Institute of European Sport Development and Leisure Studies

German Sport University Cologne

Head of Institute: Univ.-Prof. Dr. Jürgen Mittag

Sport for Development Approaches in South Korea:

Setting National Preferences and Sharing Ideas

in view of SfD Programmes

Doctoral thesis accepted for the degree

PhD in Social Sciences

by

Jongchul Park

from

Incheon, South Korea

Cologne (2022)

First reviewer: Univ.-Prof. Dr. Jürgen Mittag

Second reviewer: Prof. Dr. Susan Kim

Chair of the doctoral committee: Univ.-Prof. Dr. Mario Thevis

Thesis defended on: 12 July 2022

Affidavits following §7 section 2 No. 4 and 5 of the doctoral regulations from the German Sport University Cologne, February 20th 2013:

Hereby I declare:

The work presented in this thesis is the original work of the author except where acknowledged in the text. This material has not been submitted either in whole or in part for a degree at this or any other institution. Those parts or single sentences, which have been taken verbatim from other sources, are identified as citations.

I further declare that I complied with the actual "guidelines of qualified scientific work" of the German Sport University Cologne.

23 Dec 2022, Jongchul Park

Acknowledgements

<u>Try your best rather than be the best…</u>

Abstract in English

Sport has a huge political, economic and social influence around the world, beyond its importance as mere physical activity. The Sport for Development (SfD) approach provides both children and adults with the opportunity to achieve their potential through initiatives which promote individual and social development. With joining of the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and enacting the Framework Act on International Development Cooperation in 2010, the Korean government has been actively involved in the SfD approach as part of international development cooperation.

Compared to the relatively well-organised governance of elite sport and sport-for-all, Korean SfD approach is not well-established, and there is still a lack of comprehensive understanding of Korean SfD approach. Therefore, this study aims to comprehensively understand Korean SfD approach. Specifically, the study to analyses how and why national preferences and/or non-material factors or agendas have affected the emergence and development of the Korean SfD approach based on two international relations (IR) theories.

In this study, both national preference formation theory as a rationalist perspective and constructivism as a constructivist perspective are adapted for a theoretical framework to explain various aspects of the Korean SfD approach in terms of domestic and international political viewpoints. Two theories have many differences of how the states' behaviours are driven and actors acquire their identities and interests in the specific environment. However, what is important regarding the synthesis of each theory is the elaborate integration with one another in terms of domain, scope conditions and criteria to clearly identify each hypothesis. It would ultimately result in a new synthetic theoretical course that contributes to much more extensive and plentiful explanations than those from the separated theories.

Given the research aims and questions for this study, qualitative method could be the best way to understand the phenomena, especially their meaning,

process and motive in detail. Specifically, six ongoing SfD programmes in Korea are used as cases for a multiple case study. The interviews were conducted in Korea from March 25 to April 12, 2019. Basically, the study interviewed a total of 14 people, and tried to select two interviewees for each SfD programme, one from the state actors and one from non-state actors. Also, various documents and archival records, such as statistics, white papers, academic paper, annual reports, annual plans, internal data and brochures were used for the main sources. To analyse qualitative data, deductive content analysis and cross-case synthesis analysis were used because it could be useful for aggregating the results of each case study conducted independently and allows analysis if the pattern of cases in the study were repeated or contrasted.

As a result, Korean SfD approach, which appeared through six SfD programmes, generally conformed to the two IR theories, but there were some parts that were not sufficiently explained by the theories. In terms of actors, except for the Vision 2014 programme, both state and non-state actors have played an important role in the SfD programmes, but most of them appeared to be domestic actors. With regard to the development process, except for the Vision 2014 programme, Korean SfD programmes began and developed around the interaction between state actors and societal actors as well as non-material factors and agendas of the international community. In particular, non-material factors and agendas embedded in the international society have a significant effect on the development of Korean SfD approach.

Regarding the role of the government in SfD programmes, the Korean government has collected opinions from societal actors and reflected them in policies, except for the Vision 2014 programme, and actively internalised non-material factors or agendas. In terms of support for the operation of the SfD programme, non-state actors based on expertise and resources have mainly been responsible for the financial, material and human support. Although state actors have been exclusively responsible for supporting the WFK–KOV programme, the government has been directly and indirectly involved in the KSPO in charge of financial support of most SfD programmes. Lastly, Korean SfD programmes have been found to be carried out by motivations for national interests and humanitarian values. This motive would be

deeply related to not only hosting mega sporting events and enhancing the influence within international sports, but also realising humanitarian values, such as the MDGs, SDGs, Olympic Movement and international peace and prosperity.

Overall, constructivism provided relatively more useful insights into Korean SfD approach, but national preference formation theory would not be overlooked. Despite some limitations, the two theories are considered useful as analytical lenses to understand the overall phenomenon of the SfD approach in Korea. In particular, the combination of the two theories is appropriate for a complementary understanding of the phenomenon of Korean SfD approach, in which each theory alone lacks sufficient explanation. It was also confirmed that the complementary analytic framework of the two theories may be persuasive in the phenomenon in other areas formed by the combined influence of domestic politics and the international community, such as the Korean SfD approach.

As for practical implications, domestic actors need to actively engage the recipient countries and regional actors in the planning stage of the programme to inspire their ownership and increase the effectiveness of the programme. The establishment of the tentatively named 'Sport ODA Committee' for active interaction between various actors would be necessary to professionally establish a long-term development strategy of Korean SfD approach. Also, despite private actors' lack of awareness of the SfD approach and pursuit of commerciality, private–public partnerships would have to be steadily sought for the sustainability and scale expansion of SfD.

Regarding academic consequences, there was a limit to explaining the analysis results of Korean SfD approach revealed in this study in light of those of other countries. In the future, comparative studies on the SfD approach in countries will need to be conducted on a basis that can equally analyse key phenomena. Lastly, further research is needed to contribute to the establishment of systematic governance for the SfD approach, which, like K-pop and K-quarantine, is derived from the K-SfD approach model, and is expected to be delivered as a good influence to all those in need around the world.

Abstract in German

Sport hat weltweit einen enormen politischen, wirtschaftlichen und gesellschaftlichen Einfluss, der über seine Bedeutung als reine körperliche Aktivität hinausgeht. Der Ansatz Sport for Development (SfD) bietet Kindern und Erwachsenen die Möglichkeit, ihr Potenzial durch Initiativen zur Förderung der individuellen und sozialen Entwicklung zu entfalten. Mit dem Beitritt zum DAC der OECD und der Verabschiedung des Rahmengesetzes zur internationalen Entwicklungszusammenarbeit im Jahr 2010 beteiligt sich die koreanische Regierung aktiv am SfD-Ansatz im Rahmen der internationalen Entwicklungszusammenarbeit.

Es hat sich jedoch gezeigt, dass es noch immer an einem umfassenden Verständnis des koreanischen SfD-Ansatzes mangelt. Infolgedessen ist der SfD-Ansatz Koreas im Vergleich zur relativ gut organisierten Governance des Spitzensports und des Sport-für-Alle nicht gut etabliert. Daher zielt diese Studie darauf ab, den SfD-Ansatz Koreas umfassend zu verstehen. Genauer gesagt ist die Studie notwendig, um zu analysieren, wie und warum nationale Präferenzen oder immaterielle Faktoren oder Agenden die Entstehung und Entwicklung des koreanischen SfD-Ansatzes basierend auf zwei Theorien der internationalen Beziehungen (IR) beeinflusst haben.

In dieser Studie werden sowohl die Theorie der nationalen Präferenzbildung als rationalistische Perspektive als auch der Konstruktivismus als konstruktivistische Perspektive für einen theoretischen Rahmen adaptiert, um verschiedene Aspekte des koreanischen SfD-Ansatzes in Bezug auf nationale und internationale politische Standpunkte zu erklären. Zwei Theorien haben viele Unterschiede, wie das Verhalten der Staaten bestimmt wird und die Akteure ihre Identitäten und Interessen in der spezifischen Umgebung erwerben. Was jedoch bei der Synthese jeder Theorie wichtig ist, ist die ausgeklügelte Integration in Bezug auf Domäne, Umfangsbedingungen und Kriterien, um jede Hypothese eindeutig zu identifizieren. Es würde letztlich zu einem neuen synthetischen theoretischen Kurs führen, der zu viel umfangreicheren und reichlicheren Erklärungen beiträgt als die der getrennten Theorien.

Angesichts der Forschungsziele und Fragestellungen dieser Studie könnten qualitative Methoden der beste Weg sein, um die Phänomene, insbesondere deren Bedeutung, Prozess und Motiv im Detail zu verstehen. Konkret werden sechs laufende SfD-Programme in Korea als Fallbeispiele für eine multiple Fallstudie verwendet. Die Interviews fanden vom 25. März bis 12. April 2019 in Korea statt. Grundsätzlich befragte die Studie insgesamt 14 Personen und versuchte, für jedes SfD-Programm zwei Interviewpartner auszuwählen, eine aus staatlichen Akteuren und eine aus nichtstaatlichen Akteuren. Als Hauptquellen wurden auch verschiedene Dokumente und Archivalien wie Statistiken, Whitepaper, wissenschaftliche Arbeiten, Jahresberichte, Jahrespläne, interne Daten und Broschüren verwendet. Zur Analyse qualitativer Daten wurden deduktive Inhaltsanalysen und fallübergreifende Syntheseanalysen verwendet, da sie für die Aggregation der Ergebnisse jeder unabhängig durchgeführten Fallstudie nützlich sein könnten und eine Analyse ermöglichen, wenn sich das Muster der Fälle in der Studie wiederholt oder gegenübergestellt hat.

Infolgedessen entsprach Koreas SfD-Ansatz, der in sechs SfD-Programmen auftauchte, im Allgemeinen den beiden IR-Theorien, aber einige Teile wurden durch die Theorien nicht ausreichend erklärt. In Bezug auf die Akteure spielten in den SfD-Programmen mit Ausnahme des Programms Vision 2014 sowohl staatliche als auch nichtstaatliche Akteure eine wichtige Rolle, die meisten von ihnen schienen jedoch inländische Akteure zu sein. In Bezug auf den Entwicklungsprozess, mit Ausnahme des Programms Vision 2014, begannen und entwickelten sich die SfD-Programme Koreas um die Interaktion zwischen staatlichen Akteuren und gesellschaftlichen Akteuren sowie um immaterielle Faktoren und Agenden der internationalen Gemeinschaft. Insbesondere immaterielle Faktoren und Agenden, die in die internationale Gesellschaft eingebettet sind, haben einen signifikanten Einfluss auf die Entwicklung des koreanischen SfD-Ansatzes.

Hinsichtlich der Rolle der Regierung in SfD-Programmen hat die koreanische Regierung Meinungen von gesellschaftlichen Akteuren eingeholt und in politischen Maßnahmen, mit Ausnahme des Programms Vision 2014, reflektiert und immaterielle Faktoren oder Agenden aktiv verinnerlicht. Bei der Unterstützung der

Durchführung des SfD-Programms waren für die finanzielle, materielle und personelle Unterstützung hauptsächlich nichtstaatliche Akteure auf der Grundlage von Fachwissen und Ressourcen verantwortlich. Obwohl ausschließlich staatliche Akteure für die Unterstützung des WFK-KOV-Programms verantwortlich waren, war die Regierung direkt und indirekt an der KSPO beteiligt, die für die finanzielle Unterstützung der meisten SfD-Programme zuständig war. Schließlich wurde festgestellt, dass Koreas SfD-Programme aus Gründen nationaler Interessen und humanitärer Werte durchgeführt werden. Dieses Motiv wäre zutiefst damit verbunden, nicht nur Megasportveranstaltungen auszurichten und den Einfluss im internationalen Sport zu stärken, sondern auch humanitäre Werte wie die MDGs, SDGs, die Olympische Bewegung und den internationalen Frieden und Wohlstand zu verwirklichen.

Insgesamt lieferte der Konstruktivismus relativ nützlichere Einblicke in den SfD-Ansatz Koreas, aber die Theorie der nationalen Präferenzbildung würde nicht übersehen. Trotz einiger Einschränkungen werden die beiden Theorien als nützliche analytische Linsen angesehen, um das Gesamtphänomen des SfD-Ansatzes in Korea zu verstehen. Insbesondere die Kombination der beiden Theorien ist für ein komplementäres Verständnis des Phänomens des koreanischen SfD-Ansatzes geeignet, bei dem es für jede Theorie allein an ausreichender Erklärung mangelt. Es wurde auch bestätigt, dass der komplementäre analytische Rahmen der beiden Theorien bei dem Phänomen in anderen Bereichen, die durch den kombinierten Einfluss der Innenpolitik und der internationalen Gemeinschaft gebildet werden, wie der koreanische SfD-Ansatz, überzeugen kann.

Was die praktischen Konsequenzen angeht, müssen die nationalen Akteure die Empfängerländer und regionalen Akteure bereits in der Planungsphase des Programms aktiv einbeziehen, um ihre Eigenverantwortung zu wecken und die Wirksamkeit des Programms zu steigern. Die Einrichtung des vorläufig benannten „Sport ODA Committee" zur aktiven Interaktion zwischen verschiedenen Akteuren wäre notwendig, um eine langfristige Entwicklungsstrategie des koreanischen SfD-Ansatzes professionell zu etablieren. Außerdem müssten trotz des mangelnden Bewusstseins privater Akteure für den SfD-Ansatz und des Strebens nach

Kommerzialisierung ständig privat-öffentliche Partnerschaften für die Nachhaltigkeit und den flächendeckenden Ausbau von SfD gesucht werden.

Was die akademischen Konsequenzen anbelangt, waren die Analyseergebnisse des koreanischen SfD-Ansatzes, die in dieser Studie offenbart wurden, im Lichte anderer Länder zu erklären. Zukünftig müssen vergleichende Studien zum SfD-Ansatz in Ländern auf einer Basis durchgeführt werden, die auch Schlüsselphänomene analysieren kann. Schließlich sind weitere Forschungen erforderlich, um zur Etablierung einer systematischen Governance für den SfD-Ansatz beizutragen, der wie K-Pop und K-Quarantäne aus dem K-SfD-Ansatzmodell abgeleitet ist und als guter Einfluss erwartet wird an alle Bedürftigen auf der ganzen Welt.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

List of Abbreviations

APC	Asian Paralympic Committee
ASC	Australian Sports Commission
ASOP	Australian Sport Outreach Programme
AusAID	Australian Agency for International Development
BMZ	Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development
CAQDAS	Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software
CGC	Commonwealth Games Canada
CSC	Commonwealth Sport Canada
CH	Canadian Heritage
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
CSLC	Canadian Sport Leadership Corp
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
DAC	Development Assistance Committee
DFB	German Football Association
DOSB	German Olympic Sports Confederation
DP	Democratic Party
DTM	Dream Together Master
DTS	Development Through Sport
EDCF	Economic Development and Cooperation Fund
FIS	International Ski Federation
GIZ	Deutsche Gesellschaft fur Internationale Zusammenarbeit
IDAP	International Development Assistance Programme
IDEALS	International Development through Excellence and Leadership in Sport
IDS	International Development Through Sport
IF	International Federations
IGOs	Inter-governmental Organisations
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IN	International Inspiration
IOC	International Olympic Committee

IPC	International Paralympic Committee
IR	International Relations
IRB	Institutional Review Board
IVCO	International Forum for Volunteering in Development
JICA	Japan International Cooperation Agency
JOCV	Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteers
KISS	Korea Institute of Sport Science
KNVB	Royal Netherlands Football Association
KOC	Korean Olympic Committee
KOICA	Korea International Cooperation Agency
KPC	Korea Paralympic Committee
KSOC	Korea Sport & Olympic Committee
KSPO	Korean Sports Promotion Foundation
MCST	Ministry of Culture, Sports, and Tourism
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MFA	Ministry of Foreign Affairs
MNCs	Multinational Corporations
	Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade
MOFAT	Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade
MOU	Memorandum of Understanding
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
NIF	Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sports
NOC	National Olympic Committee
NORAD	Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation
NSPL	National Sports Promotion Law
OCA	Olympic Council of Asia
ODA	Official Development Assistance
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
PCH	Canadian Heritage
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SDP	Sport, Development and Peace

SDPIWG	Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group
SFA	Sport for All
SfD	Sport for Development
SFT	Sport For Tomorrow
SNU	Seoul National University
TANs	Transnational Advocacy Networks
TPC	World Taekwondo Peace Corps
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNOSDP	United Nations Office on Sport for Development and Peace
USAID	United State Agency for International Development
WFK	World Friends Korea
WT	World Taekwondo Federation
WTO	World Trade Organisation
YPSC	Youth Paralympic Sports Camp

1. Introduction

This chapter explores the background of this study and the main research topics, such as the current status of Korean sports, sports and development, and the importance of programmes. Next, it identifies the importance of the study and elicits its research purpose and questions.

1.1. Towards Sport for Development Approach in South Korea

In the 1960s, development of South Korea (hereafter referred to as Korea), especially its economy, began with help from various international development cooperation, by technology transfer and development assistance (Official Development Assistance [ODA] Korea, 2017). On the basis of such international development cooperation, Korea overcame poverty and hunger in the 1960s and achieved dramatic economic growth in the 1970s and 1980s. Since the 2000s, Korea has finally started to transform from a recipient country into a donor country, which means that Korea has become a responsible member of the international community that provides assistance to developing countries in many ways.

Traditionally, international development cooperation mainly focused on the economic and social development of recipient countries to address poverty or to expand the economic infrastructure. Since the 1980, however, developed countries, international organisations, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and global networks have started various attempts and efforts to use sport as a strategy to facilitate international development cooperation, especially to solve poverty and human-centred development. At that time, the Women's Declaration of Sports Participation and the Declaration of Children's Right to Play were presented in the United Nations (UN), and the Commonwealth recognised the importance of sport to combat poverty and human-centred development.

However, Korea did not recognise the value of international development cooperation through sport at that time and focused only on developing elite sport and sport for all (SFA). In terms of using sport for development purpose, Korea put an emphasis on employing sport as a tool to vitalise domestic development (Na &

Dallaire, 2015). A particular example is hosting of mega sporting events. The 1988 Seoul Olympic Games led to great progress in many areas domestically, such as in social, economic and sport development. Similarly, Park (2011:107) noted that the 2002 World Cup in Korea was a landmark event in that it led to transformation of political, social and cultural aspects. Darnell (2012:103) argued that such mega sporting events in developing countries can continue to be a vehicle for social and economic development in the long run. However, he pointed out that it would be difficult to say that the Korean strategy comes from motive for social development with the purpose of helping marginalised populations because it seems far from the essential motive of the SfD approach.

Since the beginning of the 21st century, Korea began to pay attention to international development cooperation and domestic development. In Korea, this is officially known as sport for development (SfD) or the development through sport (DTS) approach. After the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) were established at the UN in 2000, the SfD movement indirectly or directly influenced international development cooperation through sport in Korea. At that time, several SfD programmes have tried to strengthen social inclusion, which especially targets those who are at risk and in vulnerable circumstances, such as ethnic minorities and people with disabilities.

The National Sports Promotion Plan suggested by the Roh administration in 2003 also emphasised the importance of international development cooperation through sport (Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism [MCST], 2012). To implement the SfD programme effectively, the Korea Sports Promotion Foundation (KSPO) sharply increased the budget from 4,000 million won in 2003 to 353,864 million won in 2017 (MCST, 2019). Since then, the Korean government has truly been trying to become a sport advanced country beyond just the development of elite sport and SFA by pursuing international development cooperation through sport.

In addition to MDGs and the National Plan announced by the Roh government, another decisive momentum for Korea in carrying out international development cooperation was joining the Development Assistance Committee (DAC)

of the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) in 2010 (Ha & Ha, 2016). Afterwards, the Korean government improved relevant systems, such as enacting the Framework Act, revising the Strategic Plan on International Development Cooperation and establishing the Mid-term ODA Policy for 2011–2015 and then 2016–2020 (Ha, Lee & Ok, 2015; ODA Korea, 2019a). The Korean government recently pursued an ODA policy with integrative, substantial and together strategies, with the expectation of achieving Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and then human prosperity and world peace (ODA Korea, 2019b).

Such efforts from the government could facilitate organised support and implementation of international development cooperation. This also positively contributed to international development cooperation through sport. Korea appears to be determined to participate in the SfD approach along with an institutional strategy and a long-term policy. Although the Korean SfD approach still has some shortcomings, Korea wants to contribute to international development cooperation through programmes that apply its own unique way and systems.

