



| | |
|--------------|---|
| Title | Twenty years of “sport for development and peace” in international society : towards the development of “sport for tomorrow” in japan |
| Author(s) | Okada, Chiaki |
| Citation | Osaka Human Sciences. 2016, 2, p. 85-102 |
| Version Type | VoR |
| URL | https://doi.org/10.18910/56904 |
| rights | |
| Note | |

The University of Osaka Institutional Knowledge Archive : OUKA

<https://ir.library.osaka-u.ac.jp/>

The University of Osaka

TWENTY YEARS OF “SPORT FOR DEVELOPMENT AND PEACE” IN INTERNATIONAL SOCIETY: TOWARDS THE DEVELOPMENT OF “SPORT FOR TOMORROW” IN JAPAN

CHIAKI OKADA*

Abstract

Japan has commenced participation in SDP in the run-up to the Tokyo Olympics/Paralympics 2020, as declared by the Japanese Prime Minister, Shinzo Abe, in his speech during the final presentation in the bidding. For Japan to progress into this area it is essential to be fully knowledgeable of the international SDP movements, and therefore in this research I clarify the information, experiences, and expertise of the international SDP societies.

To analyze the SDP trends chronologically, I divided the facts and histories into three sections: 1) the trends of SDP FIELDS mainly in the developing countries, 2) the trends of SDP POLICIES, focusing on the United Nations and the official development assistances in some countries, 3) the trends of SDP RESEARCHES which are anticipated to link the fields and administrating policies. Following the introduction in chapter 1, in chapter 2, I cover from 1994, the year of the Lillehammer Winter Olympics/Paralympics, to 2003. In chapter 3, I describe the SDP development from the establishment of the International Working Group on Sport for Development and Peace (IWGSDP) from 2004 to 2013.

By analyzing the trends of the fields, policies and researches, I evaluate the first decade as the preliminary term to launching SDP. Due to efforts of concerned people, the SDP area has rapidly grown in the last decade. Although we cannot predict the next decade of SDP, we have to closely monitor the contribution of the Japanese SDP, too. It might contribute to the expansion of SDP trends in the world, it might be lost in the big wave of international SDP, or it might offer a new style of Japanese SDP after reflections on SDP’s international activities.

The achievement of SDP internationally is a consequence of the comprehensive efforts of and cooperation between the field, the policy and the research. However, recently, we have been faced with some new problems, and the required role of

This article is the English translation of the original one “Okada, C (2014). A preliminary review of the 20 years of “Sport for Development and Peace (SDP)”: Learning for the success of the Japanese SDP programme “Sport for Tomorrow”. *Bulletin of Human Sciences Osaka University*, 41, 99–118 (in Japanese)”.

* Graduate School of Human Sciences, Osaka University, 1-2, Yamadaoka, Suita, Osaka 565-0871, Japan

research has been gradually changed, in that it is expected to be objective and to monitor SDP actions more critically, instead of being only promotional. In this case, contributions from such areas as development anthropology, development sociology, school health, and sport management will be required. To introduce such perspectives newly is, of course, essential for the future Japanese SDP, and conversely, any lack of communication between sectors would definitely drive us to compartmentalization.

Key words: Sport for Development and Peace, Sport for Tomorrow, development through sport, peace building through sport

1. Introduction

In September 2013 Tokyo was chosen to be the host city of the 2020 summer Olympic Games. Prime Minister Shinzo Abe, in his concluding speech for Tokyo's candidacy, outlined the Sport for Tomorrow (SFT) programme: "Under our new plan, 'Sport for Tomorrow', young Japanese will go out into the world in even larger numbers. They will help build schools, bring in equipment, and create sport education programs. And by the time the Olympic torch reaches Tokyo in 2020, they will bring the joy of sports directly to ten million people in over one hundred countries". The SFT is a plan comprised of three pillars: 1) International bilateral cooperation and exchange through sports, 2) Academy for Tomorrow's Leaders in Sport, and 3) "PLAY TRUE 2020"—Develop sport integrity through strengthening the global anti-doping activities. However, when looking closely at the contents of his speech, it can be said that Prime Minister Abe declared to the world that Japan would make substantial contributions "regarding sport" and "through sport" to developing nations.

2014 was the year that Japan took a first step forward in the field of "Sport for Development and Peace: SDP". The Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology appealed for an organization to provide 2,800,000 USD for the implementation of "International bilateral cooperation and exchange through sport", and the Japan Sport Council (JSC) answered this appeal. Furthermore, in a rough draft of the 2015 budget, an approximate amount of 900,000 USD was allocated for "International bilateral cooperation and exchange through sport"¹⁾. The term "bilateral" had been taken out of the title for the finalized 2015 budget; this, much like the Official Development Assistance (ODA), may be alluding to the possibility of multi-national support through the assistance of other organizations such as the United Nations. In any case, throughout the next 7 years, there are plans for projects centering on the export of "physical

¹⁾ From the "2015 Main Budget Request Items", presented in August 2014 by the Sports and Youth Bureau of the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology.
http://www.mext.go.jp/component/b_menu/other/_icsFiles/afIELDfile/2014/08/28/1351654_1.pdf [2014.09.30]

activities” and “sporting events” to be conducted by a consortium consisting of newly established sport agencies and sport commissions²⁾, the Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA), the Japan Olympic Committee (JOC), universities, NGOs, and other sporting organizations.

The appointment of Tokyo as the host city for the 2020 Summer Olympic Games led to the recognition of the importance of the field of SDP, and the investment of a large sum of the national budget towards this is good news for this author, who has long been advocating the importance of this field. However, when considering Japan’s lack of field experience in SDP, few people in Japan have participated in this field, and even those who have experience in this field have not been involved at the organizational level. Therefore, it is necessary to clarify “by whom”, “for whom”, and “why” the SDP activities must be conducted, or there will be difficulty for it to carry out meaningful developments and make contributions. There is a possibility that SFT, which is being promoted as an international platform for the 2020 Tokyo Olympics, will prove to be merely a castle in the air.

