with the training provider.

Though this thesis explicitly aims to explore the capacity development effects of a MSE in a developing or transition economy, there are many similarities between the AYG and other MSEs. The findings related to skill development closely match those in other literature (Doherty, 2009; Elstad, 1996; Kemp, 2002; Malfas et al., 2004; Truno, 1995). Similarly, the issues surrounding financial capacity, specifically infrastructure and equipment, also echo other authors, albeit on a perhaps smaller scale (Brown & Massey, 2001; Essex & Chalkley, 1998; French & Disher, 1997; McCloy, 2002; Truno, 1995). And the consequences from a lack of strategic planning or coordination are also comparable to examples brought up in the literature review (Chalip & Leyns, 2002; Kellett et al., 2008; Mangan, 2008; Papanikolaou, 2013). What can be perhaps be identified as a unique feature of hosting a MSE in a developing or transition economy is the larger relative impact on the NSFs. One federation
reports being able to conduct regular operations thanks to the support it received through the Games. In another case, a newer NSF that did not receive its funds from the BAYGOC claims to simply no longer be able to run its activities. The contrast here is striking, and the difference in the outcomes is stark.

More generally, these results are interesting for other reasons. One, they indicate that the different areas of capacity are mutually influential and that positive or negative outcomes in one area can generate either positive or negative outcomes in another. Two, the decisions made during a MSE, even though they may seem to only have limited reach at the time, such as reallocating funding or reaching agreements with facility providers, can have long term effects on local sport actors. In other words, a lack of planning or a lack of consultation do not only limit the potential benefits of hosting, but can also lead to outright negative outcomes. Last minute changes are not always mere inconveniences, but can also have long-lasting consequences.

Altogether, this research has implications for practitioners and research alike. For future event hosts, this re-emphasizes the need for proper strategic planning and consultation in the lead up to the actual staging of the event. Here, the challenges faced with the swimming pool or the resurfacing of the tennis courts can be said to be largely a result of this lack of planning or consultation. And, in a society like Botswana, planning and consultation likely take on an even greater importance. Not only does Botswana place a high value on consultation and cooperation (Lewis Jr., 2005; Merriam & Ntseane, 2007), but some areas of the sport system remain nascent and may suffer greater effects when negative capacity outcomes occur.

Though it may be tempting to view some of the negative outcomes perceived by the NSFs as purely financial or material in nature, many of their responses explicitly refer to the expectations that they had and that they felt went unfulfilled. Given the number of adverse effects born out of these unmet expectations, it is evident that setting clear, realistic expectations is paramount for MSEs, especially when they are relying on the direct contribution of NSFs or other actors from the sport system. Furthermore, in situations like in Botswana where NSFs are predominantly volunteer run, future hosts should be cautious of overtaxing that segment of the sport system. Though NSFs provide valuable, sport-specific knowledge to the organization of a MSE, they are often under-capacitated and the individuals in the NSFs are burdened with other professional obligations. Incentives, such as event management training or fair remuneration, could help counteract this problem.

In terms of research, this thesis touches on a largely unexplored topic in the event impact literature. Namely, it explores how hosting a MSE affects the capacity of sport organizations in the host locale, especially when the host is within a transition or developing economy. For all the broad and noble social or economic goals nowadays associated with MSEs, these are first and foremost sport events. Though literature does address topics such as volunteer skill development or sport participation, comprehensive discussions of the effects for sport organizations, and specifically NSFs,
are lacking. More in-depth interviews with highly involved sport organizations from other events would add to this knowledge and provide examples from other parts of the world. Other methods could also contribute valuable insights. For example, an analysis of financial and sport policy documents from the engaged sport organizations, both before and after an MSE, could be used to discern the impacts of a MSE. Regardless of the exact method employed, there is not yet a sufficient understanding of the implications of hosting a MSE on the capacity of local sport organizations, and whether hosting has different consequences on organizations in developing or transition economies, whereby these NSFs may not possess the same capacity or event-related experience than other developed countries.

Though the perceived impacts of the AYG were mixed, many of the benefits accrued by the NSFs and other participants would have never occurred without the Games. The perceived skill development, the expansion of international networks and the acquisition of material resources are all positive results. It is also clear that the trend of developing or transition economies hosting MSEs does not show any signs of dissipating. Thus, the imperative now is to build the body of knowledge required to help sport organizations in these places achieve ever more positive and beneficial results when their countries decide to host a MSE.
References


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Appendices

Appendix A: Interview Guideline Sheet

1. **If NSF:** How has your NSF changed over the last 3 years?
   **If Expert:** How would you say the NSFs have changed over the last three years?

   *Potential probes and follow ups*
   - Can you give me an example?
   - What does that mean?
   - Can you tell me a story about that?
   - What do you think made that change happen?
   - ...

2. **If NSF:** Tell me about your NSF’s experience with / involvement in the African Youth Games.
   **If Expert:** What was the NSFs’ role in the African Youth Games?

3. **If NSF:** What impact did the AYG have on your NSF?
   **If Expert:** What impact did the AYG have on the NSFs?

   *Potential probes and follow ups*
   - Can you give me an example?
   - Can you tell me a story about that?
   - Describe what role you played in setting up the competition for your sport at the AYG?
   - Describe what role you played in preparing athletes in your sport for the AYG?
   - Describe what role you played in recruiting volunteers for the AYG?
   - Do you feel that preparing the competition for AYG diverted your resources from other initiatives?
   - Do you feel like you gained professional experience by participating in the event?
   - Do you feel like you gained professional contacts by participating in the event?
   - What impact did the event have on your relationships with other organizations?
   - What financial or material support did you receive from the Games?
   - ...

4. If you hosted an event like this again, what would you do differently? Would you do it again?

5. Thank you for your time. Before we finish, is there anything else you would like to add?
Appendix B: Affirmation in lieu of oath

Herewith, I affirm in lieu of an oath that I have authored this Master’s Thesis independently and did not use any other sources and tools than indicated. All citations, either direct quotations or passages that were reproduced verbatim or nearby-verbatim from publication, are indicated and the respective references are named. The same is true for tables and figures. I did not submit this piece of work in the same of similar way or in extracts in another assignment.

Louis Moustakas