1.2. Research Topic

1.2.1. Sport in South Korea

The development of sport in Korea has been considered incredible around the globe, despite the country's relatively small population of 51.2 million within a limited land mass of around 100,000 square kilometres. Since the birth of Park Chung-hee's authoritarian regime in 1961, sport has been regarded one of the major state policies to underline nationalism and ideological superiority against North Korea, Japan and China, leading to the rapid development of elite sport (Won & Hong, 2015). Next, the successful hosting of mega sporting events such as the 1988 Seoul Olympic Games and the 2002 World Cup had a positive effect on the popularisation of SFA. At the beginning of the 21st century, Korea became interested in international development cooperation through sport. As a result, it has continuously pursued sport development, and has consequently become one of the sports powerhouses around the world.

The strategic planning and system of Korean sport are mainly shaped by the leading role of the state, as Korea has highly been centralised under a presidential system since establishing the first constitution in 1948. In this regard, the MCST in the Korean government has managed the overall policy, development and delivery of sport. The Sport Bureau in MCST is controlled by the second vice minister and has six divisions: sport policy, sport promotion, sport industry, international sport, disability sport and sport legacy.

Although MCST takes full charge of Korean sport, a substantial number of its national sport policy objectives are executed by the Korean Sport & Olympic Committee (KSOC), which is a non-profit and quasi-governmental organisation. After the merger of the Korean Olympic Committee (KOC) and the Korea Council of Sport for All in March 2016, the KSOC has truly been responsible for both elite sport and SFA, contributing to the advanced sport system through balanced development and cooperation between competitive sport, SFA and school sport. KSOC became a legal entity according to the provisions of the National Sports Promotion Law (NSPL) and is involved in monitoring and supporting the work of national sports federations; hosting mega sporting events; fostering international cooperation, training and athletic performance; and designing welfare programmes and sport promotion for retired and current athletes (MCST, 2018). The member organisation of the KSOC unites 17 cities or municipal associations, 79 national sports federations (62 regular members, 6 associated members and 11 authorisation members) and 18 Korean national abroad sport associations (MCST, 2019). Also, in June 2009, the KSOC already unified the KOC, which was in charge of developing and spreading the Olympic movement and the Olympic ideals towards Korea. In other words, the KSOC's authority and power is becoming stronger within Korean sport.

In addition to the KSOC, the KSPO is also an important part leading to the Korean sport system. Having successfully hosted the 1988 Seoul Olympic Games, Korea established KSPO, a quasi-governmental organisation, from the surplus of the 1988 Seoul Olympic Games to commemorate the Olympic Games and to preserve a wide range of achievements (Park, 2011: 160). Since then, it has raised and managed

funds to carry out various projects, such as supporting national sports promotion, enhancing athletes' performance and promoting youth development. KSPO has also operated the Korea Institute of Sport Science, which conduct diverse research that not only improve the performance of athletes in international competitions, but also develop the Korean sport industry and policy.

Meanwhile, major conglomerates, such as Samsung, Hyundai and LG, have also contributed greatly to developing the Korean sport system, especially that for elite sport and professional sports. In particular, military regimes in the 1970s and 1980s implicitly forced these companies into taking responsibility for managing national sports federations and professional sports teams under the guise of reviving sport to conceal a lack of legitimacy and dictatorship. Since then, the government has implicitly put pressure on them to support elite sport and SFA, which are relatively easy to support with large amounts of funding (Won & Hong, 2015). To illustrate, these conglomerates had leading roles in establishing professional baseball and football leagues in the early period and have directly or indirectly operated various national sports federations, such as archery, ski, horse riding, handball and table tennis. Thus, it should be acknowledged that they have contributed to the rapid development of sport and still hold a special place in the Korean sport system.

In terms of sport financing, there are four main pillars for Korean sport: the KSPO, the National Treasury and the budgets of municipal governments and national sports federations (MCST, 2019). Table 1.1 shows that in 2019, municipal governments for sport budget accounted for 51% of the total budget while the income of national sports federations was only 8.8% of the total budget for Korean sport.

As mentioned in Section 1.2.1., the KSPO is in charge of managing and distributing funding to elite sport, SFA, disability sport, youth sport, sports facilities and the welfare scheme for medallists and retired athletes, KSOC relies largely on funding from KSPO, and allocates the fund to the national sports federations. Table 1.2 indicates the extent to which KSOC is heavily dependent on financial support from KSPO, accounting for approximately 86% of its whole budget in 2019.

Table 1.1. Sport Budget in South Korea

(Unit: hundred million won)

	National Treasury	KSPO	Municipal governments' budget	National sports federations' income	Total budget
2011	1,599	6,870	25,677	2,134	36,240
2012	1,516	7,559	28,198	2,365	39,638
2013	1,717	9,216	32,130	2,724	45,787
2014	1,488	9,120	35,527	2,045	48,180
2015	1,344	12,224	34,819	3,690	52,077
2016	1,355	14,031	36,695	4,327	56,408
2017	1,338	13,684	41,686	10,844	67,552
2018	1,287	10,389	48,939	14,328	74,943
2019	2,374	12,074	19,731	3,322	37,501

Source: MCST (2019)

Table 1.2. Sport Budget of KSOC

(Unit: million won)

Year	Total budget	KSPO	Other grant	KSOC's income	KSOC's income / total × 100 (%)
2018	328,519	308,160	7,613	19,881	6.05
2019	350,477	307,211	7,781	42,826	12.2

Source: MCST (2019)

Major conglomerates in Korea have financially played a role in supporting national sports federations and professional sports teams since the 1970s and have even continued their support despite the start of the civilian government in 1993. Recently, this kind of support seemed to have evolved into a form of a corporate social responsibility activity. According to Park (2020), 10 national sports federations are operated under the auspices of conglomerates. In addition to the conglomerates, more than half the presidents of sports federations are entrepreneurs or politicians, who provide funds that help federations financially maintain stability. In fact, sports like archery, shooting and fencing that the conglomerates financially support, made excellent records in the 2016 Olympic Games, and their financial support of athletes in unpopular sports even accounts for a large part of leading Korean elite sports. In addition, 8 of the top 15 largest conglomerates in 2020 are running professional baseball teams, accounting for 80% of the total number of

teams. This finding demonstrated that conglomerates still exert their influence in Korean sport sectors.

In terms of the Korean sport policy, Korea was incapable of taking an interest in any sport policy in the 1950s owing to the aftermath of the Korean War (Won & Hong, 2015). Since then, however, meaningful policies and laws regarding sport development have been established. With the inauguration of Park's government in 1961, sport emerged as one of national priorities for the purpose of achieving national unity and enhancing national prestige in the international stage. The enactment of the NSPL in 1962 was a memorable starting point that created a friendly atmosphere to systematically establish an overall Korean sport policy, including elite sport, SFA, school sport and even sports activities in the workplace.

There has been some criticism that the NSPL almost brought the Japanese Sports Promotion Act, violated sports autonomy and focused on elite sport to maintain the military government system (Yeun, 2008). However, it is undeniable that the NSPL has played an important role in the development of an elite sport policy through dozens of amendments over time. After the unexpected death of President Park in 1979, Chun Doo-Hwan, his successor took another military regime. The Chun government established the Ministry of Sport in 1982 and implemented the '3S Policy', which refers to stimulating the sports, screen and sex industries to divert public attention away from political situations and interests (Park & Lim, 2015). Ironically, this effort led to the opening of a new era at the beginning of the 1980s, where the public could enjoy professional sports such as baseball, football and *ssireum* (Korean wrestling).

Moreover, the Korean government had a strong desire for democratisation in the 1980s, and the successful hosting of the 1988 Seoul Olympic Games had a positive effect on both elite sport and SFA development. Consequently, while it still tried to pursue an elite-sport-centred policy, it concurrently recognised the importance of SFA for the nation's health and participation, regardless of gender, age or economic status (Park & Lim, 2015; Won & Hong, 2015). In 1989, Roh Tae-Woo's government established the National SFA Promotion Plan called 'the Hodori

Plan', which was a scheme for promoting SFA, the sustained growth of elite sport, and the enhancement of international cooperation through sport. Subsequently, the Korea Council of SFA was inaugurated in 1991 with the purpose of speaking for people participating in SFA activities.

The inauguration of the first civilian government in 1993 brought about a large reform of the Korean society. Sport was no exception to this change. Previous military-based governments explicitly focused on elite sport development, but the civilian governments placed more emphasis on SFA than on elite sport. This effort was for the sake of balanced development between elite sport and SFA. The civilian governments no longer felt any need to employ elite sport as a political and ideological vehicle for public concerns. Public interest in sport participation also increased with the hosting of mega sporting events and improvement of quality of life. Since Kim Young-Sam's government implemented the first National Sports Promotion Five-year Plan, each government has maintained similar priorities regarding sport development and sport policy, especially elite sport and SFA.

In addition to elite sport and SFA, school sport has played a role in cultivating youth talent for elite sport. In contrast to elite sport and SFA, which were controlled by MCST, school sport was under the Ministry of Education. However, the integration of KSC with the Korea Council of Sport for All in 2016 was the start of a virtuous circle for efficient cooperation among elite sport, SFA and school sport (MCST, 2016). In terms of international cooperation and development through sport, Korea started with Taekwondo in the 1990s (Kim & Lee, 2009). Since its entry to the OECD in 1996, Korea has increasingly enlarged its Sport ODA and SfD programmes (MCST, 2019). In addition, the Roh government's National Sports Promotion Five-year Plan in 2003 stressed the importance of international cooperation through sport (MCST, 2016). Since then, the governments have allocated proper funding for international cooperation and development via sport.

As mentioned above, sport participation has become increasingly important in Korea since the 1990s. Since 1994, a national survey on sport participation has been conducted to identify peoples' sport participation activities as part of the policy-

making process. The result of the national survey in 2019 (Table 1.3) indicated that walking (41.6%), hiking (17.3%) and exercise (16.2%) were the sports activities with the highest participation rate and performed most often in 2019 (MCST, 2019). The survey suggested that 66% of the population participated in sports activities at least once per week, 26.4% took part in non-profit sport clubs, 28.9% engaged in commercial clubs and 17.9% were active in school or workplace clubs (MSCT, 2019). Lastly, accessibility of sports facilities within 5 to 10 minutes increased by 20% compared to that in 2019.

Table 1.3. Top 10 Sports Activities in South Korea

Type	%	Type	%
Walking	41.6	Football or Futsal	6.7
Hiking	17.3	Cycling	6.0
Exercise	16.2	Golf	5.0
Swimming	9.0	Gymnastics	5.0
Yoga	7.8	Billiards	4.6

Source: MCST (2019)

In accordance to high sport participation, Korea has been trying to evolve into an advanced sport country. The launch of the KSOC helped establish an elaborate and effective sport system that cultivates elite athletes based on long-term development of SFA. In fact, the promotion of national prestige was recently removed for the purpose of the NSPL. Korea plans to focus on the health, solidarity and human rights of the people based on SFA, especially on sports clubs (Kim, 2021). Lastly, the Korean government is likewise expected to increase support for international cooperation through sport, given that sport is in the spotlight as a tool for soft power and international development around the world.

1.2.2. Sport and Development

The meaning of sport has rapidly changed over time and has been interpreted in a variety of ways owing to the political, economic and cultural environments and the

vitalisation of professional sports (Levermore & Beacom, 2009: Chapter 1). Some scholars asserted that it would be almost impossible to explain the concept of sport (Roethig, 1992), but most have been trying to define it in view of its attributes and nature. Before exploring the concept of sport, it seems necessary to distinguish sport from sports. Generally, sport is a collective noun which includes all activities that meet certain criteria, while sports is simply a collective concept of counting individual sports, such as football, basketball, volleyball, and golf (Song, 1994: 210). In this study, the term sport will be mainly used by integrating all sports used for development.

Kang (2005) argued that the definition of sport is two folds. One is a common definition in North America, and the other is common in Europe. He described that in North America, the elements that constitute sport include institutionalisation, competition, rules and physical activity, and are distinct from recreation, play and exercise. On the contrary, Europe usually understands the concept of sport in a broader sense. Council of Europe (2001) defined sport as all forms of physical activity, including play, recreation, casual and competitive sport, at all levels and games with the purpose of physical fitness, mental well-being and interplay. This concept includes both competitive and non-competitive activities. In other words, it can be seen as including the concept of health, recreation and exercise in addition to sport defined by North American scholars.

To look further at the concept of sport, Lawther (1972: 2) described sport as a rather active physical activity which pursues pleasure and leisure, and is also generally carried out in accordance with the traditional form of a schedule or a set of rules. This seems to interpret sport as a category of play. Coakley (1986: 17) defined sport as active physical activity or institutionalised competitive activity by individuals motivated by a combination of internal or external factors. McPherson, Curtis and Loy (1989: 15) noted that sport is a competitive physical activity based on elements of play, game and contest.

Meanwhile, Lim (1979), who is an eminent Korean scholar in the field of sport sociology, identified sport as a competitive physical activity under official rules and standardised conditions. Although functions in view of the public welfare aspect have increasingly been added to the existing concept of sport, it is apparent that sport

implicitly involves physical activity, competition with an opponent and institutionalisation and that the meaning of sport is being broadened over time. Recently, however, sport has come to become increasingly emphasise on the function and role of sport as leisure rather than as competition. Also, sport is used as an important tool for international development cooperation, as in this study. As such, the meaning of sport varies, and its function and importance can change depending on the era and environment.

In terms of the concept of development, the UN refers to development as a comprehensive process in relation to economic, social, cultural and political aspects for a constant advance of man through free and energetic participation, entailing the distribution of fair benefit (UN, 1986). It seems difficult to easily connect sport with development at a certain time. This difficulty might be due to the fact that development can also be viewed in a variety of perspectives, such as sociological, economic, political and anthropological. Thus, the economic aspect has dominantly explained the concept of development.

In the 1940s and 1950s, U.S. President Harry Truman gave a speech that described the world as developed and developing countries from the economic point of view (Sachs, 2010). This atmosphere led to an emphasis on modernisation and industrialisation in early development theories (Biermann, 2016: 11). The movement commonly appeared in Rostow's theory regarding economic development (Rostow, 1960). The theory describes that the traditional society based on agriculture has gradually evolved into the society with high mass consumption by way of internationalisation and modernisation, thereby contributing to improving the quality of life and a globalised economic environment.

However, the conventional approach for the development paid less attention to the social environment within countries. As a result, it created a gap between the rich and poor and new types of poverty. The normative development model driven by developed countries highly focused on the industrial economy and the imposition of western values and policies. It tended to ignore the particular concerns of developing countries, such as social and institutional structures (Rostow, 1960). In

this regard, Todaro (2000: 8) argued that the politics, institutions and economy of developing countries are generally dominated by wealthy developed countries in the process of international development. Hettne (2008) pointed out that poor countries are controlled by the system of the capitalistic world because of their weak structural position. Dependence on developed countries would make developing countries vulnerable because their indigenous systems, cultures and identities can be easily disregarded under the guise of development aid programmes or projects. In other words, previous dominant views on development were directly concerned with human development (Conradie & Robeyns, 2013).

These criticisms led to people being considered as one of the major criteria or indicators of development (Sidaway, 2008). In this context, the idea of combining sport with development emerged to improve the well-being and quality of life of populations through participation in sport. Sport is a low-cost, high-efficiency tool for social and economic development. For example, sport is associated with many agenda, such as health concern, equality, violence prevention, socialisation, empowerment and employment (Coalter, 2010). Thus, it is considered a versatile vehicle to deal with diverse issues around the world.

This might be slightly related to the goal of Sport for All campaign formulated in 1966 by the Council of Europe. The campaign definitely facilitated the broadening of the concept of sport, helping as many people as possible to participate in sports activities (Claeys, 1985). It acted as a catalyst to popularise sport. Taking this opportunity, sport practically began to contribute to improving educational and cultural development and even personal motive throughout Europe (Claeys, 1985). In other words, sport can be influential to offset various problems that might be caused by the process of previous development approaches.

From the 1990s onwards, the important role of SfD was highly recognised, and the initiative was mainly driven by athletes and sports leaders (Kidd, 2008). Subsequently, hundreds of organisations, including NGOs, intergovernmental organisations (IGOs) and multinational corporations (MNCs), officially organised the international platform related to sport and development (Kidd, 2008). In the

2000s, UN declared the MDGs and SDGs. The MDGs aimed to (1) eradicate poverty and hunger; (2) raise awareness through education; (3) empower women; (4) reduce child mortality; (5) improve physical and psychological health and general welfare; (6) combat HIV, AIDS and other diseases; (7) ensure environmental sustainability; and (8) develop a global partnership for development (UNOSDP [United Nations Office on Sport for Development and Peace], 2013).

In 2015, Thomas Bach, President of the International Olympic Committee (IOC), mentioned that some SDGs are directly related to sport, including Goal 3 (the attainment of healthy lifestyles), Goal 4 (education), Goal 5 (gender equality), Goal 16 (peace-building and preventing conflict) and Goal 17 (global partnerships for sustainable development). Therefore, it would be reasonable that sport has increasingly become important in dealing with various social issues over time.

A growing number of mainstream organisations are currently concerned about sports programmes in pursuit of their development goals (Levermore & Beacom, 2009: Chapter 1). Many developed countries also try to combine sport with development agendas for developing countries at the national level. For example, Deutsche Gesellschaft fur Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ), which is supported by the state, is implementing SfD programmes in Africa that aim to expand sports infrastructure and equipment as well as deliver training initiatives, sports activities and integrated education (GIZ, 2017). The Japanese government has been involved in Sport for Tomorrow (SFT) programme to promote the Olympic and Paralympic movement, and spread the value of sport to all generations in the developing countries in cooperation with public and private sectors (SFT, 2020).

The Australian government supports various SfD programmes in key areas, such as gender, disability, leadership, governance and knowledge for Asian-Pacific countries (Team Up, 2021). Also, several developing nations have recently started to implement sports-related programmes (Levermore, 2008). In Cuba, despite differences in political and instrumental understanding with the international community, the government encourages sustainable and transformational development through sport of international students by supporting Escuela

Internacional de Educacion Fisica y Deporte (EIEFD) (Darnell & Huish, 2015). Thus, regardless of political or economic aspects, implementing sports programmes for development is increasingly being recognised as a global trend around the world.

To sum up, sport seems to be correlated with development despite some different aspects between the two concepts. With the increase of initiatives in sports programmes for development, different kinds of theories, such as post-colonial theory, hegemony theory, Putnam's framework and critical left-realism, came to be academically applied to explain the intention and practices of sports programmes for development and further evaluate the extent to which the programmes affect the local communities positively or negatively. Although there have been several issues, including a lack of systematic monitoring and evaluation, male-centred project and top-down governance structure, the effort through sport to achieve various development goals will continue through the involvement and support of diverse public and private actors beyond the unique political and economic systems of each country.

1.2.3. Programme as a Result of the Sport for Development Approach

The Korean SfD approach is generally seen in the form of a programme. In addition to Korea, most countries turn their SfD policy into SfD programmes or projects. For example, Canada implemented the Canadian Sport Leadership Corps (CSLC) programme and the International Development Project in the Commonwealth, and the United Kingdom (UK) implemented International Development through Excellence and Leadership in Sport (IDEALS) and the Dreams and Teams and International Inspiration (IN) programmes.

A project refers to a specific singular endeavour to deliver a tangible output while a programme refers to multiple projects that are managed and delivered as a single package (Brewitt, 2019). The purpose of a project is more specific and exact than that of a programme. Furthermore, a project generally takes a relatively short time to complete, whereas a programme commonly takes a long time to complete.

Consequently, a programme has more comprehensive meaning and requires more effort.

Basically, when a programme is set as a case, it has various advantages over other styles of case in understanding the SfD approach in Korea. Firstly, main actors and stakeholders can be clearly identified by analysing the programmes. Researchers will be able to easily identify SfD phenomena by explicitly and implicitly understanding the interactions and cooperation processes between them. Secondly, the application of the programmes as a case is easy to comprehensively figure out the development process of the SfD approach. The programmes that are responsible for specifically implementing SfD approach are developing every year through trials and errors. The programme allows researchers to take a closer look at a series of changes to a phenomenon from the past to the present. Thirdly, the researchers can implicitly identify why the SfD approach has emerged and developed in Korea. Each SfD programme officially has a motivation, purpose, background or necessity. Also, the researchers can analyse the programme to identify who and how it provides financial support.