Internationally, it is apparent that the field known as SDP, or “International Development through Sport” (IDS), has undergone rapid development despite its relatively brief history, due to the efforts of various stakeholders such as policymakers, national governments, UN-related organizations, and NGOs among others. On the other hand, in conjunction with the increase of projects and events being held in recent years, new stakeholders have emerged with differing objectives and principles. The field of SDP is starting to attract attention as a new arena for “development” and “sport”.

This paper chronologically traces the trajectory of the field of SDP within the international community over the last 20 years, based on the author’s field experiences of SDP and researchs to date. As an organizing principle, the paper lays down 3 main axes: 1) “field” trends in developing countries focusing on NGO activities, 2) “policy” trends centered on the UN and ODAs of various countries, and 3) “research” trends that aim to connect fields with policy presented by universities and think tank researchers. Of course, there is overlap in the roles of these trends; there are some policy debates in the fields, and field investigations are used for research or policy making. The demarcations used by the author in this paper are only to assist the readers’ understanding.

Chapter 2 discusses the 10 years between the 1994 Lillehammer Winter Olympics and 2003. Chapter 3 summarizes the period from the establishment of the “International Working Group on Sport for Development and Peace (IWGSDP)” from 2004 to 2013. By giving a chronological overview of the fields, policies, and research involved in SDP, this paper aims to lay out the full range of debates and unresolved themes in this area of study, and gives a perspective on the beginning of Japan’s SFT initiative.

²⁾ This has not been confirmed as of September, 2014. There is a possibility that relations with the aforementioned organizations may alter the practices of the business.

2. The 10 years following the 1994 Lillehammer Winter Olympics (1994 to 2003)

2.1. Perspectives from the field

Around the time of the 1994 Lillehammer Winter Olympics, Johann Olav Koss, a winner of multiple Olympic medals for speed skating, set up the “Olympic Aid” activity, which was supported and funded by fellow Olympians. In 2000, the “Right to Play” (RTP)³⁾ was established as a continuation of Olympic Aid; it took a central role in carrying out projects in developing and warring regions, as well as performing administrative duties toward the establishment of a network within the field of SDP. Though activities for field “sport” had been conducted on and off in developing countries prior to 1993, this was the first international organization to conduct activities specializing in SDP. As of September 2014, the RTP had grown into a mega-organization with an annual budget of 480 million USD, 600 employees all around the world, and 16,000 volunteers. This shows us the sudden expansion of the field of SDP globally. Although the RTP activities started with Olympians at its centre, the term “Olympic ideal” had appeared before, as a resolution at the 1993 United Nations General Assembly. In this resolution, it was stated that “the goal of the Olympic Movement is to build a peaceful and better world by educating the youth of the world through sport, practiced without discrimination of any kind and in the Olympic spirit, which requires mutual understanding, promoted by friendship, solidarity and fair play” [UN A/RES/48/10, 1993]. The role of sport as an important positive contributor in the world started to be emphasized around this time. This resolution has been adopted every year thereafter, and was changed to the “Building a peaceful and better world through sport and the Olympic ideal” resolution in 1997.

Along with the RTP, the Mathare Youth Sports Association (MYSA)⁴⁾ is an organization that is well-known as a driving force in this field. The MYSA was established in 1987, and has been praised as “currently the most successful NGO for development through sport” [Suzuki, Okada, 2014]. MYSA started its activities in 1990, and began gaining more attention when it launched its project to raise awareness of HIV/AIDS in 1994. Suzuki & Okada (2014) categorize the late 1980s and early 1990s as the germination period for NGOs involved in SDP, and the late 1990s to the early 2000s as their expansion period, during which time other now well-established organizations were founded in quick succession, such as Sport Sans Frontiers (1999)⁵⁾, Magic Bus (1999)⁶⁾ and Grass Roots Soccer (2000)⁷⁾. It was in 1998 that the Cross Cultural Project Association started the “Open Fun Football Schools (OFFS)⁸⁾”, in 2000 that the South African

³⁾ Right to Play <http://www.righttoplay.com/Pages/default.aspx> [2014.09.02]

⁴⁾ MYSA <http://www.mysakenya.org/> [2014.09.03]

⁵⁾ Sport Sans Frontières www.sportsansfrontieres.org/ [2014.09.03]

⁶⁾ Magic Bus <http://magicbusindia.org/magicbus/> [2014.09.03]

⁷⁾ Grassrootsoccer <http://www.http://www.grassrootsoccer.org/> [2014.09.02]

⁸⁾ Open Fun Football Schools <http://ccpa.eu/what-we-do/open-fun-football-schools/> [2014.09.08]

local NGO Sports Coaches Outreach (SCORE)⁹⁾ started expanding to other countries, in 2001 that the Kicking AIDS Out! Network (KAO)¹⁰⁾ started to work with Zambia's Edusport Foundation and in 2002 that Comic Relief, an international development NGO, started Sport Relief¹¹⁾. Many NGOs working in SDP started out around the year 2000.

In conjunction with the increase in numbers of organizations and activities, movements toward network building among these organizations were encouraged. In 2002, the Street Football World (SFW)¹²⁾ was established as a network for organizations engaged in SDP activities through "soccer", and in 2003, the Swiss Academy for Development (SAD), a development think tank affiliated with the Swiss government, established an online community that unified SDP information. The "International Platform on Sport and Development (IPSD)"¹³⁾ provides a forum for discussions on SDP field activities, organization information, event announcements, and other related themes. As of September 2014, the PSD included more than 560 organizations and over 208 projects. Of course, some of these organizations have not implemented any actual activities, and activities are taking place all around the world that have not been registered. Therefore, these numbers are not definitive, and should be taken as reference points that indicate a trend.