Compared to other cases, such as organisations, people and process, programmes also contribute to strengthen the validity of research. Because programmes are recorded in the form of annual reports, websites, documents, news articles and academic papers, researchers have relatively easy access to diverse and valuable information. Moreover, other countries also embody the SfD approach in the form of programmes, making it easier to compare the main actors, structures or direction of Korea's SfD approach. Finally, through analysing programmes, researchers might not only describe and explain the SfD phenomenon in detail, but also make relative evaluations based on the same criteria. If people, a group, organisations or process is a case for case study, it would be difficult to compare and evaluate objectively and even difficult to access a variety of data and information.

Additionally, the Korean government establishes a basic scheme and formulates a certain budget every year. This means that it indirectly or directly engages in spreading the SfD approach. It also has a plan to support the SfD approach

in the long term. Therefore, the Korean government and relevant organisations usually use 'programme' in its official scheme names rather than 'project'.

1.3. Significance of the Research

Korea has been expanding its role and leverage in international development cooperation based on the strength of continuous economic growth. Joining the DAC in the OECD in 2010 and hosting a high-level forum on aid effectiveness in 2011 were the symbolical examples of the effort and contribution of Korea to international development cooperation (Ahn, 2013). The total scale of the ODA as a major source of international development cooperation rose from 455 million dollars in 2006 to 3007 million dollars in 2020 (ODA Korea, 2021). As such, Korea has achieved notable quantitative growth in international development cooperation, and it is expected that it would continue to play a role as a mid-sized donor countries in various fields.

Recently, sport has been in the spotlight as a means to carry out the programmes related to international development cooperation. Basically, the national policies on international development cooperation of each country are closely associated with the pursuit of national interests. In fact, since the 2008 global economic crisis, countries have stepped up their centripetalism to ensure legitimacy for the ODA's spending budget (ODA Korea, 2021). In other words, international development cooperation through sport could be also regarded as a national policy, which can deeply entail the involvement of national interests. In the past, Korea has pursued a state-centred approach for elite sport development to underline nationalism and ideological superiority against North Korea and Japan (Won & Hong, 2015). These days, even though Korean sport seeks to promote a balanced development between elite sport and SFA through diverse actors, the Korean government is highly involved in the overall plan and management via its agencies and quasi-governmental organisations, which can easily achieve national interests and reflect national preferences to follow national policy and directions.

In addition to elite sport and SFA, policy importance of international development cooperation through sport has been increasing recently. In terms of the Korean SfD approach that is in line with the effort for international development cooperation through sport, there have been two main distinctive phenomena about its development process and motive. The Korean SfD approach tends to evolve through the dimensions of national preferences and international norms. Firstly, Korean SfD programmes seem to be implemented as a part of the Korean ODA policy, which is considered an important priority of the government.

In fact, in the 2010s, the government announces a national strategy for effective and systematic international development cooperation every five years, and formulated detailed plans every year. Naturally, the Korean SfD approach keep pace with such national policies. The Korean SfD approach is centred on the close involvements of the government, agencies and quasi-governmental organisations, such as the MCST, Korea International Cooperation Agency (KOICA) and KSOC, and societal actors, such as university, sport organisations and companies indirectly or directly engaged in the SfD approach to achieve their own goals. It is thus likely that the Korean SfD approach is largely affected by a national preference formed by various relevant actors.

However, it cannot be denied that the SfD approach initially developed with an international movement based on the effort of transnational processes and the global civil society along with globalisation across the world. NGOs, IGOs and multinational corporations together have formed the international platform or collaborated with each country to influence international development cooperation through sports activities since the 1980s. For example, with the UN's declaration of the International Year of Sport and Physical Education in 2005, various actors, including IGOs, NGOs and governments and civil society organisations, have engaged in funding, policy implementation and evaluation through different ways (Hasselgard, 2015).

In Korea, it has been proven that implementing SfD programmes decisively emerged through the international norms or interests within the international society,

such as the UN's agenda setting or an international organisation's contribution. In fact, most initial SfD programmes in Korea sought to achieve the MDGs and international development cooperation led by the international society in the early 2000s. This movement can likewise be explained by the failure of the state-centred or top-down development cooperation in the 1960s and 1970s (Lewis & Kanji, 2009: Chapter 5). Since then, diverse international actors have cooperated with national governments to move towards the bottom-up approach for human-centred development. Accordingly, it is reasonable that the process of the Korean SfD approach could embrace both aspects of national preferences and global influence.

Another characteristic of the Korean SfD is that it could include a variety of objectives or intentions while implementing the programmes. Basically, SfD is defined as the use of sport for public health, the socialisation of children, the youth and adults and economic development (Lyras & Peachey, 2011). SfD considers sport as a vehicle of social intervention in order to achieve non-sport purposes (Giulianotti, 2011a). SfD has diverse definitions, but they have quite similar meanings in using sport as a tool to deal with social issues. As stated above, however, the Korean SfD developed as a way of the ODA policy, which mainly aims to contribute to additional interests, and the intrinsic goals of the SfD approach.

The Korean ODA traditionally gave priority to economic interest and relative gains from the realism perspective in terms of implementing international development cooperation (Ahn, 2013). The activities of the Korean ODA actually focused on supporting financial, economic infrastructure and administrative assistance rather than poverty, starvation and hygiene problems. Additionally, the ultimate objective of the Korean ODA is to improve the economic, social and welfare aspects of the recipient countries, but it is claimed that the objective can depend on the historical and cultural relationships between the donor and recipient country (ODA Korea, 2017). That is to say, diverse motives and purposes exist depending on the recipient countries involved in implementing international development cooperation.

Korean SfD programmes intertwine with many actors and stakeholders, such as the government, sport organisations, companies and even international organisations. Their involvement through their interplay would affect national identities regarding the motive of SfD programmes. Although SfD programmes have limitations in terms of their considerable effects in recipient countries compared to other ODA programmes, sports activities as a tool for soft power have become increasingly important in a wide range of aspects, such as economic issue and sports diplomacy. Hence, Korean SfD programmes based on the ODA could have various motives compared to other countries.

However, research is lacking on the Korean SfD approach, especially how and why Korea started and enhanced the SfD approach, compared to the abundant research on Korean elite sport and SFA. Current research on the Korean SfD has focused on how to change the paradigm shift from development of sport to SfD, and whether Korean SfD programmes are actually in line with the nature of the SfD approach, compared to the international perspective. Several Korean scholars also tried to explore how Taekwondo programmes as the ODA projects have been used and have contributed to international development cooperation through sport.

Importantly, there has been little research that looked at the Korean SfD phenomenon through theoretical approaches based on international relations (IR) theory. Using international relations theories, the Korean SfD approach could be analysed more logically and convincingly rather than simply describing it. Also, this study would be more practical if analytical results are implicitly compared with other major countries' SfD approach. Therefore, it would be significant to determine how and why the SfD approach has been working by investigating the Korean SfD programmes.

1.4. Research Purpose and Questions

SfD approach can be implemented through SfD programmes which are seen as a practical product of the effort for international development cooperation. Many

theories explain the state behaviour, especially interactions, motive and role of important actors in IR. Traditionally, realists argue that the state is an autonomous actor who highlight material factors, power and interest in foreign policy. Neoliberalists note that international institutions and organisations play a role in promoting cooperation to resolve global issues and are considered an important proponent of social and economic change through sport. In terms of international development cooperation, the domination of the Global North can be another aspect of neoliberalism's perspective.

Constructivists argue that transnational actors can have the most influential exponents to provide policy advice as well as technical and financial support to most countries. The influence of this constructivism has become increasingly important to explain the aspects of international development cooperation, including the SfD approach. Compared to realism and liberalism, both of which underestimate the role of norms, constructivism regards norms, ideas, pressures or setting as a significant factor to affect state behaviour. Therefore, constructivism seems appropriate to explain the SfD approach because it primarily comes from an interaction, agreement, rule or agenda among actors in international society.

However, Moravcsik (1998: 3) argued that the state is still a main actor, but national preferences respond to shifting pressures from social actors. In particular, national preferences are shaped through domestic politics by the interaction between state and society (Moravcsik, 1993: 483). After democratisation, the pursuit of pressures and interests of various societal actors is common in a diversified society. In other words, national preference formation theory is needed to explain the relationship between a state and a society when the SfD approach emerged and developed in Korea.

Korea might have a slightly different form from other countries' SfD approach. It is true that Korea's SfD programmes are heavily influenced by government-led ODA policy, and is not designed to be more sophisticated compared to those of other countries. Also, most programmes are carried out in Korea, not abroad, and tend to pursue sport development and SfD at the same time. Therefore,

a comprehensive understanding and analysis of Korea's SfD approach is needed from a macro perspective. Specifically, this study is necessary to explore how and why national preferences or/and non-material factors or agendas have affected the emergence and development of the Korean SfD approach. The study can also examine who the main actors of the Korean SfD approach are, who mainly supports SfD programmes and what the role of the government is.

To sum up, the purpose of this study is to explore important aspects, such as development process and motive of the Korean SfD approach from the view of IR theory. The study is expected to contribute to understanding the Korean SfD approach by examining existing major SfD programmes. The study helps explore the relative influence of national preferences and non-material factors or agendas on the Korean SfD approach by adapting two main theories. Lastly, the study provides development direction for future SfD approach in Korea, referring to the findings of the study and SfD approach of other countries.

To address the overall research purpose mentioned above, the main research questions are as follows: (1) How far have national preferences played a role in the Korean SfD approach? (2) How far have non-material factors or agendas of international society played a role in the Korean SfD approach?

The following sub-questions are as follows:

Based on national preference formation theory: (1-1) Who have been relevant actors of the Korean SfD? (1-2) How have national preferences affected the Korean SfD? (1-3) What has been the role of the Korean government? (1-4) Who has financially and materially supported the Korean SfD? (1-5) Why did the actors get involved in the Korean SfD?

Based on constructivism: (2-1) Who have been relevant actors of the Korean SfD? (2-2) How have non-material factors or agendas affected the Korean SfD approach? (2-3) What has been the role of the Korean government? (2-4) Who has financially and materially supported the Korean SfD? (2-5) Why have the actors been involved in the Korean SfD?

1.5. Research Structure

This study is composed of eight chapters that are relevant to the research purpose and questions mentioned above. Chapter 1 'Introduction' provides the background for this study and main research topics, such as the current state of Korean sports, sports and development and SfD programmes. Next, it identifies the importance of the study and elicits its research purpose and questions.

Chapter 2 'SfD as an Emerging Policy Field' explores the SfD approach from a variety of perspectives. Given that the SfD approach was initially centred on the international community and the Global North, this study explores the overall state of the SfD approach from an international perspective, as well as various SfD programmes in major countries. This chapter likewise describes main momentums and actors, the current state through previous research and major SfD programmes in Korea.

To comprehensively and historically understand the SfD phenomenon in Korea, Chapter 3 'Politics, Economics and Social Change and International Development Cooperation in South Korea' explores the transition and development process of the political, economic, cultural and social aspects in Korea since the 1960s. Korea has developed over the past 60 years by experiencing various historical events, such as dictatorship, coup d'etat, democratisation, IMF bailout, and participation in the G7. This chapter fosters comprehensive and historical understanding of the Korean SfD development through many areas.

Chapter 4 'Theoretical Framework' introduces national preference formation theory and constructivism to explore the applicability of existing relevant theories to new phenomena. Both theories also serve as specific guidelines for the research questions. Next, analytical hypotheses based on propositions and the same categories derived from both theories are presented.

Chapter 5 'Research Methodology' presents a research method to be applied to this study. Based on specific methods for post-positivism, multiple case studies, data collection, data analysis and validity and reliabilities suggested by Yin's case

study method, various methods and procedures are presented to enhance validity and reliability.

Chapter 6 'Empirical Study' presents the results of six major SfD programmes in Korea based on the specific research questions, theoretical framework and research method established earlier. The results for each programme are divided by the same categories of actors, development process, role of the government, support and motive.

Chapter 7 'Analysis and Discussion' shows the analysis and implications to the results in this study. First, it integrates and analyses the empirical studies in each category. Next, it presents theoretical implications based on the results of this study. In the end of this chapter, based on the results, similarities, differences and implications for the SfD approach between Korea and other major countries are implicitly described.

Chapter 8 'Conclusions and Outlook' consists of an academic approach, methodological reflections and outlook. This chapter looks back on what needs and purposes this study has been conducted, and describes the key findings. In addition, this chapter describes how to overcome and make up for the various research methodological difficulties which have arisen in the study. Lastly, the chapter shows the practical recommendation according to the main findings, and also presents the limitations of the study and directions for further research.

2. Sport for Development as an Emerging Policy Field

This chapter explores the SfD approach from a variety of perspectives. Given that the SfD approach was initially centred on the international community and the Global North, this study explores the overall state of the SfD approach from an international perspective, as well as various SfD programmes in major countries. This chapter likewise identifies main momentums and actors, the current state through previous research and major SfD programmes in Korea.

2.1. State of Research

2.1.1. Sport for Development from an International Perspective

Along with the economic and political changes in the international community, the function and role of sport have been evolving considerably around the world. Giulianotti (2011b) identified three main stages of how sport has played a role in international society. According to his classification, the first stage is 'Sport, Colonisation and Civilisation', in which sport could have a vital role in civilising indigenous communities in the process of European colonisation between the late 18th century and the middle of the 20th century. The second stage is 'Sport, Nationalism, Post-Colonialism and Development', in which nations pursued the development of sport and employed sport for diverse purposes, including displaying national prestige and identity between the Second World War and the 1990s. The third stage is 'Sport, Development and Peace' (SDP), which focuses on SfD with more sophisticated approaches than before. The stage has been in progress since the collapse of the former Soviet Union. Thanks to globalisation and the initiative of IGOs, NGOs and MNCs, the SfD approach has turned into a new paradigm that contributes to development and social change in a wide range of fields. As such, it is true that sport has extended its role and influence in the context of SfD, as well as its traditional development beyond being an ideological and prevailing tool.

The SfD approach has been explained by different terminologies. Beacom and Levermore (2008: Chapter 5) used 'sport in development' and the IOC usually

calls it 'development through sport'. In particular, 'development through sport' is usually used in comparison with 'development of sport'. Sherry, Schulenkorf and Green (2008: Chapter 1) clearly distinguished sport development as development of sport and SfD. Giulianotti (2011b) used the term 'sport, development and peace', which emphasises 'peace' in the agenda of SfD or DTS. In this study, the name 'sport for development' will be mainly used because it is the general term used by the Korean government, the department and sport organisations responsible for this approach. It is also argued that 'development through sport' has increasingly been replaced by 'sport for development' (Levermore, 2011). In addition, the study will commonly use SfD to focus more on 'sport and development' rather than 'sport, development and peace'.

To figure out the SfD approach, it is necessary to compare it with development of sport within sport development. SfD is known as "all types of organised physical activity that may serve as a tool for development and peace" (Levermore & Beacom, 2009, p.33). In the past, SfD was considered the approach that focuses on social development and social change through sports activities in Korea (Ha et al., 2015). It refers to the approach or programme established by diverse actors, who use sports activities as a vehicle to deal with the development goals and social issues for the well-being of individuals and the communities. Recently, however, various actors in Korea are operating SfD programmes to achieve multiple domestic and foreign objectives.

On the other hand, development of sport refers to a traditional approach that focuses on strengthening sport capacity (Green, 2005). Development of sport means the development of sport itself in pursuit of enhancing sport performance, organisations, coaching and facilities. The SfD approach tends to be launched through cooperation among diverse actors and stakeholders, such as each government department, IGOs and NGOs, while development of sport is largely pursued by sport organisations. It can be inferred that SfD can be more properly explained from the transnational point of view than development of sport, as the former covers broad development issues as well as various organisations and stakeholders in international society.

As the SfD approach is intertwined with a wide range of stakeholders in the fields of sport, health, economics, education and welfare, the fundamental purpose and action of the movement can depend on the leading subject. Sport organisations seek to concentrate on both dimensions of development of sport itself and SfD. For this reason, Guilanotti (2011b) argued that development of sport and SfD might not be contradictory but could be mutually beneficial. Darby (2012) noted that some football programmes in Ghana concurrently pursue two dimensions. On the contrary, economic organisations such as the OECD and the World Trade Organisation as well as organisations related to health might give more weight to solving economic issues and disease, respectively. In the same vein, unlike Korea, most European countries' SfD programmes focus on driving positive changes in individuals and communities in developing countries through sports rather than on the development of sport itself.

In this context, SfD can be conceptualised in detail by several approaches. Coalter (2007: 70) classified the SDP sector as two main concepts that can directly apply to the SfD approach. The first concept is known as 'sport plus', which prioritises the purposes related to sport and then seeks to achieve development goals. The other concept is 'plus sport', which sets a high value on employing sport as a tool to encourage young people to participate in educational and training programmes. Kidd (2008) suggested three approaches in a similar way. In the first approach, the programmes should concentrate on disadvantaged communities by providing them with general infrastructure and human resources. However, the approach may be that of the 'sport development' model rather than the 'sport for development' model as it is likely to help those who are already associated with sports activities. The second approach is focused on SDP or SfD and seeks to achieve the MDGs, SDGs and reconciliation of the UN. Compared to the first approach, this approach aims at public health, gender equality and social cohesion. The third approach is known as the 'humanitarian sport assistance' model, which is associated with philanthropy and charity sporting events by athletes in developing nations.

Meanwhile, Mintzberg (2006) distinguished three approaches of how the development agenda related to sport is formed and implemented in local communities: (1) top-down, (2) inside-up indigenous and (3) outside-in globalisation.

The top-down approach is a scheme whereby the governments or donor countries mainly carry out SfD programmes to the local communities or recipient countries. The recipient countries tend to only receive a benefit through pre-designed plans that donor countries set up, but it would be an efficient and time-saving approach. The inside-up approach is known as a bottom-up approach based on community-driven consultation in implementing the programmes, which can carefully meet the requirements of the local communities. The outside-in approach carries out the programmes accepted by international society through cooperation and partnerships with various actors. It could become an ideal approach to deal with social issues, but it might be problematic if the cooperation and partnerships are composed of the Global North.

Sport seems like an appropriate catalyst to implement development programmes in view of broad perspectives. Firstly, although sport is intertwined with politics and the commercial sector, it has its own powerful influence over society around the world. In fact, SfD programmes can transcend political, economic, social and cultural issues, a capability that can lead to success in the programmes within local communities. Thus, sport has become an important element and a neutral approach for the general well-being of individuals and society.

Secondly, Beacom and Levermore (2008: Chapter 5) pointed out that the inefficiency and failure of traditional development vehicles, such as investment and trade, have led to sport being a new vehicle to deal with development. In fact, sport has recently emerged as a mainstream development tool that can easily reach some regions where traditional development organisations and systems encountered difficulty in gaining access (Levermore, 2008). In this regard, the UN perceived sport as a low-cost and practical instrument to achieve the MDGs around the world (UN Inter-Agency Task Force, 2003). The MDGs organised by the UN encompass eight main issues, including poverty, HIV, AIDS and physical and psychological health, all of which are main concerns of areas in the Global South. Koss and Alexandrova (2005) stated that the use of sport directly contributes to development of life skills by delivering knowledge and information regarding health and HIV.

Sport can not only facilitate effective SfD programmes in view of altruism but also achieve the diplomatic purposes of a nation (Kidd, 2008). Korea, for example, has implemented several SfD programmes for an explicitly diplomatic purpose of ingratiating itself with the IOC for mega sporting events, such as the 2018 Winter Olympic Games and the 2014 Asian Games. Meanwhile, companies, especially MNCs, have actively engaged in various SfD programmes around the world. Companies have actually been carrying out CSR programmes for their public relations and competitive advantage in business for a long period of time. SfD programmes as a CSR activity seem to be closely concerned with society, which can result in favourable relationships between a company and society. Thus, sport has a favourable impression in dealing with diverse development issues all over the world.

The SfD approach can be mainly formed with the effort of various governmental, non-governmental and private actors within the Global North. Hayhurst (2009) noted that different ministries, such as education, sport and foreign affairs, may be in charge of planning and managing overall SfD programmes. In addition, NGOs and IGOs have been leading exponents of continuous growth of the SfD approach. As mentioned in the preceding paragraph, MNCs become involved in the SfD approach for purposes of CSR as well as a specific intention (Huish, 2011; Banda & Gultresa, 2015).

Compared to the situation in the past, non-state actors and civil society at present have become as important as state actors. In this regard, policy related to SfD tends to be considered through both domestic and global levels. Scholte (2010) stressed that sport governance has changed from traditional state-centred policy to multi-level governance, as it is recognised as a tool for diplomacy, government policy and even propaganda. Geeraert, Scheerder and Bruyninckx (2012) pointed out that global issues are no longer solved at the domestic level owing to the importance of regional and supranational policy levels. In this context, it would be reasonable to consider the SfD approach from national and transnational points of view in order to ensure the phenomenon inside and outside of the country.

NGOs, the UN and governments or their agencies would be remarkable actors in leading the development of the SfD approach. Firstly, NGOs are regarded as pioneers that have been involved in SfD projects or programmes since the 1980s. NGOs based on SfD tend to have a transcendental character from the political and economic aspects and can seek their own purposes without interventions and pressure from the outside. One of the largest SfD NGOs, Right to Play, has served a significant role in collecting and carrying out discourse on the SfD approach within the international development agenda. The Mathare Youth Sport Association, another typical SfD organisation formed in 1987, has helped solve community development and sustainability through football programmes in Africa (Lindsey, Kay, Jeanes and Banda, 2017: 18). The development of SfD programmes was increasingly accelerated with the emergence in the late 1990s of NGOs related to broad issues in sport. This effort resulted in the first International Conference on Sport and Development in 2003, leading to the change of SfD into a 'phenomenon' or 'movement' (Kidd, 2008). In particular, NGOs have had a profound impact on Africa because African nations are generally unstable and unsystematic in the state and civil society (Armstrong & Giulianotti, 2004). As a result, NGOs could be key actors who autonomously have an influence on the SfD approach in the transnational context.

From the late 1990s onwards, the UN has established new agenda of how the SfD approach is to be utilised around the world. This atmosphere actually started since the UN adopted sport as a legitimate tool in 2001 to deal with development and social issues (Kidd, 2008). Actually, Adolf Ogi was appointed as the UN's first special advisor on Sport for Development and Peace (Lindsey et al., 2001). At present, SfD is officially recognised for its international reputation and status through the adoption of Resolution 58/5 by the General Assembly of the UN in 2003 (UN, 2003). In other words, the importance of sport through the will of the UN has become significant and has received attention from diverse stakeholders, leading to the increase in SfD programmes and initiatives in the developing world. The MDGs suggested by the UN were a particularly important milestone and played a role in the systematic framework of the development policies and agendas. In 2015, the UN General Assembly specifically mentioned the importance and contribution of sport

as a 2030 agenda for sustainable development (Lindsey et al., 2017: 19). As such, the UN has largely contributed to the spread and practice of the SfD approach through which sport has become the mainstream culture of international development around the world.

In addition to NGOs and the UN, many states and their agencies in the Global North have led SfD programmes or international cooperation and development in the area of the Global South. In this regard, Darnell (2012) defined the Global South as an essential region of development. It is no wonder that SfD programmes placed in the Global South, as the main issues of MDGs or social problems are primarily concerned with those in this area. For this reason, sporting mega-events in the Global South are regarded as a strategic approach to economic and social development (Darnell, 2012: 103).

Given the unilateral relationship between the Global North and Global South, the SfD approach has commonality with neoliberalism discourse and even colonialism in that it dominates in the field of international cooperation and development. The movement brings about a decrease in the influence of actors in the Global South over time while the Global North carries out SfD programmes (Laird, 2007). Furthermore, the Global-North relationship tends to entail a top-down decision-making process in planning and implementing SfD programmes because of the power imbalance (Levermore & Beacom, 2009: Chapter 2). Although it is true that the Global North has traditionally dominated in the SfD approach and programmes, the Global South or developing countries have recently engaged in SfD programmes to not only solve domestic problems but also care for international issues.

States and their agencies engage in the SfD approach in their own way. Van Eekeren, Horst and Fictorie (2013) briefly mentioned the approaches and structures on SfD actions of several countries, along with the potential value and next steps of the SfD approach. In the UK, the International Development Assistance Programme and UK sport have responsibilities in international sport development, but it is argued that SfD programmes in the UK have been implemented with a less organised and

informal approach. Canada's SfD seems to be associated with diverse areas, such as foreign policy, international development and international sport policy, through the cooperation of various departments and agencies, including Canadian Heritage (CH) and Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA). In the case of Switzerland, the Swiss Agency for Development Cooperation, as a part of the Foreign Ministry, has considered sport as part of the development agenda since 2007, along with education, health, water and sanitation.

Norway and Australia have more structured ways to achieve the aim of SfD than other nations. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MFA) and the Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation (NORAD) are largely in charge of the SfD policy in Norway. They have sought to establish a long-term commitment to the SfD policy through collaboration among diverse stakeholders. Australia is carrying out its SfD policy through the Australian Sports Commission (ASC) and the Australian Agency for International Development (AusAID), which are responsible for the 'Development Through Sport 2013–2017' strategy. In the Netherlands, the SfD policy depends on the political attention and funding, and the programmes tend to be implemented by multiple partners, such as Right to Play and the Royal Netherlands Football Association (KNVB). Each country has its own approach and structure on SfD and its policy, but it is clear that they cooperate with diverse departments, agencies and organisations in the fields of sport and foreign affairs to achieve effective SfD policy and programmes.

In the academic field, research related to SfD has become diverse and abundant due to the continuous increase in SfD projects and programmes supported by governments, NGOs and agencies all over the world. In fact, the number of SfD research in the early 2000s were less than 10 articles a year but rose to more than 90 published articles in 2013 (Schulenkorf, Sherry & Rowe, 2016). The quantitative growth of SfD research has likewise led various disciplines of sport to be concerned with the theoretical and empirical contribution of diverse SfD areas, such as management, sociology, health, public policy, gender studies, marketing, peace studies and education (Schulenkorf et al., 2016). Most programmes are conducted in Africa, Asia and Latin America, but more than 80% of the main actors on SfD

programmes, and authors on SfD research are based in North America, Europe and Australia (Schulenkorf et al., 2016). Also, Svensson and Woods (2017) noted that a total of 32 types of sports were used for SfD activities, one-third of which were football.

There are three main types of research which have been usually conducted around SfD (Gadais, 2019). Typically, researchers are conducting case studies or exploratory studies of SfD phenomena (Whitley, Farrell, Wolff & Hillyer, 2019). These studies focus on exploring the effectiveness of the SfD activities, considering the social, cultural and historical background of a region within a certain country (Gadais, 2019). For example, Oxford (2017) conducted ethnographic study in Colombia for six months, trying to find out the social inclusion of young women through football. In addition, some researchers are focusing on finding appropriate research methods to enhance the feasibility of SfD research (Gadais, Webb & Garcia, 2017). In this process, researchers also understand the role and importance of key actors involved in the SfD field.

Secondly, researchers are interested in identifying the evaluation and management of SfD programmes (Gadais, 2019). Levermore (2011) noted that existing studies on the evaluation tend to be overly positive and insufficient monitoring and evaluation. In particular, he emphasised the need for a protocol to objectively evaluate SfD programmes with unclear objectives and lack of validity. Meanwhile, some researchers are focusing on certain research which enhances the part of management to improve the functional and operational aspects of SfD programmes (Peachey, Borland, Lobpries & Cohen, 2015). Indeed, in recent years, sport management specialists have critically reviewed and evaluated SfD programmes, making them increasingly strategic and systematic (Gadais, 2019).

On the other hand, some researchers are wary of excessive possibilities and question the effectiveness of SfD activities and research (Coalter, 2010). Kidd (2008) argued that SfD initiatives were motivated by the fall of athlete activism and apartheid, and were created by the UN's efforts and neoliberalism at the end of the Cold War. In other words, the potential and effectiveness of sport in international

development cooperation may not be built up automatically, but rather emphasised by political and social backgrounds. Thus, in order to maximise the positive effect of SfD, programmes should prioritise development and be designed professionally.

Most SfD activities were conducted at the community level, and 70% of relevant research employed qualitative and conceptual methods (Schulenkorf et al., 2016). Scholars carried out an integrative review of SfD literature and helped identify the track and overall phenomenon from different viewpoints. There has been plenty of SfD research on social cohesion, education, livelihoods and health issues (Svensson & Woods, 2017). In fact, SfD activities contributed to the development of social capital, including social cohesion (Peachey, Cohen, Borland & Lyras, 2013). Additionally, SfD programmes significantly seek to deal with health issues, such as in HIV/AIDS sectors (Lindsey & Banda, 2011). As opposed to these kinds of categories, they argued that studies on specific areas, especially disability, gender equality, peace studies and livelihoods, remain relatively scarce owing to a lack of funding and a small number of relevant programmes. The themes of SfD research are as Table 2.1.

In terms of applied theory in the field of SfD research, positive youth development and social capital theory have often been preferred by scholars (Agans & Geldhof, 2012). Critical development theory, ecological systems, feminist theory and human capital development theory were also applied in SfD research as a theoretical framework (Schulenkorf et al., 2016). SfD researchers tend to focus more on the community and national level of development than on international development. Recently, it was argued that the implementation of SfD programmes is increasingly struggling with securing funding and support from the government (Schulenkorf & Adair, 2014).

Table 2.1. Main Themes of SfD Research

Thematics	Descriptions
Sport and disability	Sport and disability focus on research related to sport as a vehicle for the development, access, inclusion, and human rights of people with disabilities. This section encourages critical thinking and diversity of perspectives, welcoming research at the intersection of theory and practice.
Sport and education	Sport and education present research and case studies related to interventions that use sport to advance education, youth development, and life skills. Rather than focusing on sport education, this section discusses the role of sport in achieving the academic and social outcomes of youth.
Sport and gender	The theme on sport and gender present research and case studies related to interventions using sport to promote gender equality, challenge gender norms, and empower girls and women in disadvantages environments.
Sport and livelihoods	The theme on sport and livelihoods present research and case studies on interventions using sport to improve the livelihoods of disadvantaged people, from programmes focusing on vocational skills training to rehabilitation and social enterprise.
Sport and peace	Sport and peace focus on projects that use sport as a vehicle for reconciliation and peace-building. The concept of peace is broadly defined to include connotations of personal, community, and social well-being, as well as the absence of conflict and tension between groups. In particular, this section examines the possibilities of creating peace between individuals and groups in socially, culturally, or ethnically divided societies.
Sport and health	Sport and health present a wide range of outcomes associated with physical, mental, and social well-being. This is the effect of SDP programmes on the risk factors for communicable and non-communicable diseases, including the direct effect of sports programmes on physical activities. It also examines the role that sport can play in preventive education and health promotion interventions.
Sport and social cohesion	The sport and social cohesion theme include projects in the areas of community empowerment, social inclusion/integration, and diversity management. It focuses on social impact assessments and capacity-building initiatives that can lead to social cohesion, skills enhancement, and overall community development.

Source: Gadais (2019)

This situation indicates the importance of receiving the commitment and continuous support of policy makers of the community and the government. Some SfD research seems to be connected to sport or welfare policy at the national level. For these reasons, there has been an increase in SfD research at the national level. On the other hand, only 10% of the research is involved in international development in SfD programmes, a percentage that may be related to the intense commitment, health scares and security issues in certain regions despite the abundance of projects (Schulenkorf et al., 2016). Lastly, SfD researchers have obtained a wide range of findings, but the (1) suitability of SfD programmes for certain groups or regions, (2) suggestions for future research and (3) limitations of current SfD programmes have been the three main topics of research findings.

As mentioned above, collaboration between sport and development has been burgeoning along with an increase in SfD projects and globalisation around the world. However, there are several weaknesses that may be related to broad aspects of the SfD approach. Firstly, some argue that SfD programmes seem to be unstable and unsystematic in dealing with development issues. The sustainability and consistency of SfD programmes have received many concerns (Boyle, 2010). To sustain the programmes for a long time, it would be ideal for the state to be responsible for SfD programmes, as these might be closely related to health and educational policy at the national level (Boyle, 2010). Moreover, establishing elaborate evaluation methods could lead to sustainable SfD programmes. Coalter (2009) noted that a sophisticated monitoring and evaluation process combined with qualitative and quantitative approaches have a positive effect on the meaningful outcomes of the programmes.

Secondly, it has been argued that many scholars and organisers tend to look at the SfD approach and its programmes from a biased western and political perspective. This viewpoint may bring about vertical hierarchy and adhesion between donors (developed countries) and recipients (developing countries) (Nicholls, 2009). In fact, SfD programmes in developing countries seem to rely on external funding and governance by the Global North with its higher income (Levermore, 2009). In addition to governance and funding, diverse stakeholders, including staff, volunteers and athlete ambassadors from the Global North, can play

a role in reinforcing the relationship between donor and recipient countries in the process of knowledge transfer in the Global South (Darnell, 2007). The overall imbalance within countries could cause poor communication, which leads to ineffective SfD programmes. Several countries have also implicitly employed SfD programmes and movement for their political objectives, such as bidding for the Olympic Games. These actions are likely to lead to suspicions regarding the purity of implementing SfD programmes, which would in turn have a negative effect on the sustainability and quality of the programmes.

In relation to the shortcomings of the SfD approach in the academic aspect, Coalter (2007) said that studies relevant to SfD projects entail a financial burden due to the large-scale research around developing countries. In addition, more in-depth, baseline measure and longitudinal research are required to measure the actual effectiveness of SfD programmes because development programmes in the local community often entail other general activities. It was likewise argued that research dealing with people with disabilities is lacking and that researchers would need to cooperate with scholars who are responsible for social development in various fields so as to induce vigorous research activities from various points of view.

Lastly, the majority of research said that sport contributes greatly to social and international development as a vehicle. However, some scholars still question whether the nature of sport, such as competition and aggression, actually fits as a tool for development. Hayhurst (2011) mentioned that there has been a definite belief that sport constantly plays a positive role in development, and the World Bank (2006) pointed out that a causal relationship between sport and development still remains scarce. Therefore, it is necessary to identify what kinds of development fields can be actually effective to sports activities.

Notwithstanding the problems inherent in the SfD area, it cannot be denied that sport contributes substantially to achieving the development agenda at different levels, including international, national and community. As stated above, SfD activities around the world have increasingly developed through the endeavour of transnational actors since the 1980s. The activities have then turned it into one of the

major movements through the adoption of the UN in the early 2000s. Governments, development agencies and sport organisations have also evolved as main actors and stakeholders of SfD programmes because the movement is being associated with sustainable development strategy and diverse policy objectives at a national level. Lastly, some issues of SfD programmes, including evaluation process and communication between donor and recipient countries, should be gradually improved, and sustainable programmes and longitudinal research are necessary to help accomplish the fundamental purposes and initial plans of the SfD approach.

2.1.2. Sport for Development Programmes Around the World

2.1.2.1. Germany

Germany has been working on projects for development cooperation for more than 30 years (Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development [BMZ], 2020). SfD is a theme that is deeply connected to the various development goals the German government wants to achieve (GIZ, 2016). Usually, the government plays a role in proposing, coordinating and supporting the role of each actor in the SfD field in order to engage in projects related to health, education, good governance, social integration and environment (BMZ, 2020). The BMZ oversees the overall development cooperation policies. It works with other government departments, international and regional NGOs, networks and private-sector companies to implement SfD (BMZ, 2020). The key partners of BMZ include the German Football Association (DFB), the German Olympic Sports Confederation (DOSB), the UNOSDP and German Sport University Cologne (GIZ, 2016).

The GIZ is dedicated to development cooperation projects through sports on behalf of the BMZ. It offers a variety of sports-based projects for development cooperation. These projects can generally be divided into programmes in the school's physical education curriculum and sports activities outside of school. One of the most representative programmes is 'Youth Development Through Football', which is conducted in 10 countries in Africa under the financial support of the BMZ and the EU and in cooperation with regional organisations and NGOs such as Sport and

Recreation South Africa (Burnett, 2013). The purpose of the programme is to help African children who have not had enough experience and opportunities in their normal lives (BMZ, 2020). Through football, the children can interact socially and learn how to solve difficult problems and conflicts without violence.

In addition, the GIZ is carrying out 'Sector Programme on SfD' in Africa, the Middle East and South America from 2019 to 2022. For the programme, the GIZ worked with the DOSB, the DFB and local partner organisations. The subject and activities of the programme are slightly different for each country. In Indonesia, GIZ sought to help schoolchildren and learn positive values and life skills by providing both girls and boys with football training sessions (GIZ, 2021). In Uganda, trainers focus on life skills, health and social cohesion through running, jumping and throwing for children and young people with disabilities (GIZ, 2021). The programme in Palestine has shown that sports activities can help with preparatory education for employment (GIZ, 2021). Through the programme, about 2,000 young people were assisted to acquire personal and social skills required for employment, such as teamwork, communication and decision-making skills through sports activities.

Since 2016, the GIZ has been running the 'Exchange, Education and Conflict Management Through Sport for Development' programme in Jordan and Iraq (GIZ, 2020). The programme has been working with numerous international and regional partners, such as Jordan Football Association, Jordan Olympic Committee, Asian Football Development Project, Right to Play and University of Jordan, to promote the physical and mental development of Syrian refugees and Jordanian youth (GIZ, 2020). Specifically, the GIZ has conducted sports activities in safe environments for refugees, youth and disadvantaged neighbours in Iraq and Jordan. These groups are learning not only about sporting skills but also about respect, tolerance, empathy, fair play and self-esteem (GIZ, 2020).

In addition to the implementation of SfD projects, Germany works with scientific research institutes in the field of SfD to evaluate each programme and share its experiences with other projects (BMZ, 2020). Ultimately, the goal is to enhance

the effectiveness and quality of the development cooperation programmes (BMZ, 2020). Meanwhile, the BMZ and the GIZ seek to strengthen cooperation with actors in the private sector interested in SfD so as to share the interest and efforts associated with SfD (BMZ, 2020). One example is the 'dvelopppp.de programme', in which the BMZ has a strategic partnership with a sports equipment manufacturer (BMZ, 2020). This programme provides sports products and equipment to maintain the health of disadvantaged children in elementary school in Brazil and South Africa.

Schreiner, Mayer and Kastrup (2021) examined the role of the UN and national sports organisations in German SfD policy. They noted that the BMZ and GIZ are primarily positive about their SfD activities. They argued that German government's SfD policy embraces the irritation of the UN at a normative and strategic level, and then develops it back into its own policy. In this process, sport organisations mainly contribute to the implementation stage of policy making. In other words, relatively few sports organisations work with the BMZ and GIZ, mainly for sports and staff within the SfD programmes. Indeed, DOSB has a strong interest in SfD approach, but in practice it is more focused on promotion of sports (Schreiner et al., 2021). As such, the SfD policy of the BMZ and GIZ in Germany are based on macro-cooperation with the UN, and cooperate with sport organisations in operating the programmes.

2.1.2.2. United Kingdom

Since the 1960s, the UK has employed the role and function of sport for domestic social development and, starting from the 1980s, extended its capacity for international cooperation and development through sport (UK Sport, 2007). Since the Royal Charter was granted in 1996, UK Sport has been deeply involved in SfD in partnership with various partners (Sportanddev, 2021). UK Sport is responsible for international cooperation and development through sport, and is partnering with the Department for International Development and various NGOs, such as the British Council, Youth Sports Foundation and United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF).

UK Sport implements several SfD programmes, such as International Development Through Sport (IDS), IDEALS, IN and Dreams and Teams.

The IDS programme is financially supported by the England Premier League and provides children who live in the poorest countries and seek to lead to better lives with opportunities to effectively improve their awareness and education on HIV/AIDS (Park, 2016). IDEALS is the educational programme for children, students, teachers and sport coaches living in African countries. They are invited in the UK to receive training in physical education and sport administration for six weeks, after which they return to their hometowns to share their know-how to other people. IDEALS is expected to promote mutual understanding between the UK and developing countries in Africa (UK Sport, 2006). The Dreams and Teams programme is a project hosted by the British Council aimed at developing leadership in children living in developing countries through sports activities (Yim, 2014). This programme, operated on a purely voluntary basis in about 50 countries, is supported by the UK government for about 6 million dollars annually (Kim & Lee, 2009).