2.2. Perspectives from the policy

The UK's Department for International Development (DFID), which provides developmental aid, evaluated SDP in this way: "sport is not the most critical developmental element; however, it does contribute to the achievement of our goals" [DFID, 1998]. UK Sport, which contributes to the promotion of sport domestically and out of the UK, has designated SDP as one of 5 strategies¹⁴⁾ for "World-class success". In 1991, Canada's government led the establishment of an SDP-specialized organization known as the CSDP (Commonwealth Sport Development Programme) that conducts sport-related projects for 4 aims: 1) good governance, 2) the improvement of health and welfare for women, children, and the disabled, 3) awareness regarding HIV/AIDS and nutritional problems, and 4) the improvement of lifestyles. However, since the beneficiaries were limited to socially vulnerable individuals, the sphere of activity was not focused on only developing countries. Australia, as a part of its 2000 Sydney Summer Olympic Games programme, provided opportunities for sport in various countries around the world. The Australian government explained that "sport-related development projects aim to include the

⁹⁾ Sports Coaches Outreach <http://www.score.org.za/> [2014.09.08]

¹⁰⁾ Kicking AIDS Out Network <http://www.kickingaidsout.net/> [2014.09.08]

¹¹⁾ Sport Relief <http://www.comicrelief.com/sportrelief> [2014.09.08]

¹²⁾ Streetfootballworld <http://www.streetfootballworld.org/> [2014.09.03]

¹³⁾ International Platform for Sport and Development <http://www.sportanddev.org/en/> [2014.09.07]

¹⁴⁾ The international success of UK Sport can be attributed to the following: (1) the promotion of global sport, (2) access support for networks and international bases, (3) activation of UK sports and strengthening of international influences, and (4) the utilization of sports towards the fulfillment of people, society, and development.

UK Sport http://www.uksport.gov.uk/pages/international_development/ [2014.09.03]

participation of children, and young men and women, and the disabled, and for this participation to grant these individuals more access to local society” [Prime Minister of Australia, 2003]¹⁵⁾. Whether or not these activities can be considered as SDP will inevitably differ depending on the views of each country.

For UN-affiliated organizations, until the early 1990s, sport was considered to be “under UNESCO jurisdiction”. In 1999, the Ministers and Senior Officials Responsible for Physical Education and Sport Conference (MINEPS III), which discussed the effectiveness of sport in the developing sphere for the first time, was hosted by UNESCO, and the “Punta del Este Declaration”¹⁶⁾ was adopted. Furthermore in 1999, UNESCO held the World Council on Sport for Development and Peace in conjunction with the International Olympic Committee (IOC), with whom UNESCO had been cooperating since the 1980s. Other UN organizations and various national governments as well as NGOs participated in this event¹⁷⁾.

During the 1990s, these official and unofficial cooperative ventures began to appear. By the 2000s, movements to organize and consolidate these SDP activities had started to take place. In 2001, there were two new steps made in the UN: “UN Taskforce on Sport for Development and Peace”¹⁸⁾ and the position of “Specially Appointed Secretary General on Sport for Development and Peace” were established. In 2003, the 1st International Conference for Sport and Development was held, gathering 380 participants, primarily taskforce members, from 55 countries, and the “Magglingen Declaration”¹⁹⁾ was adopted. In September of the same year, the first report from the taskforce known as “Sport for Peace and Development for the Achievement of Millennium Development Goals” was presented, which clearly defined its relationship with Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

Working from the development of these activities, the United Nations General assembly made the resolution “Sport as a means to promote education, health, development, and peace” in November of 2003, which clearly detailed that sport has the potential to contribute to development. It proposed that sport-related activities run by UN-affiliated organizations or NGOs should be consolidated, and that the UN should take the initiative in establishing the field

¹⁵⁾ From the media release in Australia Boosts Sports Development in Africa and the Pacific, released by the Prime Minister of Australia in December of 2003.

¹⁶⁾ The Punta del Este Declaration addressed the following: (1) possible contributions that physical education/sports can have on growth and development, and evaluation methods, (2) cultivation of ethical values, (3) the sporting world’s contributions to various anti-violence movements, (4) new cooperative structures, (5) the necessity of infrastructure-building and tools, and (6) the strengthening of UNESCO activities in the field of physical education/sports.

¹⁷⁾ UN-affiliated organizations that have reported IDS and similar activities at the time include: UNESCO, WHO, UNDP, FAO, UNHCR, UNEP, UNDCP, ILO, UPU, WMO, ITU, and the World Bank. Judging by the variety of these organizations, it can be assumed that UN projects did not often deal with sport.

¹⁸⁾ Members of the taskforce included Carol Bellamy as UNICEF’s Executive Director, and other UN organizations such as the WHO, ILO, UNDP, UNHCR, UNEP, UNV, UNODC, and UNAIDS, as well as the NGO Right to Play.

¹⁹⁾ The Magglingen Declaration indicated concrete fields in the IDS such as “sport and education”, “sport and health”, “sport and peace”, “sport and HIV/AIDS”, “sport and partnership”, “sport and communication”, and “sport and sustainable development”.

of SDP. If we take this single stream as a new impulse within the UN system, it seems that strategic policymaking was vital to the process of bringing together the field of SDP. However, in reality, it is said that these policies were realized thanks to the powerful promotion of several individuals involved, such as the first Special Adviser, Mr. Adolf Ogi, and Mr. Olav Koss from the aforementioned RTP, Mr. Kofi Annan, who was the Secretary General of the United Nations at the time, and others. Of course, we can imagine that the premise for their motivation was from the various field activities, and the sudden and rapid progression SDP made from fieldwork to policy offered valuable reference points for the future SDP.

2.3. Perspectives from the research

It can be said that SDP-related research has a history in European researchers' studies of Africa, but until the 1990s, it can be considered a product of its time, focusing primarily on the analysis of individual examples in project fields and policy environments. The viewpoints presented in that body of research were not uniform, but as an example of how they could be categorized: Figure 1 shows distinctions by donor, beneficiary country/region, and subject.

Among beneficiary countries/regions, research conducted in Africa was the most numerous, and there was barely any research conducted in Asia or Oceania. It can be considered that the "Literature Review on Sport for Development and Peace" that was published in 2007 is one of

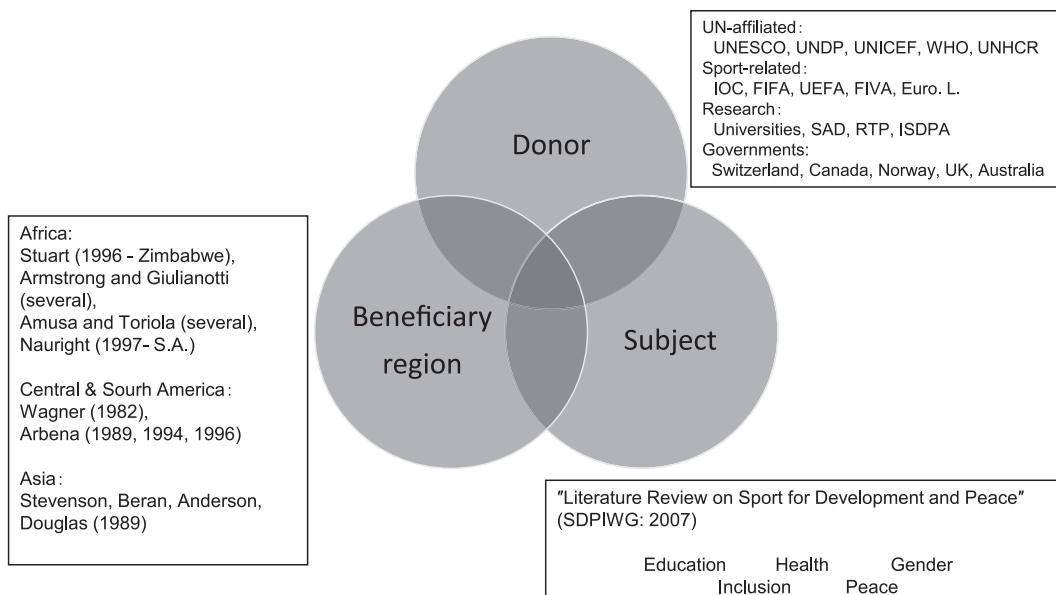


FIGURE 1. Research regarding "development through sport" up until the 1990s
Source: Okada, C. (2014), *Organizing theories for the expansion of "development through sport"* Presentation Material for the 12th Japan Society of Physical Exercise and Sport Science, Section of International Health and Sport Studies.

the most organized resources available. However, the research accumulated for each field in that text was conducted before the appearance of SDP as an established idea, which makes it difficult to determine if it can be considered SDP research. Many organizations have submitted reports and texts organized by donors, but unlike the categories of beneficiary country/region and subject, donors are autonomous entities handling different research objectives depending on the request. Sometimes the reports are for sponsors, and are written in a way that is easily understandable to the general public; because of this, there are many pieces of research that may not be considered research in the purest sense. If we look over the research conducted up until the 1990s, including these reports and texts, many of them aim to introduce as many individual cases as possible, from a standalone perspective.

The progression of SDP from 1994 to 2003, although haphazard, was consistent and thorough. This was due to the great attention given to each individual case in all areas (field, policy, and research), and because field and policy worked in a much closer-knit environment than they do now. Those engaged in the project often were involved in both fieldwork and policymaking, or were able to move back and forth between the two with relative ease, and many policymakers at the time had intimate knowledge of regional statuses and developing fields. Furthermore, in their capacity as what Wilson (2014) called “Evangelists”²⁰⁾, a portion of researchers were presenting various levels of documents for the expansion of the field of SDP, from field reports to policy proposals. Including the author of this paper, there were numerous researchers involved in concrete SDP work who began their careers during this period and moved towards research, while keeping in mind their knowledge of problems in the field.

This sort of promotion for the consolidation of the three aspects of field, policy, and research can be explained as “going against the usual trend in developmental aid of ‘policy before fieldwork’. Activities based on past experiences that were implemented by various aid organizations saw a great surge, which subsequently became a rare instance of policymaking systems being pushed towards ‘fieldwork before policy.’” [Okada, Yamaguchi, 2009, P. 42]. And in fact, in 2006, a SDPIWG document that gave an overview of events, termed the “Sport for Development and Peace—From Practice to Policy—” was presented; SDP activities that were evaluated vaguely as ‘quite good’ on the field started to undergo systemization and universalization. In the next chapter, this paper investigates the trend of the past 10 years, whereby SDP activities have expanded in number, while at the same time their effectiveness has started to come under harsh scrutiny.

²⁰⁾ Evangelists are described as “individuals who are often SDP workers, who unconditionally believe that sports are effective in all fields of development, including an assertive push towards peace”. As a religious term, it denotes missionaries and individuals who spread their faith, and the term is used here to mean those that contributed to the initial proliferation of the field of SDP.

3. 10 years since the establishment of the International Working Group for Sport for Development and Peace (2004 to 2013)

3.1. Perspectives from the field

NGOs participating in SDP increased in number starting from the beginning of the 2000s, and had reached more than 100 organizations by 2004. Suzuki et al. have designated the period of the late 2000s onwards as the “mainstreaming period”, and state that “this period overlaps with the period of time where the United Nations stepped up their advocacy for systematic development through sport” [Suzuki, Okada, 2014]. The aforementioned transition from “fieldwork before policy” to “policy before fieldwork” can be seen, which makes it possible to evaluate this period of time as a virtuous cycle that spurred further expansion (Figure 2).