The IN programme is a charity activity connected to the 2012 London Olympics. The programme was one of the pledges made to host the Olympics; it uses the power of sport to inspire the lives of children, young people and marginalised groups across the world, including India, Bangladesh, Ghana and Kenya (British Council, 2020). IN cooperates with over 10 partners, including the UNICEF, British Council, UK Sport and branches of the government, and consists of four main supporting areas: (1) school physical education, (2) development of community through sport, (3) education project for children through sport and (4) support project for elite sport athletes (Kim & Lee, 2009). Although the programme was officially terminated in 2014, 25 million of young people were given the opportunity to inspire and reach their potential through the IN programme (British Council, 2021).

Meanwhile, since 2017, Premier Skills programme aims to target 1.7 million young people in about 30 countries to achieve positive social and educational outcome by using football as a tool for change (British Council, 2021). Through regular football sessions, participants develop their own skills, confidence and self-

esteem, and seek better integration with the community (British Council, 2021). Next, Culf Sport and Culture programme has been conducted in six countries since 2016 with support from the Foreign and Commonwealth Office and Department for Culture, Media and Sport (British Council, 2021). The main goal of this programme is to promote leadership, equality, fair play and diversity, which are key values of British sport for women and girls (British Council, 2021).

Overall, UK Sport operated several SfD programmes from the 2000s to the London Olympics. However, after hosting the Olympics, UK Sport tend to focus primarily on development of sport through partnerships between NGB and international sport organisations. Importantly, the UK is deliberately making efforts to spread the values which it seeks in international development through sport. On the other hand, the Ministry of Culture, Media and Sport has recently conducted SfD approach in partnership with non-sport organisations, such as the British Council and UNICEF.

2.1.2.3. Netherlands

In the 1980s, the Dutch policy on SfD was not specific, but at that time, the Netherlands became politically involved in a development issue by participating in a sport boycott towards South Africa's apartheid system (Van Eekeren et al., 2013). After the first non-racial elections in 1994, Dutch sport organisations and sport NGOs joined forces to create a new, non-racist country. The Netherlands joined forces with various actors, including the Netherlands Olympic Committee, sport organisations and sport NGOs, to implement SfD programmes in other African countries and South Africa. For example, it implemented Sport Leader programme in Burkina Faso and Volleyball programme for the treatment of trauma in Rwanda.

In 1998, the Ministry of Sport and the MFA jointly announced a well-organised policy for the implementation of SfD programmes in developing countries, named 'Sport in Development: Teamwork Scores' (Van Eekeren et al., 2013). The aim of the policy was to use physical education, play, sports, and activities for

personal health, well-being, social inclusion and development (Van Eekeren et al., 2013). By this time, policies and programmes for SfD in the Netherlands had been structured and the funding budget of the government would be increased accordingly. The Ministry of Sport and the MFA mainly cooperated with sports-related and development-related organisations. In particular, the policy enabled the Ministry of Sport to enter into a memorandum of understanding (MOU) for SfD with various developing countries, actually leading to the implementation of football coach programmes in African countries. During this time, the government started providing the National Committee for International Cooperation and Sustainable Development financial support, which enabled the committee to operate SfD programmes and manage a global network platform (Van Eekeren et al., 2013).

In 2000, the government revised the direction and areas of activities of the MFA for the SfD approach. In the process, the MFA changed its approach for SfD from unstructured support in various countries to a focus on systematic development support in a smaller number of countries (Van Eekeren et al., 2013). Naturally, NGOs for smaller sports were less financially supported than the projects from large organisations. Right to Play, for instance, was aligned with the government's changed policy direction and areas and was greatly supporting in their multinational SfD programmes.

In 2008, the Netherlands announced a new policy for sustainable SfD called 'An Open Goal. The Power of Sport in Development Cooperation' (Van Eekeren et al., 2013). The core of the policy was to strengthen international development cooperation through sport via embassies, the National Olympic Committee (NOC) and NCDO (Van Eekeren et al., 2013). Specifically, the programme aimed to improve health and education for youth, girls, women and people with disabilities in Africa, Asia and South America by applying Dutch sports know-how. For this programme, the government budget was set at 16 million euros from 2008 to 2011. When the programme ended at the end of 2011, a new policy and programme were established by the MFA in 2012, which was called 'Sport for Development 2012–2015' (Van Eekeren et al., 2013). Since 2012, the Ministry of Sports has been excluded from the policy and programme because it had decided to focus more on

domestic issues. Similar to previous programmes, the programme pursued sustainable development and peace and targeted youth, children, women, girls, and people with disabilities. While the previous programme had been budgeted 16 million euros, the new programme was only given 6 million euros because of cuts in the development cooperation budget (Van Eekeren et al., 2013).

The SfD 2016–2020 programme currently underway aims at developing children and youth in the community through sport and play (Sportfordevelopment.NL, 2020). The five main activities include development of life and leadership skills; training coaches, leader and mentors; help for building civil society organisations; development of community knowledge and awareness on social issues; and emphasis on the importance of sports (Sportfordevelopment.NL., 2020). The programme is implemented in collaboration with the MFA, International Sports Alliance (ISA), Right to Play and the KNVB. Therefore, the policy and programme of SfD in the Netherlands are mainly established every four years and are carried out in cooperation with the MFA, national sport organisations and international sports NGOs in Africa, Asia and South America.

2.1.2.4.   Norway

Norway is one of the most active actors and countries in SfD approach. NGOs associated with SfD, which receive government funding, play an essential role in the Norwegian development and foreign policy (Hasselgård, 2015). The Norwegian government and NGOs have been committed to global development and peace for more than 50 years (Hasselgård, 2015). Initially, Norway hosted international football tournaments in the 1970s, when it began using sport for international solidarity for children and youth. In 1983, the Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sports (NIF) in cooperation with NORAD launched SFA projects in Tanzania. The projects included a school programme, training of leaders and coaches, sports activities and supporting equipment and—although they were targeted at everyone—focused more on women, children and

people with disabilities (Straume, 2012). Since then, the NIF has carried out SfD projects in Zambia, South Africa and Zimbabwe based on the stable development aid budget from the Norwegian government (Hasselgård, 2015).

In the 1990s, there was growing awareness and interest among Norwegian actors regarding SfD. At this time, several NGOs carried out projects for sport and leadership development in developing countries, and in 1994, the first Olympic Aid campaign was launched at the Lillehammer Olympics (Hasselgård, 2015). Olympic Aid was later renamed Right to Play, through which various SfD projects have been carried out. Since 1997, the NIF has run Youth Sport Exchange Programme, and in 2001, it established the AIDS Kicking Out Network along with the support of the NORAD to fight HIV/AIDS (Hasselgård, 2015).

In the 2000s, because of increasing interest and financial support internationally on SfD, the Norwegian government became more systematic in its efforts to coordinate the activities of each relevant actor. In this context, the 2003 government report included a comprehensive policy on SfD, and in 2005, MFA highlighted the SfD policy in a report on sports cooperation with the Global South (Hasselgård, 2015). In particular, the document emphasised that the MFA, NORAD and other government-related actors should strengthen the quality of cooperation with SfD-related sport organisations. These initiatives led SfD-related organisations to play even more important roles in Norwegian development and foreign policy.

This effort established the Norwegian model of SfD. In this regard, the model can have legitimacy and comparative advantages because Norway has never threatened other countries or interfered with the activities of NGOs in the past (Lie, 2006). In the same vein, NGOs tend to be non-politically humanitarian because, compared to the UK, the US and France, Norway has not pursued strategic and economic interests for developing countries (Hasselgård, 2015). Taken together, the MFA in Norway is responsible for its strategy for SfD approach, and the Ministry and the NORAD are jointly involved in Norwegian SfD projects. NORAD primarily promotes the projects with NGOs, and NIF is also one of the important actors.

The organisations for development cooperation are mainly funded by the MFA and NORAD, but recently, NORAD has financially supported the most SfD projects (Hasselgård, 2009). For this reason, the main activities of SfD projects have shifted from sports and reconciliation in the past into the development of civil society through sports (Hasselgård, 2015). The programmes focus on helping the democratisation process of developing countries and enhancing the empowerment of local partners (Norad, 2011). In addition, the Norwegian government funds various international projects led by the UN and the Inter-American Development Bank. Norway has been involved in various developments through SfD since the 1980s. Lastly, Norway has a long-term SfD approach to maximise practical cooperation and positive effects and is leading the international SfD approach in cooperation with NGOs.

2.1.2.5. Australia

Australia's international cooperation through sport began in the 1990s, and AusAID and the ASC are working together. At first, Australia sought to assist in the elite sport development of recipient countries, but since the 2000s, it has focused more on social development through sport. This change can be seen as a government effort to commit to the UN's MDGs. To effectively keep step with the SfD approach, AusAID and the ASC established a strategy for the Australian Sport Outreach Programme (ASOP) in 2007. The strategy highlighted a well balance between development of sport and SfD and a coordination of roles between aid agencies and sport organisations (ASOP, 2020).

This emphasis included several guiding principles: (1) a recipient-country-centred programme, (2) social inclusiveness through sports activities for all people, (3) a well-organised programme, (4) harmonisation with various organisations and (5) systematic evaluation of AusAID and the ASC (ASOP, 2020). Recently, Australia has enhanced its DTS programme to achieve social development in developing countries, including projects for saving lives, promoting opportunities for all,

sustainable economic development, effective governance and humanitarian and disaster response. Among these components, the SfD focuses more on saving lives and promoting opportunities for all and is interested in gender equality, health promotion in women and girls, empowering women and social inclusion through strong bond between people (Park, 2016).

The ASOP mentioned above has been implemented in three main regions: the Pacific area, Southern Africa and Caribbean (Kim & Lee, 2009). The Pacific programme aims at helping build the capacity of committed individuals and organisations and supporting sustainable sports activities of local people, thereby leading to improved leadership, health promotion and social cohesion (ASOP, 2020). For example, the Fiji Disability Sport Program aims to increase the number of quality sports programmes that people with a disability can participate in at a level and in a role that they choose (ASOP, 2020). The Fiji Paralympic Committee is in charge of the delivery of the programme in the process. In Southern Africa, ASOP is known as the Active Community Club, which seeks to encourage the natives of Africa to engage regularly in sports activities (Park, 2016).

Importantly, however, the Community Club is focused on helping shape the identity of each community, who do not have enough social solidarity and interaction due to their regional vulnerability (Kim & Lee, 2009). Discovering a talent through sports activities could also be a significant purpose in the Active Community Club (ASC, 2005). In the Caribbean region, ASOP implemented the Youth Empowerment Programme through sports in concert with the department of recipient countries (Lim, 2014).

Australia announced Australian Sports Diplomacy Strategy 2015-18 in 2015, making a new era in international sport development. In this strategy, the SfD programmes focused on addressing inequality among women, girls and people with disabilities in the Asia-Pacific region. Also, the strategy includes partnerships with India, Malaysia, Japan, Sri Lanka and other countries in Asia for professional sport exchanges. Next, in 2019, the Australian government announced Sports Diplomacy 2030 (Australian Government, 2019). Sport Exchange Australia operates various

SfD programmes in partnership with the Sports Diplomacy Advisory Council which serves to advise the government on strategy implementation (Sport Exchange Australia, 2021). In other words, SfD programmes were mainly operated by AusAID and ASC, but now operated around Sport Exchange Australia. The aim of Sports Diplomacy 2030 is to strengthen Australia's initiative around the Pacific Ocean by building a regional sports community with neighbouring countries (Sport Exchange Australia, 2021). Also, it seeks to maximise socio-economic exchanges, such as trade, tourism and investment (Sport Exchange Australia, 2021). The main programmes of Sports Diplomacy 2030 are PacificAus Sports and Team Up, which are focusing on development of sport and SfD, respectively (Sport Exchange Australia, 2021).

Despite Australia's ambitious and active activities, questions have been raised in Australia for the effectiveness of SfD. In particular, Australia is using SfD programmes as a way to solve the aboriginal problem. Sheppard (2020) acknowledged that sports have the ability to heal social problems, but argued that sports cannot be a panacea for them. She questioned the fact that the SfD programmes could deal with the aboriginal problems in Australia. As such, although the Australian government is engaged in various SfD activities, its effectiveness is still debated in Australia.

2.1.2.6. Canada

In Canada, international cooperation and development through sport began along with the 1991 Commonwealth Heads of Government meeting (Van Eekeren et al., 2013). CH, CIDA, Commonwealth Games Canada (CGC) and the departments of government played key roles in the movement (Kim & Lee, 2009). Recently, Sport Canada within CH has established policies regarding SfD (Sport Canada, 2021). Key objectives of the Canadian sport policy include enhancing SfD approach, which can promote positive social and economic development through sports at home and abroad, as well as strengthening SFA and elite sport (Sport Canada, 2021). Internationally, Canada cooperates with various partners, such as the Commonwealth Advisory Body on Sport, The Conference of the Youth and Sports Ministers of

French-speaking Countries and the UN (Van Eekeren et al. 2013). This means that multi-dimensional actors are involved in international cooperation and development through sport.

According to the Physical Activity and Sport Act 2003, Canada considered sport as a significant tool for overall development of the individual, society and nation, and it aimed at emerging as a nation leading the SfD approach around the world by 2012 (Justice Law Website, 2020). The main SfD programmes in Canada can be divided into two main parts: International Development Project among the Commonwealth through sport and the CSLC.

The CGC has operated these programmes along with the financial support of the Canadian government (Kim & Lee, 2009). Firstly, International Development Project is a multilateral cooperation programme through which advanced countries support developing countries within the Commonwealth. The programme includes (1) induction to international competition, (2) implementation of health education through sport, (3) promoting women's rights and encouraging sports activities and (4) developing sports programmes for children and youth (Yim, 2014). Interestingly, among the Commonwealth, Canada has played a leading role in carrying out the programme (Kim & Lee, 2009).

The CSLC is a social development programme operated by Commonwealth Sport Canada (CSC) on a voluntary basis and helps develop countries by dispatching sport coaches. The programme mainly supports sport coaching, people with disabilities, physical education, HIV/AIDS and social development projects (Lim, 2014). The CSC is a successor to the CGC, and mainly carrying out SfD programmes in the Commonwealth (CSC, 2021). The CSC has focused on youth leadership development, HIV/AIDS prevention, gender equality, empowerment of women, and sport development for 2 million young people in more than 30 countries (CSC, 2021). Recently, SfD has been used in Canada to develop society within indigenous communities (Sport Canada, 2021). Although financial support is essential, the programme is seeking improvement in health, education, and employability, and positive social outcomes for the reduction of at-risk behaviour (Sport Canada, 2021).

Canada actively supports sport NGOs to help effective activities around the world. For example, the CH financially supported the IDP IWG, which has a responsibility in international development and peace through sport in the UN (Kim & Lee, 2009). The Canadian government assisted Right to Play for play and sports activities of children and communities living in deprived areas. Furthermore, the Ministry of National Defence and the MFA engage in SfD activities that provide sporting goods that are inaccessible in the aftermath of the war for children and help carry out SfD activities harmoniously (Kim & Lee, 2009). In conclusion, Canada's SfD policy and support are currently implemented by the government, and programmes are mainly carried out by the CSC.

2.1.2.7. USA

After the Second World War in 1945, the United States began international development cooperation with Marshall Plan, which rebuilt Europe's infrastructure and provided finance and technology support (United States Agency for International Development [USAID], 2020). In 1961, the USAID was established under an executive order for international development and humanitarian affairs (USAID, 2020). In the 1970s and 1980s, the USAID focused more on human-centred development cooperation, including health, education and human resource development, and then in the 1990s, it focused on sustainable development and democratic expansion. In the 2000s, international development cooperation in the US began supporting government, infrastructure and civil societies that recently experienced war or civil war, such as Afghanistan and Iraq.

The USAID currently provides humanitarian assistance to more than 100 countries around the world to combat poverty and strengthen democracy. Specifically, the USAID has two main objectives: improving the lives of developing countries and promoting the economic and foreign interests of the US (USAID, 2020). The USAID also created the Global Development Alliance (GDA) to promote civilian participation and interest in successful international development cooperation (Park, 2016). GDA aims to increase the effectiveness of international development

cooperation through joint efforts based on the expertise and resources of various actors. Meanwhile, the Advisory Committee on Voluntary Foreign Aid serves as a link between the USAID and private organisations, including universities, NGOs, companies and civil society, contributing to the cooperation between public and private sectors (USAID, 2020).

The USAID basically carries out international development cooperation through sports via partnership with sport organisations and private companies (Park, 2016). It offers a variety of SfD programmes. For example, Fair Play and Fair Programme is an SfD programme to improve violence, health problems and excessive nationalist tendencies among young people in Bosnia and Herzegovina experiencing post-war political and social unrest (USAID, 2020). Implemented from 2014 to 2016, this programme included volleyball, football, table tennis, badminton and basketball (USAID, 2020). In 2017, the USAID also jointly funded the Azerbaijani government to build sports stadiums in regional villages in Azerbaijan, providing children and youth with physical, physiological and social development opportunities (USAID, 2020).

Recently, the USAID carried out an SfD programme for youth with disabilities in Uganda (Blaze Sports, 2020). The programme aimed at improving physical literacy and contributing to the social inclusion of children with physical disabilities through recreation programmes in the community (Blaze Sports, 2020). Meanwhile, the 'Sports Envoy' programme is an activity in which athletes and coaches in the US are sent to developing countries to hold sports clinics and conduct local volunteer activities. The programme is carried out in partnership with the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs, the US Olympic Committee, US Sports Federations and professional leagues (Blaze Sports, 2020). In the US, international development cooperation through sport has been mainly carried out through the USAID, and compared to other countries, it appears that economic and diplomatic interests are emphasised to implement SfD programmes.

2.1.2.8.   Japan

Japan began the ODA through sports in earnest in the 1970s (Okada, 2018). Since sport was considered a part of the culture at that time, sports cooperation was carried out in the form of cultural grants, mainly by providing judo equipment to developing countries or funding the construction of gyms for people with disabilities (Okada, 2018).

In recent years, Japan has actively implemented various SfD programmes (Japan Gov, 2020). The most representative, SFT, is a collection of SfD programmes aiming at hosting and promoting the 2020 Olympics and Paralympic Games in Tokyo, which seeks to share the value of sports with people from all generations around the world (SFT, 2020). Since 2014, Japan has been implementing the programme through public–private cooperation. The programme consists of three main parts, including (1) International Cooperation and Exchange through Sports, (2) the Academy of Sports Leaders for the Training of Future Leaders and (3) Play True 2020 for strengthening integrity through global anti-doping (Japan Gov, 2020). To ensure the success and promotion of the programme, the SFT Consortium was established in 2014. The MFA and Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) play important roles, and many other actors, such as sports companies, individuals, universities, local governments and NGOs, participate in the consortium (Okada, 2018).

The JICA has been involved in international development cooperation through sport in nearly 90 countries since the 1960s. Its sport cooperation policy is divided into three main categories as follows: (1) promote health and socialisation, (2) build social inclusion and peace for all people and (3) strengthen sports competitiveness and promote solidarity with the international community (Okada, 2018). The JICA has actually attempted to realise different values through sports around the world. For example, it promotes 'Sports Day' called 'UndoKai' to 31 countries, including those in Africa, Asia and Latin America, in order to help improve physical education and social education skills through sports activities (Osamu, 2019). Moreover, JICA supports 'Ladies First', which is a women's track and field competition in Tanzania (Osamu, 2019). In general, the programme strives for

women's empowerment and gender equality because they have fewer opportunities to participate in physical activities than do men in developing countries.

Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteers (JOCV) also carries out numerous volunteer programmes around the world, thereby playing a vital role in international development cooperation through sports in Japan (Okada, 2018). The JOCV, which volunteers in a variety of fields, has sent more than 4,000 people to different sport sectors, including judo, baseball and football, for international goodwill and common prosperity as of 2018 (Osamu, 2019). Meanwhile, the Japanese Sports Agency was established to integrate decentralised sport policies, including SfD and Sport development, contributing to the rapid and effective planning, promotion and implementation of sport policies (Okada, 2018). Meanwhile, J-League in Japan is actively carrying out football-related sport development programmes in developing countries as a part of its Asian strategy (Okada, 2018). In addition to sport development, J-League has partnered with NGOs, businesses and the media to carry out SfD programmes in developing countries, such as Thailand, Vietnam, Laos and Sri Lanka, focusing on refugee camps and communities affected by natural disasters.