This sudden increase in the number of organizations also brought along with it negative effects. Aid for organizations involved in SDP started to be given by commercial powerhouses that held influence in the international community such as Sony, Samsung, and Nike. In 2013, consultant companies started establishing themselves as a bridge between companies that expressed an interest in entering into SDP and SDP organizations, as part of Cooperative Social Responsibilities²¹⁾. Because of the increase in the number of organizations and the influx of aid, the trend towards valuing organizations that yielded visible results in a short span of time intensified. Howells (2007) mentioned the battles for the limited resources for organizations

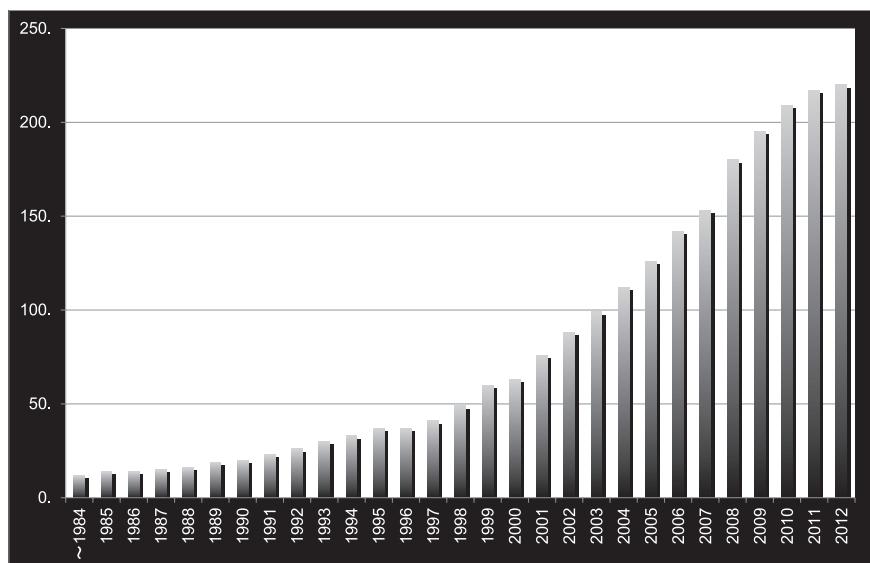


FIGURE 2. Total number of SDP NGOs

Source: Suzuki, N. & Okada, C. (2014) International Development through Sport by NGOs

²¹⁾ Co Create Consultancy <http://www.comicrelief.com/sportrelief> [2014.09.08]

to secure funding, which sometimes began to squeeze them into frameworks. In order to survive in a competitive environment, some organizations were forced to expand, and new problems have arisen whereby the in-the-field activities of these organizations have had to change to suit policies.

This paper presents an example. Zimbabwe has been going through national reconstruction after the political and economic turmoil it underwent during the first part of the 21st century. National finances are being supported by UN organizations, various national ODAs, and international NGOs. Of the support being provided, a large portion is related to HIV/AIDS, and the total amount of relief given to Zimbabwe in 2012 by various national ODAs was approximately 1 billion USD. Of that amount, approximately 427,000,000 USD (42.2%) was given to the field of health, medicine and family planning²²⁾. While these are not precise numbers, it has been said approximately 80% in it was allocated to the HIV/AIDS-related budget. In other words, the proportion of relief funds allocated towards HIV/AIDS is a large part of the total. A Zimbabwean athletic federation cooperated with an NGO involved in HIV/AIDS awareness in 2011 and planned the “HIV/AIDS Awareness through Sport” activity, while seeking prospective overseas funding. However, the Zimbabwean Department of Health expressed concerns about the sport federation, which was under the jurisdiction of the Department of Education, getting involved in the field of HIV/AIDS. It is possible to see this as merely another example of compartmentalized administration, but it can be said that this would not have happened had HIV/AIDS not been a critical field that occupied a percentage of the national budget. This is an ironic example of a sport federation’s activities being hindered because of the expansion of the field of SDP.

As can be seen from the above, there are many recent changes in the SDP field where NGOs are active. Organizations that have a weak structural foundation must rely on domestic and foreign aid, and in these circumstances, these organizations tend to focus on requesting aid or applying for grants as their main objective. Attention centers around “how to effectively publicize themselves”, and more than its in-the-field activities, the crux of the organization’s survival can sometimes come down to “language skills” that enables it to attend international conferences, or “communication power” that allows for the creation of enriched websites and annual announcements. Aiming to improve qualitatively after expanding quantitatively is a pattern often seen in other fields, and it can be said that both quality and quantity are now coming to be considered in SDP.

3.2. Perspectives from the policy

At the start of the 21st century, the international community moved towards the realization of MDGs, and movements to place an emphasis on sport within the framework of development, started to emerge in some countries. The author assesses the UK, Canada, and Australia have

²²⁾ Global ODA Database <http://www.aidflows.org/about/> [2014.09.07]

been leading SDP on the policy level. All three countries have hosted the Olympics in recent years, and are all Commonwealth countries. Furthermore, “In Australia, Canada and the United Kingdom, both well established youth organizations and newly created ones use sports and physical activity informally to empower immigrant girls and women and marginalised youth, and combat the spread of drugs, guns and gangs in blighted cities” [Kidd, 2012]. In other words, these countries place an emphasis on SDP that not only adopts the IDS principles that target developing countries, but also keeps in mind domestic problems that need to be addressed. These three countries will now be examined more closely.

In the UK, which hosted the 2012 Summer Olympics, organizations such as the Olympics/Paralympics Committee, UK Sport, the British Council, and UNICEF took this opportunity to start what became known as “International Inspiration (II)”. This aimed to enrich the lives of 12,000,000 children in 21 different countries, including the UK, through sport, physical education, and physical play. This aim was achieved in 2011, during the program’s activities in Egypt²³⁾. Activities were continued after the London Olympics, and as of 2014, a total of 25,000,000 children had participated in the program, 250,000 workers (educators, coaches, leaders) were active in the field, and 55 policies, strategies, and law amendments had been influenced by it²⁴⁾.

In Canada, the CSDP organization the Commonwealth Games Canada (CGC), and “Sport and Development” were designated as critical fields. Canada’s goal is “CGC advances individual and community development objectives and sport organizations and systems within commonwealth countries using the transformative power of sport. It does so by sharing Canadian sport and development knowledge, expertise and resources and in so doing, advances Canada’s reputation as a leading sport nation.”²⁵⁾ Canada has distinguished itself in the field of SDP by having a history of mobilizing sport as a way to address domestic problems regarding the rights of minorities and the education of young men. It has also pushed towards cooperation between international working groups, in international conferences, NGOS, and within the UN, and differs from other nations with its unique approach to promote SDP, such as: (1) fields of activities for RTP, etc., (2) policies with CGC at their core, and (3) research based at the University of Toronto.