As such, the Japanese government has recently introduced SfD approach, and has been carrying out SfD programmes in cooperation with various actors. However, Okada (2018) mentioned several problems for the Japanese SfD approach. First, he argued that unlike Europe and the United States, which relatively emphasise the value of Christianity and charity, Japanese people might have different perceptions of why we should provide ODA to developing countries. Similarly, immigration, ethnic conflict, multiculturalism and international development cooperation are not important issues for most Japanese people. In other words, the Japanese people's understanding and interest in the SfD approach still seems to be lacking.

Moreover, Japanese sport culture tend to be lack maturity or diversity compared to other developed countries (Okada, 2018). He predicted that if these improve gradually in the future, a variety of actors, including the Japanese government, research institutes, sport organisations, local governments, professional sport leagues, NGOs and companies would participate enthusiastically in the SfD

programme. Indeed, the SFT programme aims to provide 10 million children in 100 countries with sport-based enjoyment, but the feasibility of the goal is known to be unclear. Therefore, Japan needs to establish a systematic and integrated framework which encompasses finance, cooperation among actors, and the operational aspects of the programme in order to implement an efficient SfD approach.

2.2. Adaptation to South Korea

2.2.1. Sport for Development in South Korea: Three Main Momentums and Actors

It is not surprising that international cooperation and aid were decisive driving forces for the impressive recovery and economic growth of Korea since the Korean War. Based on continuous international exchange, Korea officially turned into a donor country in ODA (Watson, 2012). Currently, Korea responsibly contributes to international cooperation in various ways. The start of international cooperation through sport was traced back to a taekwondo master dispatch programme in 1972 (Ha & Ha, 2016). The project was under the charge of the MFA and National Intelligence Service (NIS), which aimed to disseminate taekwondo to developing countries. These efforts seemed to have only a little value in terms of sport ODA but should be acknowledged as a starting point of international cooperation through sport in Korea.

There were three main momentums by which Korean international sport cooperation turned into existing SfD programmes. Firstly, the KOICA as a government-funded body was established in 1991 to pave the way for international aid in diverse fields (Chun, Munyi & Lee, 2010). Its founding resulted in unifying the process of international aid and contributing to effectively manage the taekwondo master dispatch programme. At that time, the establishment of the KOICA did not directly affect the development of Korea's SfD approach, but it was meaningful in that it contributed greatly to building Korea's international development cooperation system.

Secondly, the UN suggested well-defined and coherent strategies for international cooperation by establishing the MDGs in 2000. To achieve the MDGs, the UN began Sport for Development and Peace programmes in 2001, which emphasised the importance of sport as a vehicle for social development (Coalter, 2007). In line with this international movement, Korea tried to participate in this international movement, within which various programmes have arisen at the national level. In fact, President Roh's government, which began in 2003, international development cooperation through sport has emerged as one of Korea's important sport policies along with elite sport and SFA. Although the concept of SfD approach itself was unfamiliar in Korea at the time, the UN's announcement reminded us of Korea's direction toward international development cooperation through sport.

Thirdly, with joining of the DAC of the OECD in 2010, a friendly atmosphere was created in which to engage in a variety of international programmes related to sport (ODA Korea, 2017). Joining the DAC means that the Korean aid system has grown to meet the strict requirements of the DAC. This raised the demand for fundamental improvement of the ODA policy, and gave justification for stable securing of the ODA budget. In the process, the Korean government named sport ODA and international cooperation programmes through sport SfD programmes.

In terms of the SfD approach in Korea, diverse actors have cooperated with agents and stakeholders in the fields of private corporations and non-profit organisations. The Korean president can be one of the major actors able to present and implement SfD programmes. The Korean political system is based on a presidential system that has a dual executive structure, with the president serving both as head of state and head of government (Kalinowski, Rhyu & Croissant, 2015). The president plays a role in providing direction to cabinet officials and departments regarding national development plans or important agendas in general.

Among sport policies, international sport cooperation and SfD have traditionally been suggested by the policy direction of each president. For example, President Roh Moo-Hyun's administration emphasised international cooperation

through sport in the National Sports Promotion Five-year Plan, leading to practical support to and cooperation with the Korean SfD approach. President Park Geun-Hye likewise directed her cabinet officials to intervene in ODA projects through domestic sport organisations (Lee, 2016). The existing SfD approach in Korea can thus be controlled by the president or by the belief and preference of the administration.

The MCST in charge of the overall sport policy is another important actor in the current Korean SfD approach. At present, the MCST not only arranges budget-related matters but also manages representative SfD programmes, such as Dream Together, PyeongChang Dream and Taekwondo programmes (MCST, 2017a). The department is also responsible for monitoring the Korean SfD policy and programmes to demonstrate commitments for achieving the MDGs and sport ODA. In addition to the MCST, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade (MOFAT) is partially involved in SfD programmes because the KOICA is under the supervision of the Ministry.

In addition, the KSOC and its affiliated national sports federations can be actors to carry on the Korean SfD programmes in cooperation with the MCST. For instance, national sports federations, such as Korea Cycling Federation and Korea Association of Athletics Federations, implement training courses through which sports leaders in developing countries can acquire coaching skills and enhance international cooperation with the Korean sport organisation. In addition, the KSOC implements sport partner programmes as one of the Dream programmes, carrying on sports leader dispatch and equipment support to developing countries.

The KOICA is an important actor of the Korean ODA in many sectors and has led international cooperation since the 1990s. According to a report by The Institute for Global Economics and Social Affairs (2013), the KOICA accredited Sport Corps in 39 countries (597 people). In particular, Taekwondo Corps members play a role in teaching taekwondo to ordinary people and elite sport athletes (Ha & Ha, 2016). In 2006, the KOICA also constructed a sports facility in Indonesia where elite sport athletes and ordinary people can participate in sports activities. Many taekwondo organisations are also actors or stakeholders involved in SfD programmes.

The organisations, especially World Taekwondo Headquarters and World Taekwondo Peace Corps (TPC), strive to help sport cooperation and popularise taekwondo in recipient countries.

Major conglomerates are also directly or indirectly involved in the SfD approach. In 2014, Samsung supported international SfD programmes known as 'I See Your Dream' and 'Copa Samsung' in Africa and the Americas. This backing contributed to not only supporting local community through football but also providing a chance for the youth to participant in sports and educational programmes. Hyundai financially helped homeless people take part in the 2017 Homeless World Cup as an activity to achieve the SDGs of the UN. It is supposed that major conglomerates are concerned with SfD programmes for the purpose of implementing CSR activities and dealing with societal issues. Lastly, Korean SfD programmes have been carried out by hosting mega sporting events, such as the Olympic Games, the Asian Games and the Universiade Games. Naturally, organising committees and local cities were in charge of the SfD programmes, such as Vision 2014 and the Gwangju–UN programme.

In comparison with elite sport and SFA, the planning, managing and governing of Korean SfD seems relatively young and unsophisticated. In fact, many scholars point out that Korean SfD programmes do not fit within the thrust of what the MDGs or SDGs are trying to achieve. While several SfD programmes certainly aim at sport development, this is not the case for SfD approach. Some programmes were also just one-time events. Therefore, middle- and long-term plans should come before SfD programmes are implemented in order to improve the quality of the programme. Furthermore, the needs and demands of recipient countries must be satisfied based on the international SfD approach.

2.2.2. Review of Literature on Sport for Development in South Korea

Research on the SfD approach has increasingly become popular along with the high involvement of global sport organisations and many stakeholders across the world

who consider sports initiatives as a vehicle to maintain international development by implementing sports programmes (Kidd, 2008). Based on the effort of governments, relevant sports networks and sports NGOs, a new area to explore theoretical, political, social and economic implications on the SfD approach has appeared, given that the movement contributes greatly to various issues of marginalised populations within developing countries (Darnell & Black, 2011).

Domestically, many studies have used sports for various developments. In the early days, research focused on social development and economic growth created by hosting mega or local sporting events and carrying out sports programmes. For example, research has been extensive on the impact of hosting sporting events on economic ripple effect or regional development (Cho, 2006; Ko, 2007; Lee & Jung, 2007; Chung, 2008; Kwon, 2010; Kim, 2014). Most of these literatures argued that sporting events have a positive effect on regional development, especially the economic aspect. Yun, Mun and Ju (2011) likewise said that participation in a sports programme for adolescents from low-income families positively affects their self-efficacy and leadership. Hence, the majority of research focused on domestic development by using a quantitative method. The research particularly stressed the fact that sports programmes can lead to a rosy future for social and economic areas.

However, as the purpose and nature of the programmes evolved, the interests and focus of the research of Korean scholars naturally changed over time. Owing to domestic and international causes, the Korean government began turning to international cooperation and development through sport as well as domestic development. In fact, sports diplomacy has been considered equally important in the field of Korean SfD (Na & Dallaire, 2015). In this regard, Kim et al. (2008) recognised that Korea has little sporting influence within international organisations in light of its failure in hosting the Winter Olympics twice. They suggested various policy strategies, one where Korea should improve humanitarian projects through sport in quality, in order to reform a diplomatically advanced country in the context of sport.

Meanwhile, Kim and Lee (2009) explored how Korea can enhance sports diplomacy through sport ODA programmes. They argued that the sport ODA activities of Korea are significantly lower than the scale of economy and sport performance in international competitions, and therefore, it seems necessary to engage actively in sport ODA programmes. For example, they suggested that Korea should participate in international SfD programmes, such as the MDGs' programmes or the Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group (SDPIWG) implemented by Australia, Canada and the UK to seek sports diplomacy. Additionally, they highlighted that these programmes should seek universal values of mankind over national interests. Next, Lee, Kim and Kim (2011) said that Korea should suggest a new paradigm of international cooperation based on a human-centred approach by using the Taekwondo programme, which is one of the Korean cultural products, to enhance sports diplomacy.

Since the mid-2010s, research on how Korea evolved from development of sport to SfD began in earnest. Research related to the SfD approach usually explored how the approach came to be one of the priorities in the area of sports and implicitly evaluates the Korean SfD programmes. Kim and Kwon (2015) analysed existing sport ODA programmes in Korea in view of MDGs and suggested appropriate ways to align with MDGs. They noted that sport ODA programmes in Korea attempt to make a structured system to effectively follow MDGs, but the programmes implemented by the MCST are unsuitable for achieving the eight MDGs proposed by the UN. Finally, Kim and Kwon (2015) suggested that existing sport ODA programmes, such as the Dream programme, should be applied to the goal of achieving universal primary education, which is one of eight purposes in MDGs. They also proposed that MCST needs to plan a project to spread the Korean sports education system and curriculum to developing countries through collaboration with the Ministry of Education.

Ha et al. (2015) pointed out that Korea previously paid little attention to the SfD approach and programmes and is now trying to become an advanced sporting country. They assumed that the SfD programme in Korea can be employed from a welfare perspective. They noted that Korea began to take part in various DTS

programmes internationally and domestically since the establishment of the UN MDGs in 2000 and that joining DAC in the OECD was a critical driving force to prioritise the SfD approach at that time. Sports programmes, such as Sport Class, Eowoolrim Festival and Family Camp, were likewise provided to help people with multicultural backgrounds get used to the Korean community in the middle of the 2000s. Ha et al. (2015) presented several questions on the Korean SfD approach. Among these questions, they especially pointed out that SfD programmes in Korea are mainly designed only for the marginalised groups without socialising with the general public, who would rather promote social exclusion than social inclusion, which is a vital objective for the SfD approach.

Around the same time, Kwon (2015) explored the institutionalisation process, actors, category, achievement, limitation and possibility of the overall SfD approach. Among the diverse terms surrounding the development of sport, he used the term SDP in his article to embrace the peace aspect. Kwon (2015) noted that the institutionalisation process is accelerated by the increase in social significance of SDP and the systematic and positive support at a local, state and global level, including governments, the UN, international sport organisations, MNCs and NGOs.

Various attempts have been made to categorise types or programmes in an effort to understand systematically the rapidly expanding phenomenon related to SDP (Kwon, 2015). For instance, Levermore and Beacom (2009) assorted SDP into six kinds according to the purpose of the programme: (1) conflict resolution and intercultural understanding; (2) building physical, social, sport and community infrastructure; (3) raising awareness, particularly through education; (4) empowerment; (5) direct impact on physical and psychological health as well as general welfare; and (6) economic development and poverty alleviation. Diverse attempts to categorise have been exerted as well, but the most notable part is how much weight is placed on sports activities. The authors raised both possibilities and issues of the SDP area based on previous research. In Fokwang's (2009) study on sport in development, sports programmes can contribute to shaping social capital and building local community cohesion, which lead to sustainable development for the individual and the society. On the other hand, he mentioned some issues, such as the

ambiguity of the concept, the difficulty of evaluation and the Global North-focused way.

Next, Ha and Ha (2016) recognised that Korea has implemented various SfD approaches and attempted to suggest a development plan. Firstly, they argued that the Korean SfD approach should contribute to the social and economic development of recipient country not only to sports development. Secondly, they highlighted the effective cooperation between related organisations. Korea has not had an efficient cooperative system among organisations or agencies for operating sports programmes to conduct international cooperation and development. In fact, KOICA and the Economic Development Cooperation Fund (EDCF) are mainly in charge of the overall international cooperation in Korea while elite sport-centred SfD programmes have been mainly operated by the MCST and the KSOC. Ha and Ha (2016) suggested that through a close cooperation system between sport organisations and aid agencies, such SfD programmes should entail social and economic development and sport development. Thirdly, they mentioned that the quality of SfD programmes needs to be improved through linkages with international organisations. Fourthly, SfD programmes must be completely localised so that the development can be focused on the recipient country to meet its needs.

In addition to the research mentioned above, several studies have been carried out on SfD programmes related to Taekwondo, which is a traditional sport and a martial arts in Korea. Since the 1970s, Korea has tried to spread Taekwondo for sport development all over the world, and Taekwondo has already become a world-class sport recognised for its educational and sports value, forming a global infrastructure (Park, 2016). Unlike other sports, Taekwondo has the advantage of high accessibility, that is, anyone can participate regardless of the equipment or place, which means it would be efficient as a tool for international development.

In this regard, Park, Kim and Koo (2018) explored the current status and problems of Kukkiwon's ODA programme and found some ways to effectively lead the programme. Drawing from proposed issues, they suggested that the programme should improve its quality, extend the number of curriculums and further cooperate

with relevant organisations to share know-how and knowledge. Oh (2018) also suggested the development plan of international cooperation and development through Taekwondo. He recommended dividing the programme activities related to Taekwondo into four areas, namely invited training, professional dispatch, supporting Taekwondo goods and building infrastructure. He pointed out that the problems of the programmes include biased support to the diffusion of Taekwondo, underestimating business performance and focusing on elite sport development. In terms of the development plan, Oh (2018) suggested the development of various programmes, establishment of a cooperative system among related organisations to prevent the implementation of similar or duplicate programmes and use of Taekwondo star players to promote programmes and increase participation in the programme.

As a result, most research in Korea has focused on figuring out some problems and the current status and evaluating whether or not the programmes coincide with the international SfD approach; in turn, the research suggested the long-term direction and improvement plan. On the basis of the problems raised in existing research, scholars have proposed three main suggestions for the implementation of the SfD programme in Korea.

Firstly, it would be necessary to cooperate with related agencies to improve the quality of the SfD programmes. Such cooperation could lead to extending a type of the programme away from monotonous human dispatch and supporting sports equipment and goods. Moreover, cooperating with one another could properly consider both sport and development aspects. Secondly, scholars argued that the SfD programme should be carried out from a humanitarian perspective, in line with the MDGs and SDGs suggested by the UN. To achieve this, the programme needs to prioritise the needs of recipient countries, be carried out locally for the benefit of many people and turn the elite sport-centred approach for development of sport into an SFA-centred approach. Lastly, it would be necessary to participate in multilateral efforts on international development through sport. This move could effectively implement the programme, which seems difficult to conduct in limited geographic environments and resources.

2.2.3. Sport for Development Programmes in South Korea

Korea often implements the SfD approach through various programmes. As stated above, the Taekwondo master dispatch programme in 1972 was considered the beginning of the international cooperation through sport in Korea (Ha & Ha, 2016). Next, the founding of the KOICA and joining the DAC accelerated international sport cooperation and sport ODA, which appear in the form of the SfD approach to fulfil the calls of the international community, such as the MDGs and SDGs.

Thus far, various SfD-oriented programmes have been carried out to achieve domestic and international development. Several scholars have mentioned the general features of the programmes. Dream Together Master (DTM) Programme is known as a representative SfD programme in Korea (Ha et al., 2015; Ha & Ha, 2016). Since 2013, the programme has offered a Master's degree in Sport Management by selecting employees in sport organisations in developing countries or athletes who have experienced the Olympics and international competitions. The programme is aimed at sport ODA activities to become a truly advanced sports country, enhance national branding and implement the MDGs.

PyeongChang Dream Programme is another SfD activity in Korea (Kim & Kwon, 2015; Ha & Ha, 2016). The programme is directly related to the 2018 Winter Olympic Games. Since 2004, it has been seeking to provide winter sports and cultural experiences to the young generation in developing countries that do not have access to snow and ice. The programme is an ongoing project among SfD programmes for international cooperation. In addition to the Dream programme, the Vision 2014 Programme was related to a mega sporting event, the 2014 Incheon Asian Games. This programme was designed to support the know-how and material and human resources accumulated in the international stage for those who do not have or have won few medals in the Asian Games among the members of the Olympic Council of Asia (OCA). Meanwhile, the 2015 Gwangju–UN SfD programme was hosted through Gwangju Universiade. The SfD forum in the programme could help young people recognise that sport could be a vehicle of self-realisation and a driving force for social inclusion and development. Furthermore, Youth Leadership Programme is aimed at cultivating the leadership of participants through sports activities, especially

by helping them to have the capacity to enlighten society after returning to their home country.

Moreover, there are several SfD-oriented programmes through Taekwondo (Kim & Kwon, 2015). The MCST is financially supporting relevant organisations, such as Kukkiwon, World Taekwondo Federation (WT) and TPC, to provide teachers, volunteer groups and Taekwondo equipment and goods. Among these organisations, the TPC spent the most budget of the MCST on Taekwondo ODA programmes. After the president of the WT announced the idea of the Sports Peace Volunteer Corps to the international community in 2007, the Taekwondo Peace Volunteer Corps was soon established in 2008. Since then, the Corps has sought to spread Taekwondo and the Korean culture to developing countries and countries that need a strategic cooperation in order to achieve various purposes.

The Korean government directly operates the programme and project related to the part of sport through government agencies (Kim & Kwon, 2015; Ha & Ha, 2016). The KOICA has been dispatching volunteers in the sports sector since 1990. The largest number of volunteers was dispatched to Taekwondo, which mainly educate local athletes and sometimes perform Taekwondo training activities for the general public. In addition, the KOICA carried out a support project for the construction of a sports centre in Indonesia (Ha & Ha, 2016). The facility was built in 2006 and has been employed as a place of SFA for local residents and for training athletes of national teams in Taekwondo and other sports. In addition to these programmes, the Korea Paralympic Committee (KPC) has implemented or participated in diverse programmes, such as the sport ODA programme between Korea and Cambodia, the Winter Time Dream Programme, the Summer Time KPC sports camp and a cooperation programme with the International Paralympic Committee (IPC).

In this regard, Kim and Kwon (2015) pointed out that existing SfD programmes in Korea seem to be weighted towards sport-centred programmes supporting the development of sport, sports facilities, performance and elite sport and athletes. In other words, Korean SfD programmes have traditionally focused on

the Sport Plus approach suggested by Coalter (2007). Sport Plus refers to an action that often concentrates on the development of sport but sometimes pursues social effects embedded in sports activities. Moreover, Korean SfD programmes seem to be close to the purpose of 'Building physical, social, sport and community infrastructure', which is one of the six categories for SfD programmes argued by Levermore and Beacom (2009) and similar to the traditional 'development of sport' suggested by Kidd (2008), which includes sports coaching and supporting sports goods and infrastructure.