In Australia, the Australian Sports Commission (ASC)²⁶⁾ has been carrying out SDP over many years. By cooperating with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of Trade and the Australian Agency for International Development (AusAID), which is the implementing body

²³⁾ London Paralympics Committee

<http://www.paralympic.org/news/success-london-2012-s-international-inspiration-programme-it-announces-20th-country-programme-e> [2014.09.07]

²⁴⁾ UK Sport <https://www.uksport.gov.uk/news/coes-london-2012-international-inspiration-legacy-promise-reaches-25-million-around-the-world> [2014.09.09]

²⁵⁾ CGC <http://www.commonwealthgames.ca/about-cgc/about-cgc.html> [2014.09.09]

²⁶⁾ International Sport for Development, ASC

<http://www.ausport.gov.au/supporting/international> [2014.09.09]

of the ODA, it provides aid that is primarily focused around small-scale donations that target “countries in the Caribbean” and “other developing countries”. By the external evaluation of Australian SDP, the strengths and weaknesses of the SDP with respect to other development fields become apparent. Australia has promoted the establishment of working groups and the structuring of international conferences and platforms, and the ASC takes on all the roles of fieldwork, policy, and research, and is attempting to spread this Australian model of SDP.

In addition to these countries, Norway, Holland, the United States, France, and Japan have been developing SDP in various forms. These countries have not been promoting projects solely on the grounds that they are SDP, and there are instances of some projects being converted into SDP projects after they have completed a set implementation period. This makes it difficult to conduct uniform evaluations of each country’s policies. At international working groups, the difference in designation between IDS and SDP policies has been analyzed in this way: “The Governments of Australia, the Netherlands and Norway have all adopted formal international development policies based on the concept of Sport for Development and Peace. Conversely, Canada, Germany, and the United Kingdom have integrated Sport for Development and Peace into their international development and/or international sport endeavours in a less-structured fashion” [SDPIWG, 2009].

There have also been various movements, with the UN at their centre, in the SDP community. In 2004, the “Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group (SDPIWG)” was formed by representatives of various nations “as a four-year policy initiative to help mainstream sport as a low-cost effective tool for development in national and international programmes and policies” [SDPIWG, 2005]. This was followed by announcements regarding the creation of “Sport for Development—From Practice to Policy—” (2006) and “Harnessing the Power of Sport for Development and Peace—Recommendations to Governments—” (2008). The United Nations designated 2005 as the “International Year of Sport and Physical Education”, and held the “Second International Conference for Sport and Development” in December of that year. The main topic in this conference was the absence of an organization to carry out the proposals of the SDPIWG, and in 2008, “The United Nations Office on Sport for Development and Peace” (UNOSDP) was established as a UN-affiliated organization. In 2009, Mr. Adolf Ogi was succeeded by Mr. Wilfried Lemke as the Special Advisor on Sport for Development and Peace, and a new system by which UNOSDP carried on the field of SDP was established.

The UNOSDP started the “Youth Leadership Program (YLP)” in 2012, which set up camps to bring up a new generation of people who could carry on the work of SDP. In 2003, the UNOSDP passed a resolution designating in the United Nations General Assembly that April 6th of every year would be the “International Day of Sport for Development and Peace”. In April 6th 2014, various SDP events were held all over the world. It can be said that the “fieldwork before policy” goal for the field of SDP has to some extent been fulfilled by the establishment of the UNOSDP.

3.3. Perspectives from the research

Around 2005, “research” came to be more focused on SDP fields, and especially on the policymaking process. After comprehensive outlines of SDP were clarified by SDPIWG and UNOSDP, certain aspects in the world of research started to change. In addition to individual case evaluations, “policy research”, “organization theory”, and “development trend analysis”, among others, were conducted in order to grasp the flow of development for the field of SDP. Simultaneously, a lot of research began to include the element of “evaluation” at various levels. There were many researchers engaged in “development through sport”; notably Kidd, Coalter, Giulianotti, Levermore, Darnell, and Hayhurst, and researchers engaged in “peace through sport”; Armstrong, Sugden, Keim, Gasser, and Levinsen published papers. In this streaming, Coalter’s (2006) “Sport-in-Development—A Monitoring and Evaluation Manual—” and Burnett’s (2010) “Sport-for-Development Approaches in the South African Context—A Case Study Analysis—” are pioneering in that they propose “indicators” for concrete monitoring and evaluation. From a historical perspective, it may even be said that these pieces of research were the starting point for SDP research in its purest sense.

Around 2010, SDP research entered a new stage. Wilson (2014) examines this trend: “the area of research and practice known as ‘sport for development and peace’ (or ‘SDP’) has matured in recent years”. Attempts to reposition SDP within the framework of social structures or ideological theory have continued to be made periodically²⁷⁾. These include research on subjects for SDP such as civil society and the UN (Giulianotti, 2011), research focusing on sporting rights, infrastructure-related capital, and empowerment (Kidd, 2008, Spaaij, 2011), research that analyzes succession of north-south tensions and new examples of colonization (Darnell et al., 2011), and research that theorizes on neo-liberalism and globalization (Hayhurst, 2009, Darnell, 2011). It has been pointed out that research has placed too much importance on asserting the concrete outcomes/achievements of sport activities rather than on the perspectives of those in the field. Furthermore, there are many pieces of research that are sending warning signals with respect to the current state of SDP, which brings to mind concepts such as “top-down”, “exclusive leadership by developed countries”, “neo-liberalism” and “neo-imperialism”, among others. For example, the act of bringing sport to developing countries in itself promotes the creation of a “developed country vs. developing country” or “aider/aided” dichotomy, and some argue that SDP may become merely an imposition of “the value of sport”, as decided upon by developed countries. However, following the “Evangelists”, or the group that can be called the first generation of SDP activists, who prioritized, whether intentionally or unintentionally, the expansion of the field of SDP and fulfilled their goals while paying close attention to policy trends, a second generation known as “SDP-critics” [Wilson, 2014] was born, including

²⁷⁾ Referred to the documented presentation of “Exploring the sport-for-development mandate of Cuba’s Escuela Internacional de Educación Física y Deporte” by Darnell, S. C. and Huish, R. (2010), in the Sport and Society Conference 2010.

researchers such as Levermore, Beacom (2009), Guest (2009), Darnell, Hayhurst (2012), Mwaanga, and Mwansa (2014). It can be said that their debates are the ideal that the “Evangelists” strove towards.