3. Politics, Economy, Social Change and International Development Cooperation in South Korea

To comprehensively and historically understand the SfD phenomenon in Korea, this chapter explores the transition and development process of the political, economic, cultural and social aspects in Korea since the 1960s. Korea has developed over the past 60 years by experiencing various historical events, such as dictatorship, coup d'etat, democratisation, IMF bailout, and participation in the G7. This chapter helps comprehensive and historical understanding of the beginning of the SfD phenomenon in Korea.

3.1. President Park's Military Dictatorship (1961–1979)

3.1.1. Politics: Dictatorship and Authoritarian Years

The April 19 revolution, which called for political and social changes caused by the March 15 electoral corruption in 1960, led to the resignation of President Syngman Rhee. The National Assembly amended the parliamentary cabinet system and the bicameral system to be the centre of the power structure. Under the Constitution, general elections were held to form the cabinet of John Myeon from the Democratic Party (DP). The DP regime sought to establish a state founded on industries through its economic development plan based on liberal political ideology. However, it failed to show political leadership because of internal political conflict and respond appropriately to the demands of all levels of society, which erupted in the wake of the April 19 revolution (Chung, 2014). Finally, the DP and Myeon's cabinet were seized by military rebel forces committed to Park Chung-hee. Park Chung-hee staged a coup d'état in 1961 and held power for 18 years until 1979.

After about two years of the military government system, Park Chung-hee was elected president in 1963, which meant that the Third Republic was officially inaugurated. The Third Republic launched a strong presidential system based on the belief that the unstable parliamentary cabinet system in the Second Republic would not solve social unrest and economic problems. Under the revision bill, the president

could appoint the prime minister and cabinet members without the recommendation or consent of the National Assembly. In addition, some politicians opposed to the regime were banned from political activities, and students, faculty members, employees of government-run enterprise, civil servants, soldiers and labour leaders were prohibited from having any political affiliation, thereby creating favourable conditions for coup-driven forces (Oh, 1999). The Third Republic completed an authoritarian regime that concentrated all power on the president.

With the country's economic growth, President Park won the presidential election in 1967 and for the second straight time in 1971. However, he barely won the third election in 1971 due to public backlash and concerns over his long-term presidential ambitions (Chung, 2014). In 1972, President Park declared the Fourth Republic regime. Specifically, the Park regime declared emergency martial law in October 1972 under the pretext of changing the situation at home and abroad as well as because of the security crisis following North Korea's storming of the Korean presidential residence and US President Nixon's 1969 declaration of the 'Nixon Doctrine' (Kim, 2019).

Owing to the emergency martial law, which included the Park regime considering all forms of strikes as illegal, any criticism of the regime could be considered a violation of national security (Woo-Cumings, 2001). The president also appointed one-third of lawmakers and all judges and had the right to dissolve the National Assembly. In particular, the three powers of legislation, justice and administration all adopted a one-man, which meant that permanent dictatorship was focused on the president. The October 26, 1979 assassination incident and the unrelenting resistance to the dictatorship of people who aspired for democracy virtually ended the system of the Fourth Republic.

3.1.2. Economy: Industrialisation through Economic Development Plan

In the 1960s, the per capita GNI of Korea was 79 dollars, making it one of the poorest countries in the world. Today, Korea is the sixth largest export powerhouse in the world and has been a member of the OECD since 1996, which indicates its status as an advanced country (Kim, 2017). Ironically, such spectacular economic development began under the authoritarian and dictatorship-centred government of Park Chung-hee. The Five-year Economic Development Plan began in 1962, a year after power was seized through a military coup, and was pushed to the fourth round (Oh, 2014). The Park administration promoted government-led and export-oriented growth strategies based on fostering and supporting large conglomerates.

The basic goal of the First Five-year Economic Development Plan from 1962 to 1966 was to come out of the dependence on overseas aid and lay the foundation for the independent growth and industrialisation of the Korean economy (Park, 2009). The main goals of the Plan included (1) securing energy sources, such as electricity and coal; (2) improving structural imbalances in the economy by increasing agricultural productivity; (3) upgrading basic industries and social overhead capital infrastructure; (4) improving international balance of payments by increasing exports; and (5) promoting technology. Basically, the plan sought to develop light industries and national infrastructure-oriented industries to form the foundation for economic development. As a result, economic growth rate at that time was about 7.8%, and the GNI increased to 126 dollars per capita (Park, 2009).

While the first Plan focused on preparing the conditions for industrialisation, the second Plan from 1967 to 1971 strove to strengthen the foundation for industrialisation. The Plan was mainly aimed at promoting exports, lowering tariffs and easing import restrictions with the purpose of external industrialisation. Kang (2000) summarised the six main objectives of the second Plan, including (1) development of food self-sufficiency and fisheries; (2) development of chemical, steel and machinery industries; (3) achievement of 700 million dollars in exports; (4) promotion of a family plan for controlling population expansion; (5) improvement of income from agriculture; and (6) enhancement of productivity through the promotion of science and technology. During this period, export industries, such as

synthetic fibre, petroleum, chemicals and electrical equipment, contributed to the growth, and much of the Plan was financed by active foreign investment. As a result, the Korean economy grew 9.6% annually during the second phase of the Plan (Chung, 2014).

The third Plan continued the efforts to promote sustained industrial growth. It fostered heavy and chemical industries and reduced the dependence on imports of capital goods, laying the foundation for the economy's self-reliance (Oh, 2014). The third Plan mainly included (1) expanding facilities and welfare in agriculture and fishing industries, (2) improving the international balance of payments, (3) improving the construction of heavy and chemical industries, (4) improving science and technology and expanding educational facilities and (5) improving the welfare and quality of life of the people (Kang, 2000). At that time, the Saemaul Movement for rural development began, and a large-scale industrial park was formed to modernise the industrial structure. In spite of the Nixon Shock in 1971 and the oil crisis in 1973, Korea recorded an annual growth rate of 8.6% based on foreign capital investment, export-oriented policies and a booming construction business in the Middle East (Oh, 2014).

The fourth Plan was aimed at establishing a self-growth structure and innovation (Kang, 2000). In particular, it was intended to set up goals by collecting various opinions from experts compared to previous government-led plans. Although the global recession in the late 1970s and the second oil crisis were difficult to overcome, the Korean economy grew 5.8% on average, overcoming the crisis well.

There are various factors in the rapid economic development of the Park administration. For example, the successful conclusion of the Korea–Japan Normalisation Treaty played a crucial role in securing the necessary funds for economic development (Kim, 1999). Based on this treaty, an export-oriented economic structure was established by investing in the heavy and chemical industries and fostering them. This noticeable economic development could have happened because of the authoritarian government, but more importantly, it seemed possible owing to the exploitation and sacrifice of workers.

3.1.3. Culture and Society: Urbanisation and Human Rights Violation

In the 1960s and 1970s, the authoritarian government of Park Chung-hee continued its dictatorship for 18 years, leading to government-led industrialisation. In this atmosphere, new and various social and cultural phenomena also emerged. The main examples include urbanisation, the Saemaul Movement and oppression of human rights and labour.

Industrialisation resulted in the quantitative expansion of modern cities because a large number of rural populations moved to the cities. As a result, the urban population exceeded the rural population, and more than half of the total population lived in metropolitan areas. In addition to urbanisation, this trend led to overpopulation, a decrease in the rural population, a slump in local cities, housing shortages and traffic problems. The phenomenon might have stemmed from the fact that government-led industrialisation concentrated on large cities, especially Seoul and its neighbours (Song, 1990).

Industrialisation also brought about many changes in family, population and job structure. The traditional social structure, which used agriculture and land as a means of production, increased opportunities for various career choices and especially affected families, which are the basic structure of society (Park, 1996). The family structure became a nuclear family, and the average life span of the people was extended because of increased living standards and medical benefits, which in turn gradually increased the proportion of the elderly population. In terms of job structure, job diversification was achieved as the share of secondary and tertiary industries increased over that of primary industries, especially agriculture and fisheries.

In the 1970s, Park's administration launched the Saemaul Movement to develop rural areas, which were underdeveloped compared to cities. The movement was a campaign to live well, combining the people's desire to escape from poverty with the will of the nation to push for a modernisation of the motherland (NAK, 2019). Specifically, the movement began founded on the spirit of diligence, self-help and cooperation and actually helped improve rural life. In the early days, the

movement began in the form of business and then developed into a pan-national movement that spread to cities to change people's lifestyles and raise their sense of community (NAK, 2019). However, some critics said that the Saemaul Movement played a role in monitoring rural areas and even resulted in worsening the autonomy of rural communities and eliminating traditional cultural heritages.

Another typical social phenomenon during the authoritarian era was that the press and individual human rights were thoroughly suppressed and labour was not respected. Shortly after the 5.16 coup in 1961, the National Daily, one of the liberal newspapers, was shut down and the president was executed. A year later, the government shut down 1,200 periodicals and merged 90% of media outlets in the name of pseudo-journalists and media organisations (Seong, 2018). Later in the 1970s, Park's administration tried to gag the people by invoking the right to take emergency measures and maintained its dictatorship through a reign of terror though surveillance and punishment (Chae, 2016).

In particular, the government violated human rights by taking advantage of the Cold War and the period of the inter-Korean confrontation. The autonomy of individuals and civil society was ignored, and a system of directives was established solely by the state, pro-government groups and individuals. In this atmosphere, the struggle for the right to survive and the demand of workers and peasants for basic rights were, if not largely ignored, then considerably suppressed and denounced as communist yearnings and praise. As a whole, the social and cultural policies of this period were strongly used as tools for economic development and legitimising the regime.

3.1.4. International Development Cooperation: Economic Development through International Aid

Although Korea was one of the poorest countries in the world in the 1960s, it was both a donor and a recipient country in international development cooperation (ODA Korea, 2017). The Foreign Capital Inducement Promotion Act was enacted in 1960,

which enabled the Korean government to attract foreign capital from many advanced countries in addition to the US (ODA Korea, 2017). Various types of development cooperation projects, including technical cooperation and credit assistance, were carried out in the 1960s and 1970s while the portion of grant aid, especially emergency relief and strategic military aid, was significantly higher (ODA Korea, 2017).

The 1960s and 1970s were a transition period for the government-led economic structure of Korea, which received economic aid centred on development credit from advanced countries. Since the second economic development Plan, loans were introduced in earnest, and in the third and fourth rounds, foreign loans for the cost of upgrading the heavy and chemical industries rapidly increased (ODA Korea, 2017). In addition, project aid and capital goods support were provided to build social overhead facilities, foster strategic export and import replacement industries. These aids and support were used in the construction of the Gyeongbu Expressway and Pohang Iron and Steel Co., which has become a major foundation for industrialisation and economic growth. Accordingly, development loans were an important resource that led to dramatic economic growth during Park's administration.

Korea officially gained donor status in the 2000s, though it has been working as an aid donor country since 1963. In 1963, Korea launched a project to invite trainees from developing countries through the USAID (ODA Korea, 2017). In 1965, it used domestic funds to carry out the same project, which is considered as the first ODA project in Korea (ODA Korea, 2017). Since then, international development cooperation has been carried out in various fields, including the dispatch of experts and medical teams. At that time, most of Korea's ODA cooperation was mainly funded by international organisations, such as the UN, and their scale was very small. However, rapid economic growth and increased demand for ODA led to Korea's active development cooperation. In particular, with the aid budget of 90 million dollars first secured by the Foreign Ministry in 1977, Korea became fully engaged in international development cooperation (ODA Korea, 2017). At this time, the development loans of developed countries were a huge foundation for domestic

economic growth, and at the same time, Korea cooperated as a donor country in the international community.

3.2. Turning Point in Korean History (1980–1997)

3.2.1. Politics: From Military Dictatorship to Civilian Government

Following the sudden death of President Park Chung-hee on October 26, 1979, Prime Minister Choi Kyu-ha took over as president under the Constitution. However, he failed to control the military power, which has been the key power since Park's regime, resulting in a military coup on December 12, 1979 (Lee, 2011). Chun Doo-hwan, who seized power, expanded emergency steps across the country and suppressed the 5.18 Democratic Movement that broke out in 1980. The Movement called for the ouster of new military forces, including Chun, and the abolition of martial law, which sought to extend the illegal regime-maintaining system. In the process, the new military power drove citizens' resistance to left-wing forces under North Korean command, whose soldiers brutally murdered citizens (Lee, 2011).

Chun Doo-hwan was later elected president on September 1, 1980, and the following year, the Fifth Republic officially began (Kim, 2019). Chun abolished the Yushin Constitution and revised the presidential term to seven years. In particular, he defined the Park regime as an era of injustice and corruption, and the Fifth Republic declared that it seeks to promote a just society. However, just like during Park's regime, Chun's administration strengthened its dictatorial power by exercising absolute power over the National Assembly and political parties and restricting key politicians from engaging in politics. In fact, it was a time when national public power was the ugliest instrumentalised regime in the history of Korean politics along with anti-communism (Kim, 2013). Nevertheless, the opposition parties and opposition movement forces strengthened their aspirations and struggles for a direct presidential election and democratisation in 1985 (Oh, 1999). This led to the June Democratic Struggle, and eventually, Roh Tae-woo, who was the presidential candidate of the ruling party, promised the direct election system, guaranteed public

election campaigns, pardoned political prisoners and ensured press freedom through the June 29 Declaration in 1987 (Chung, 2014).

Owing to the split of democratic forces, Roh Tae-woo, a former military veteran, was elected president in a direct presidential election following the June Democratic Movement. However, in the general election held the following year, the ruling party faced difficulties in its early days as it failed to win a majority of seats for the first time in its history. At that time, Roh's administration accepted the demand of the opposition to hold a hearing on the irregularities of the previous administration (Kim, 2019). Such measures were able to strengthen the legitimacy of the regime by highlighting its differentiation from the past government and were in line with President Roh Tae-woo's political interests (Lim, 2015).

Although the government seemed better than the previous administration, the public still raised the fact that President Roh was from the military and therefore continued to demand true democracy (Kim, 2013). To overcome the political instability, in 1990, the ruling party merged with two main opposition parties to create a stable political base, accounting for more than 70% of the total seats (Kim, 2019). Meanwhile, at the end of the administration, the local autonomy system was revived by accepting demands from opposition parties and civic society groups. Roh's administration was still regarded as an extension of the military power, but it showed the potential for the development of Korean democracy and laid the foundation for a solid settlement.

Later, in the presidential election held in December 1992, Kim Young-sam, who advocated the slogan 'New Korea Construction', was elected as president (Park, 2014). Under the aforementioned President Roh, the three-party merger had a decisive impact on Kim's victory. The Roh administration was in a transition period to a democratic system, but the emergence of Kim's administration meant the establishment of a democratic political system and the restoration of democracy (Kim, 2019). Kim's administration finally ended the authoritarian and dictatorial regimes that had lasted for about 30 years. In this context, people expected the administration to address various economic and social problems that have

accumulated for a long period of time. For example, the introduction of the real-name financial transaction system was a revolutionary reform of the financial system, which in turn contributed greatly to severing the link between political, economic and social corruption.

In addition, the government implemented reforms to strengthen the morality of public officials by making it mandatory for major public officials to register their assets. President Kim likewise dismantled the private organisation of military forces, which were still very powerful, to completely withdraw from political power (Kim, 2019). Kim's administration made improving its authoritarian political culture and building 'New Korea' as its national goals. Moreover, President Kim ordered a thorough investigation into the coup and the massacre of the people, along with a slush fund probe into two previous administrations, leading to the arrest of the two former presidents (Park, 2014). Indeed, Kim's administration greatly contributed to the eradication of corruption and political democratisation. However, as seen in the collusion between the president's son and conglomerates, the imperial and authoritarian political culture of an excessive concentration of power on the president still remained.

3.2.2. Economy: Rapid Economic Growth, but National Bankruptcy

Owing to the aftermath of excessive economic development, the death of President Park in 1979 and the second oil crisis, the economic growth rate at the start of the Chun administration was -5.2% and consumer price inflation at nearly 40%; the country was on the verge of a national economic collapse (Kim, 2015). In response, the Chun administration wanted to break away from the high-growth stance of the previous administration and reform the economy through a free market economy led by the private sector.

The government announced the Fifth Five-year Economic and Social Development Plan from 1982 to 1986. The main points included price stability and revitalisation of market competition. Strong measures such as freezing the salaries

of civil servants, curbing wage and inflation and lowering interest rates were high-strength policies that could not have been taken without authoritarian regimes (Amsden, 1990). Thanks to these policies, the Korean economy was solidly structured during Chun's administration, including a surplus in the current account balance and the self-reliance of investment funds. In fact, the economy grew at an average rate of 8.7% during this period, and the GNI per capita exceeded 3,700 dollars in 1988 (Park, 2008; Cho, 2019). However, the market opening policy of the government provided favourable conditions for conglomerates, which made the Korean economy more dependent on them. The rural economy was also severely damaged by the liberalisation of imports and caused the establishment of hostile labour–management relations (Kim, 2015).

In terms of Roh's administration, the Sixth Economic and Social Development Plan set the basic goals for advancing the economy and promoting the welfare of the people. In particular, Roh's administration focused on establishing an order for a market economy based on autonomy, competition and openness; improving income distribution; and reforming the industrial structure through high-tech sectors in order to cope with the overall economic instability caused by economic pressure from advanced countries, labour–management conflicts and real-estate speculation (Kim, 2015). Furthermore, the government sought to implement economic democratisation to correct the inequalities that conglomerates usually caused (Kwon, 2007). As a result, the economic growth rate averaged 8.4%, and the unemployment rate was 2.5%, which led to job security (Shin, 2013). However, the policy focused on high growth was criticised by experts at that time. Since 1990, exports had been sluggish and the current balance had been in the red (Kwon, 2007). Although Roh's administration maintained a high economic growth rate throughout its term, the Korean economy was sharply slowing in 1992, and soon power was handed over to the Kim Young-sam administration.

As soon as he took office, Kim Young-sam put forward two economic policies to resolve the difficulties of the economic situation. First of all, the 100-day New Economy Plan focused on economic recovery rather than economic reform, including interest rate reduction, early fiscal execution and inducement of corporate

investment (MK, 1993). Next, the Five-year Plan for the new economy was aimed at strengthening the competitiveness of businesses, developing balance and promoting internationalisation of the economy based on autonomy and competition. However, the 100-day Plan stalled and was not implemented properly because it conflicted with the Five-year Plan (Kim, 2015).

In addition, the introduction of a one-sided competition system between companies caused polarisation between conglomerates and small- and medium-sized companies. Of course, there were many people who thought that the Korean economy was finally ranked among advanced countries because the GNI per capita exceeded 10,000 dollars and the country joined the OECD in 1996 (Hankyung, 2019). However, economic growth continued to slow down and conglomerates began to go bankrupt in 1997. Kim's administration failed to recognise the danger signs of various economic situations at the national and international levels and eventually requested a bailout from the International Monetary Fund (IMF) in December 1997. This move resulted in bankruptcies and management crises in many companies as well as increased income disparity and polarisation in the wake of mass layoffs.

3.2.3. Culture and Society: Massive Changes through Democratisation

Between 1980 and 1997, Korea faced huge social and cultural changes. During this period, the democratic, labour, farmers and unification movements were actively carried out along with the political change from the military regime to the civilian government. The rise in people's income and high education levels led to a desire for social change and a better quality of life.

Ironically, the Fifth Republic of Chun Doo-hwan showed an outward attitude to ensure the basic rights of the people in order to quell public criticism over the legitimacy of the regime in the coup. For example, new clauses such as prohibiting the guilt by association system, the pursuit of happiness, privacy rights and environmental rights were created in the Constitution (Cho, 2016). In addition, numerous regulations were lifted, including the lifting of the curfew, the

liberalisation of school uniforms and the revitalisation of the professional sports industry. Colour TV and broadcasts were carried out during this period as well, and the so-called 3S policies, referring to screen, sports and sex policies, were actively implemented. These policies were considered a form of civilisation policy to distract people from politics. In fact, Chun's administration focused its efforts on hosting the Olympics and launching professional sports as a means of stabilising the regime even when the GNI per capita was less than 2,000 dollars.

Similar to previous administrations, the media was also dominated by surveillance and control. The government thought that the mass media was the most effective means of forming and manipulating public opinion to conform to the political system (Park, 2014). Meanwhile, anti-government protests continued throughout the administration, especially in 1987 when university students Park Jong-chul and Lee Han-yeol were killed through illegal torture and tear gas by the regime. As a result, opposition parties, civic groups, academia and religious circles staged protests for democracy nationwide, which led to the establishment of a democratic system. The Chun administration tried to mislead the people by any means necessary to hide the inherent limitation of the regime, but the desire for change in various fields was growing.