Wilson has distinguished himself as a “middle walker”, with respect to his position as a researcher. He states that “most scholars who engage in research on SDP are in some way middle-walkers, even if they approach the middle in different ways” [Wilson, 2014], and alludes to the contributions and limits of their “research” in the field of SDP, as well as the role of researchers as individuals who will serve as a bridge between field and policy in the future.

4. Conclusion

This research has investigated 20 years of the field of SDP through the three axes of field, policy, and research. If the 10 years between 1994 and 2003 are considered as a warmup period, then 2004 to 2013 would be when the field of SDP started taking off; it is as yet unknown whether this momentum for expansion will continue. The first year of Japan’s SDP policies was recognized in 2014, which was the “Sport for Tomorrow Programme (SFT)”. It is necessary to take a close look at whether the SFT in Japan will contribute to the further expansion of SDP, will be buried under the wave of SDP expansion, or will create an original SDP arena based on the field experiences.

The development of SDP in the international community is a result of close-knit links between field, policy, and research, all of which became vehicles for one another in efforts to expand the field. However, in recent years, these developments have brought to light topics that need addressing, and “research”, which had previously been expected to connect field with policy, is now also being depended on to step back and critique the state of SDP. If “research” wishes to contribute in a more assertive manner, it will become absolutely necessary for it to take part in fields that have not had an active presence in SDP until now. These are perspectives from developmental anthropology which work with the realities of the field, and perspectives from developmental sociology which examine SDP as a new form of neo-liberalism; and, more tangibly, perspectives from the field of education and health that considers the relationship between children’s growth and physical education, and perspectives from sport management that evaluates sporting events. These approaches are vital in considering Japan’s future in SFT in several aspects. If involvement in SFT is limited only to certain stakeholders, it will become impossible to tackle the tasks inherent to the field of SDP. In this case, Japan’s SFT will not only be able to gain a place in the international SDP community, it will also tragically fail to be recognized by domestic sport science communities, and those in the development sector.

Finally, this paper will introduce one observation on a fundamental problem, on which the author has not been able to come to a successful conclusion. Shimizu (2012) states that sport has been restricted by the dependent/parasitic way of thinking that dictates that sport must be

supported by others or must contribute to the outside world in some way for its existence to have meaning. He sees no evidence of discussions on national culture to turn sport into a truly independent culture of its own in Japan. This can be seen not only as a criticism of our discourse around the culture of sport, but also as a piece of candid advice concerning methodization theory for sport as a whole. In the same text, Shimizu asserts that the biggest point of contention is that if the theory of development through sport is over-emphasized, we might lose sight of the aim of sport development itself as a contributor to culture. Although there does not seem to be an easy answer to this, all that can be said at this point is that individuals involved in both “sport” and “development” must ask themselves earnestly where they are going to put their foot down, and what they will be prioritizing. Taking this one step further, it can be said that the answer can only be found in the field.

All fields in developing countries have their own circumstances and realities. Needless to say, people's hopes in their daily lives and forms of happiness vary, and will constantly change with time and environments. Therefore developmental aid must work along with a profound understanding of the reality. As for sport, although it is important to analyze the value of sport as a development tool, we should keep in mind that the significances of sport have been based on several conditions depending on each area and projects. Sport has been actually utilized in many development sectors and the number is increasing even under the limited circumstances in developing countries. This fact requests us to consider the core value of sport in the development context, which will contribute to proving the significances of sport as a culture. There is an urgent need to discuss “how sport can contribute to the world” both from the development field and sport field. In order to respond to these expectations to create a new dimension, it is important for several stakeholders from such as policy, fields and research areas, to seek for the answer.

Acknowledgements

This study has been supported by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Sciences, and Technology through its Grant-in-Aid for Young researchers (A).

References

An, J. (1987), *Sport in Africa: Essays in Social History*. New York: Holmes & Meier.

Banda, D., Lindsey, I., Jeanes, R., & Kay, T. (2008), *Partnerships Involving Sports-for-development NGOs and the Fight against HIV/AIDS*. York: York St John University.

Beacom, A. (2007), A Question of Motives: Reciprocity, Sport and Development Assistance. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 7(1), 81–107.

Black, D.R. (2010), The Ambiguities of Development: Implications for “development through

sport”, *Sport in Society*, **13(1)**, 121–129.

Burnnet, C. (2010), Sport-for-Development Approaches in the South African Context: A Case Study Analysis, *South African Journal for Research in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation*, **32(2)**, 29–42.

Coalter, F. (2006), *Sport-in-Development: A Monitoring and Evaluation Manual*. London: UK Sport.

Coalter, F. (2007), *Sport a Wider Social Role: Whose Keeping the Score?* London: Routledge.

Coalter, F. (2008), Sport-in-development: Development for and through Sport? In Hoy R, Nicholson M (Eds.), *Sport and Social Capital*. London: Elsevier.

Coalter, F. (2010), The Politics of Sport-for-development: Limited Focus Programmes and Broad Gauge Problems? *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, **45(3)**, 295–314.

Coalter, F. (2013), *Sport-for-development: What game are we playing?* London: Routledge.

Darnell, S. (2007), Playing with Race, *Sport in Society*, **10(4)**, 560–579.

Darnell, S. (2010), Power, Politics and “Sport for Development and Peace”: Investigating the Utility of Sport for International Development. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, **27**, 54–75.

Darnell, S., & Hayhurst, L. (2011), Sport for Decolonization: Exploring a New Paraxis of Sport for Development, *Progress in Development Studies*, **11(3)**, 183–196.

Darnell, S., & Black, D. (2011), Introduction: Mainstreaming Sport into Development Studies, *Third World Quarterly*, **32(3)**, 367–378.

Darnell, S., & Hayhurst, L. (2012) Hegemony, Postcolonialism and Sport-for-development: A Response to Lindsey and Grattan, *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, **4(1)**, 111–124.

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

DFID (1998), *The Role of Sport in International Development*, UK: DFID.

Donnelly, P., Atkinson, M., Boyle, S., & Szto, C. (2011), Sport for Development and Peace: A Public Sociology Perspective. *Third World Quarterly*, **32(3)**, 589–601.

Gilbert, K., & Bennett, W. (2012), *Sport, Peace and Development*, Campaign: Common Ground.

Guest, A.M. (2009), The Diffusion of Development-through-Sport: Analysing the History and Practice of the Olympic Movement’s Grassroots Outreach to Africa, *Sport in Society*, **12(19)**, 1336–1352.

Giulianotti, R. (2004), Human Rights, Globalization and Sentimental Education: The Case of Sport, *Sport in Society*, **7(3)**, 355–369.

Giulianotti, R. (2011), The Sport, Development and Peace Sector: A Model of Four Social Policy Domains, *Journal of Social Policy*, **40(4)**, 757–776.

Hayhurst, L. (2009), The Power to Shape Policy: Charting Sport for Development and Peace Policy Discourses, *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, **1(2)**, 203–227.

Howells, S. (2007), Organizational Sustainability for Sport and Development, Paper Presented at the 2nd Commonwealth Sport for Development Conference, Glasgow.

International Olympic Committee (1999), *The International Olympic Committee and the United*

Nations System, Department of International Cooperation, International Olympic Committee.

Kidd, B. (2008), A New Social Movement: Sport for Development and Peace, *Sport in Society*, **11(4)**, 370–380.

Kidd, B. (2012), *Sport for Development and the Olympic Movement*: Toronto: University of Toronto.

Levermore, R. (2008), Sport: A New Engine of Development, *Progress in Development Studies*, **8(2)**, 183–190.

Levermore, R., & Beacom, A. (2009), *Sport and International Development*. Basingstoke, Hampshir: Palgrave Macmillan.

Mwaanga, O., & Mwansa, K. (2014), Indigenous Discourses in Sport for Development and Peace: A Case Study of the Ubuntu Cultural Philosophy in EduSport Foundation Zambia, In Schulenkorf, N., & Adair, D. (Eds.) *Global Sport-For-Development* (pp. 115–133), Hampshir: Palgrave Macmillan.

Nicholls, S., Giles, A. R., & Sethna, C. (2011), Perpetuating the “Lack of Evidence” Discourse in Sport for Development: Privileged Voices, Unheard Stories and Subjugated Knowledge. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, **46(3)**, 249–264.

SDPIWG (2005), *Sport for Development and Peace*, Paper Presented at the International Working Group Meeting. New York: Sport for development and Peace International Working Group.

SDPIWG (2006), *Sport for Development—From Practice to Policy*, New York: Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group.

SDPIWG (2007), *Literature Reviews on Sport for Development and Peace*, Toronto: University of Toronto.

SDPIWG (2008), *Harnessing the Power of Sport for Development and Peace*. Toronto: Right to Play.

SDPIWG (2009), *Sport for Development and Peace—Governments in Action*, Toronto: Right to Play.

Spaaij, R. (2011), *Sport and Social Mobility: Crossing Boundaries*, Routledge Research in Sport, Culture and Society, No. 8, New York: Routledge.

Sugden, J. (2006), Teaching and Playing Sport for Conflict Resolution and Co-existence in Israel. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, **41**, 221–240.

Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (2005), *Sport for Development and Peace*, Biel: Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation.

United Nations Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace (2003), *Sport for Development and Peace-Towards Achieving the Millennium Development Goals*. New York: United Nations.

Wilson, B. (2012), *Sport and Peace: A Sociological Perspective: Theme in Canadian Sociology Series*, Toronto: Oxford University Press.

Wilson, B. (2014), Middle-Walkers: Negotiating Middle Ground on the Shifting Terrain of Sport, Peace and Development, In Young, K., & Okada, C. (Eds.), *Sport, Social Development and Peace* (pp. 19–43). UK: Emerald.

Young, K., & Okada, C. (2014), *Sport, Social Development and Peace*, UK: Emerald.

Okada, C., & Yamaguchi, Y. (2009), Development through Sport—The Orientation of Sport within International Cooperation and Actions by Relevant Organizations, *Kobe University Graduate School of Human Development and Environment Research Proceedings*, **3(1)**, 39–47.

Okada, C. (2011), *The Role of Sports in Developing Countries—Development Through Sport by a Case Study of Cambodia*, Kobe University Graduate School of Human Development and Environment Graduate Thesis, Kobe University.

Okada, C. (2014), Organizing Theories Toward the Development of “Development Through Sport”, *Japan Society of Physical Exercise and Sport Science*, 12th Section of International Health and Sport Studies Conference presentation documentation.

Kobayashi, T. (2014), International Development and Sport Aid—Trends and Tasks in Sport Aid, *Sport Sociology Research*, **22(1)**, 62–78.

Shimizu, N. (2012), The Dangers of the Sport Nation Establishment Theory, *Modern Sport Review*, **26**, 37–54.

Suzuki, N., & Okada, C. (2014), International Development through Sport by NGOs, In Saito, K., Okada, C., & Suzuki, N. (Eds.) *Sports and International Cooperation*. Tokyo: Taishukan