In 1988, Roh Tae-woo in his inauguration speech declared that the era of democratic reform and national reconciliation should be opened (JoongAng, 1988). The government sought to eliminate authoritarianism and transform itself into a democratic government. In this context, Roh's administration pushed for the liberalisation of the press and political satire was allowed in earnest (Cho, 2016). As a result, Freedom House in the US gave it the status of 'Freedom of Press' in 1990 (Lim, 2012). In the same vein, the government conducted a large-scale reinstatement and dismissal of opposition figures in the democratic camp, honouring personalities such as former President Yoon Bo-sun, Ham Seok-hun and Jang Joon-ha as senior members of Korea (Cho, 2016).

Since the mid-1980s, women have become more active in entering society (Lee, 2014). The demand for gender equality at home and in society became stronger,

and the advancement of women into professional and office positions steadily increased. To support this movement, the Equal Employment of Men and Women Act was enacted in 1987 and the Family Act was revised in 1991, which respectively allowed women to exercise their rights to property and children equally with men.

After the 1987 Democracy Movement, labour movements and civic groups were highly active compared to the previous governments. Many trade unions were launched at this time, and demonstrations and rallies were frequently held to improve the labour environment and treatment. From this period, civic groups played an important role in solving various social problems, including ensuring democratisation of politics, monitoring state power, practicing economic justice, protecting consumers and protecting the environment (Kim, 2007). The activities of these civic groups provided social checks on the government and businesses, thereby boosting the political and social participation of citizens.

In the 1990s, individual lives quickly changed amid the flow of democratisation, digitisation and globalisation. In particular, the spread of the Internet had a huge impact on popular culture. Kim Young-sam's administration pushed for a symbolic and practical cultural policy to end the military culture and authoritarianism of the past and create a democratic atmosphere (PA, 2019a). Kim's administration recognised culture as an object for the people to enjoy and established a five-year plan for creating a new Korean culture (PA, 2019a). The main point included establishing national spirit, enhancing cultural creativity and developing cultural industry and globalisation of culture.

The civilian government likewise took symbolic steps to enhance the legitimacy of the nation. To achieve the regime's overall goal of building a new Korea, the Kim administration began to get rid of remnants of the Japanese colony (PA, 2019a). For example, it demolished the Japanese Governor-General of Korea which is the main symbol of the colony, and changed the Japanese regional name to Korean (MCST, 1997). Meanwhile, civic groups strengthened their roles of cooperation and checks against the government since Kim's administration. During this period, the civilian government that sought a reform-minded line implicitly

supported the expansion of civil society. Civic groups actually played an active role in the government's reform measures, such as the real-name financial system and the eradication of real estate speculation (Moon, 2003). Various cultures were formed in the activities of civil society, such as activating civic participation, expanding public concern, building networks and developing civic movements.

3.2.4. International Development Cooperation: From A Recipient Country to A Donor Country

In the 1980s, the amount of aid to Korea from the international community decreased overall compared to before. In addition, donor countries and organisations broadened to include Japan, Germany, the US, the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development and the Asian Development Bank (ODA Korea, 2017). The 1990s was a time when Korea shifted from being an aid recipient to a pure aid donor. On the back of sustained and stable economic growth, Korea became an original graduate of the World Bank in 1995 (ODA Korea, 2017).

On the other hand, ODA activities as donor countries were more active in the 1980s. In 1984, the Ministry of Construction started the free construction technology service project, and the Ministry of Labour expanded the ODA support sector by launching a project to support the establishment of vocational training centres (ODA Korea, 2017). Given that the economic structure of Korea was heavily dependent on foreign trade, export growth and economic interests in developing countries supported the need to strengthen and cooperate with developing countries through the ODA (MOFAT, 2019).

In response to this situation, the Korean government established a systematic aid structure, starting with the establishment of special agencies dedicated to ODA activities. In 1987, the Ministry of Finance and Economy contributed about 30 million to establish the EDCF, and in 1991, it established the KOICA as an agency dedicated to well-organised cooperation (ODA Korea, 2017). Furthermore, the Korea Overseas Youth Volunteer Group programme was launched in 1989, and the

Act on International Cooperation Agents was enacted in 1994 to provide a basis for prospective military enlistees to do overseas volunteer work (ODA Korea, 2017). Finally, in the mid-1990s, the number and size of ministries participating in the ODA project increased as the status of Korea increased along with its entry to the OECD and the per capita GNI passing 10,000 dollars. When Korea joined the OECD in 1996, it was the first among newly developing countries to become an OECD member.

3.3. 10 Years of Progressive Governments (1998–2007)

3.3.1. Politics: Development of Political Democracy

Kim Dae-jung was elected president in the presidential election in late 1997. President Kim devoted himself to democracy and human rights, and for about 30 years, he was under surveillance and received persecution from the military dictator. Although the victory was a result of the unity and coalition with Kim Jong-pil, who was one of the key figures of the dictatorial regime, the election was considered the first peaceful transfer of power between the ruling and opposition parties in the history of Korea.

Kim's administration proposed several national political agenda, especially the development of democracy and a market economy, productive welfare, political reform, peace implementation between the two Koreas and overcoming the national financial crisis that occurred just before he took office (Kwon, Seo & Heo, 2012). Specifically, the government suggested practical tasks, such as reform of overall state affairs, overcoming economic difficulties, realisation of national harmony and safeguarding law and order. Kim's government was moderately successfully in overcoming the financial crisis based on a neoliberal economic crisis and created a foundation for the welfare state (Do, 2019).

In addition to coping with the national financial crisis well, one of the most remarkable achievements of Kim's administration was pushing for exchanges and cooperation and seeking reconciliation with North Korea. On the basis of the so-

called Sunshine Policy for reconciliation and cooperation with North Korea, both countries pursued peaceful reunification through exchanges and cooperation (Kwon et al., 2012). In June 2000, the first inter-Korean summit took place since the division of the Korean Peninsula. This summit played a role in easing the tension between the two Koreas and achieving cooperation in various areas, including the Mount Kumgang tour and reunion of separated families in the North Korean region (Lee, 2009). Recognised for his huge efforts for democracy, human and peace, President Kim received the Nobel Peace Prize in October 2000 (JoongAng, 2000). However, the coalition government with Kim Jong-pil was dissolved in 2001, and various government-level scandals and corruption cases occurred at the end of President Kim's term, which led to a lame duck presidency. Nevertheless, his efforts to overcome the foreign exchange crisis through chaebol reform and restructuring are considered positive.

The Roh administration was next inaugurated in 2003. It has three main policies, including 'Democracy with the people', 'The balanced society living together' and 'The era of peace and prosperity in Northeast Asia (Roh Foundation, 2008). During his term, Roh strove to create a fair and clean political culture to practice the spirit of the times. The Roh government also planned to transfer the power and functions concentrated in the central government and the capital Seoul to provincial areas by establishing plans for decentralisation, construction of innovative cities and relocation of the administrative capital (Roh Foundation, 2008).

In addition, major political and personnel reforms took place during this period. The Progressive Democratic Labour Party succeeded in entering the National Assembly since the proportional representation system was first introduced through the revision of the election law as well as tried to create a transparent political culture by revising the Political Funds Act. In 2005, confirmation hearings for high-ranking government officials were expanded and, consequently, a participatory personnel management system was established on the basis of fairness, professionalism and morality. Meanwhile, President Roh visited North Korea in October 2007 and held the second inter-Korean summit, focusing on expanding inter-Korean reconciliation and cooperation to economic cooperation.

However, hostile relations with mainstream opposition parties and the media continued throughout his term, and even later, the government was at odds with liberal civic groups due to differences in policy-oriented routes. In particular, President Roh was temporarily suspended in March 2004 after being impeached by the National Assembly on the grounds of violating political neutrality. The government also failed to proceed with four reform bills, namely the National Security Law, the Private School Law, the Truth-finding Act on the Past and the Press-related Act, thus revealing the limitations of the government (Seong, 2015). Although Roh's administration received much criticism from both liberals and conservatives during his term, he was said to lay down his vested interests and rights to spread political reform and democratic development.

3.3.2. Economy: Overcoming Financial Crisis and Stagnation

Kim Dae-jung's administration basically sought a parallel development of democracy and market economy and pursued a neoliberalistic economic ideology (Kim, 2015). The principles of economic policy guarantee economic freedom, market competition, equal opportunities in economic activities and a non-discriminatory market for both Koreans and foreigners (Kwon, 2007). As mentioned above, Kim's administration was inaugurated along with the worst financial crisis. In this context, President Kim was granted all the rights to overcome the economic crisis. During this period, the four main reforms in finance, labour, business and public sectors were carried out in a strong manner to strengthen national competitiveness (MCST, 1999). Corporate restructuring was centred on business exchanges between conglomerates in seven major sectors, such as oil refining, petrochemicals and semi-conductors. The financial structure reform included removing insolvent financial institutions, funding viable financial institutions, restructuring the financial industry and enhancing the stability of the financial system (MCST, 1999).

In addition, the Labour Standard Act was amended to secure flexibility in the labour market through consultation between the Korea Tripartite Commission of

labour, management and government, and zones for freedom of foreign investment were established to promote foreign investment (MCST, 1999). Thanks to such efforts, Korea was freed from the financial crisis in 2001 by fully repaying the 19.5 billion dollars it had borrowed from the IMF (Yoon, Choi & Hong, 2009). The economic growth rate rose from -6.9% in the first year of Kim's administration to 7.2% in 2002, and the government recorded a surplus in the balance of trade and the current account surplus (Yoon et al., 2009). However, some criticised that the complete opening of the financial and capital markets weakened the Korean economic structure and economic sovereignty. Moreover, reckless expansion of the credit card industry as part of the policies to stimulate domestic consumption dealt a heavy blow to the household economy (Jeong, 2009). Nevertheless, Kim's administration overcame the worst economic crisis and normalised the economic situation; at the same time, it was able to pursue distribution and growth and present a new economic paradigm (Jeong, 2009).

Roh's administration also adopted neoliberalism as the economic paradigm. It strove to pursue a business-friendly country and a free and fair market order (Kim, 2015). However, there has been little visible and real economic achievement. Most of the economic policies were inherited from the economic ideology and policy of the previous Kim administration, but since the early days, the Roh government has drawn strong criticism from opposition parties and the media for its economic slowdown (Kwon, 2007). During the economic crisis in the previous administration, labour and management were sacrificing for and cooperating with each other, but Roh's economic policies was strongly resisted and criticised by all levels of society.

Conservatives argued that Roh's administration caused the recession through an anti-corporate sentiment, whereas progressives criticised the government for pursuing an anti-labour economic policy (Kwon, 2007). In the case of real estate policy, the real-estate transaction system and the introduction of registration records resulted in a price stabilisation during the global property boom, though some argued that the government failed to stabilise the real estate market despite various real estate measures (Roh Foundation, 2008). Nevertheless, the trade balance and current account sector continued to post a surplus for the fifth consecutive year, maintaining

an average 4.3% annual economic growth rate (Roh Foundation, 2008). Although the pros and cons were sharply opposed, the first free trade agreement in Asia with the US was nonetheless hailed as a success. Accordingly, the economic policy of Roh's administration has had conflicting assessments, but its macro-economic indicators, such as economic growth rate and GNI, were never worse than that of previous governments.

3.3.3. Culture and Society: Development of Popular Culture, Human Rights and Civil Society

Kim Dae-Jung's administration inherited and developed the cultural policy that began in the previous government. In particular, it emphasised the cultural industry integrating traditional culture and pure culture art with the industrial economy (PA, 2019b). The government enacted the Framework Act on the Promotion of Culture Industry and established several cultural departments within the government to develop the possibilities of various added values of culture and arts. At the same time, it launched a policy to loosen cultural regulations, which was related to the expansion of the freedom of expression due to democratisation (PA, 2019b). Naturally, the cultural industry led to the globalisation of culture, especially cultural exchanges and cooperation with North Korea and Japan (PA, 2019b). Japanese films, songs, games and animations were actively opened, and Korean dramas were exported to Japan and other countries, leading to the Korean wave (Kim, 2014).

In 2001, the Ministry of Gender Equality and Family and the National Human Rights Commission were established (Cho, 2016). These were launched through the combination of democratisation, the long-standing desire of the people to improve human rights, the efforts of civil society and the will of the government. Indeed, these departments played a vital role in protecting gender equality and the rights of the underprivileged. Meanwhile, the activities of civil society were greatly encouraged by the support of Kim's administration (Park, 2012). Civil society not only played a role in monitoring and checking the government but also participated in the policy process of the government, even influencing policy formation. This led to the

development of democracy and civil society as well as the formation of various civil cultures, including civic participation in public affairs, protection of minorities and vitalisation of volunteer activities (Park, 2012). At this time, the number of NGOs related to international development cooperation also increased. Therefore, Kim's administration laid the foundation for the development of popular culture along with the entrenchment of democracy. As the influence of civil society grew, policy participation became active as well.

Next, Roh Moo-hyun's administration particularly emphasised participatory democracy, human rights, welfare, and freedom of speech and implemented policies and systems that matched them (Roh Foundatrion, 2008). For example, to relieve public distrust towards the law, the public participation system was introduced so that the public could participate as a supervisor during the trial process. Additionally, freedom of speech was guaranteed as much as possible. In fact, the press freedom index ranked 31st, which was the highest in Korean history (Choi, 2020). Meanwhile, Korea began to develop chronic poverty and social polarisation due to worsening labour market conditions since the IMF. Low fertility and aging likewise became more and more serious, which led to social problems. In this context, Roh's administration launched an active welfare policy (Hankyoreh, 2009). It increased social insurance subscribers for the vulnerable, promoted the reform of the pension system and enhanced the social security system to support childcare and nursing care (OhmyNews, 2007).

During Roh's administration, the role and influence of civil society increased in importance. At the end of this government, civil society had quantitatively developed with more than 40,000 NGOs in Korea. Civil society had an important influence in policy making in various fields, such as politics, defence, economy and society. For example, civic groups exerted influence and pressure on sensitive issues, such as the Korea–UK free trade agreement, the Iraqi troop dispatch and even the general election (Park, 2012). At that time, however, as the influence and differentiation of civil society increased, the conflicts and confrontations between progressives and conservatives in civil society became more severe (Park, 2012).

Thus, Roh's administration tried to resolve the imbalances in different fields by putting great value on human rights, democracy and people's welfare.

3.3.4. International Development Cooperation: Taking the Initiative in Participating in International Development Cooperation

In the late 1990s, Korea received massive international aid once again to overcome the financial crisis. It implemented the IMF-led restructuring programme and received credit assistance from the IMF and International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. Finally, it was excluded from the OECD DAC's list of cooperatives, officially ending its history as a recipient country (ODA Korea, 2020b). In summary, Korea began receiving foreign aid in 1945, which was the year Korea was liberated from Japanese colonial rule, and this has contributed greatly to the country's economic and social development. In particular, foreign aid has become a big foundation for economic growth because Korea did not have any special resources and market environment (ODA Korea, 2017). By 1960, the ratio of a grant was overwhelming, and since then it has been mainly supported in the form of credit assistance.

Since 2000, Korea has taken the initiative in various international development cooperation discussions, including MDGs (ODA Korea, 2017). In 2005, joining the Inter-American Development Bank provided Korea an opportunity to participate actively in the expansion of multilateral aid. In 2006, an economic cooperation meeting between Korea and African countries was held to pass on Korea's economic development experience to Africa and promise economic cooperation (ODA Korea, 2017). Moreover, the International Development Cooperation Committee was established under the Office of the Prime Minister in the same year (ODA Korea, 2017). In particular, the government prepared for a well-organised ODA policy by releasing policy documents, such as the 2003 ODA Policy Reform and Improvement Plan, 2005 Comprehensive Measures for Improving Foreign Aid and 2007 ODA Mid-Term Strategy. Korea thus began to take initiative in international development cooperation by increasing its exchanges with

organisations related to international development cooperation and establishing relevant departments.

3.4. 9 Years of Conservative Governments and Regime Change (2008–2020)

3.4.1. Politics: Impeachment and Change of Government

In December 2007, Lee Myung-bak, former conglomerate CEO and Seoul mayor, was elected president. President Lee, who claimed to be an economic president, defeated the liberal candidate with an overwhelming difference of more than 5 million votes. Under difficult economic times, the people had full confidence in President Lee, who has extensive experience in politics, administration and management (Kim, 2019). Lee's administration advocated a utility government and set the goal of an advanced first-class country. The five major national indicators included a vibrant market economy, talent power, global Korea, active welfare and servant government (Roh, 2008). In the early stage, however, Lee's administration ignored the risk of mad cow disease in its beef import negotiations with the US and was caught in the middle of public opinion. Eventually, this issue spread to a campaign to oust the administration. Thus, his approval rating plummeted to around 20%, which was a heavy blow to the administration of state affairs at the beginning of Lee's term (Kim, 2019).

Fortunately, Lee's administration dealt relatively well with the global financial crisis that occurred in September the same year. With the fastest recovery among OECD members, the approval rating of the government also appeared to recover slowly. When it came to inter-Korean relations, the government tried to differentiate itself from previous liberal governments. 'The Non-Nuclear Open 3000' initiative aimed to raise North Korea's GNI to 3,000 dollars in 10 years through massive investment in the region if the North gives up its nuclear programme (Kim, 2008). However, the plan failed to lead to exchanges and cooperation with the North, resulting instead in the sinking of the Cheonan warship and the shelling of Yeonpyeong Island in 2010. It seemed that the North Korea policy, which was

unrealistic and inconsistent through Lee's term, prevented inter-Korean relations from moving forward. As a result, the neoliberal approach of Lee's administration through business-friendly policy, privatisation of public enterprises and autonomy of education entrance exams weakened the public function of the state (Lim, 2015). The administration started with high public expectation and support for economic growth, but the small government-oriented focus centred on conglomerates deepened economic polarisation.

In December 2012, Park Geun-hye was elected as president. Park was the first female president and received more than half of the polling rate (Shim, 2013). The full support of many who supported Park Chung-hee, who was a former president, also had a decisive influence on Park Geun-hye's victory. Park's administration proposed a national vision named 'A New Era of National Happiness and Hope' through the establishment of a creative economy, customised employment and welfare, a culture of life, a society of safety and integration and a happy era of reunification. Based on the high public support at the beginning of her inauguration, she suggested a trust process on the Korean peninsula and a plan for peace and cooperation in Northeast Asia (Kim, 2019). In addition, she expressed a strong stance on historical issues against Japan.

However, Park's administration struggled both at home and abroad, revealing the limitations of its political capabilities. For example, the illegal involvement of the NIS in the presidential election damaged the legitimacy of President Park's election. The complete closure of the Kaesong Industrial Complex, which followed provocations from North Korea, also further froze South–North relations. Most importantly, President Park's lack of communication and old authoritarian politics led to lots of criticism from the public (Lee, 2013).

In particular, Choi Soon-sil gate, known to the world in the fall of 2016, clearly demonstrated why Park's administration had unilateral policy decisions and ruined state affairs. Choi Soon-sil gate refers to the illegal involvement of Choi, a confidant of President Park, in overall national politics. President Park, along with Choi, violated democracy and the Constitution and administered affairs of state

aberrantly. In this context, 23 peaceful candlelight rallies were held across the country calling for the impeachment of President Park, with a total of 17 million citizens participating in the rallies (Newsis, 2017). On March 10, 2017, Park was removed from the presidency following a ruling by the Constitutional Court. She rose to the presidency under the halo of her father, but she was also the first president to be expelled while in office.

In the presidential election that took place after the impeachment, Moon Jae-in, a former lawyer for human rights from the progressive camp, was elected president. Under the national vision of 'Nation of people' and 'Righteous Korea', he emphasised national sovereignty, economic democracy, welfare state, balanced development and peace and prosperity in the Korean peninsula (MCST, 2017b). In particular, the government strove to improve inter-Korean relations, which had stagnated during previous conservative administrations, on the basis of the 'Driver Theory on the Korean Peninsula' as well as the peace and prosperity on the Korean Peninsula. Inter-Korean relations improved rapidly when North Korea decided to send delegations, squads, cheering teams, art groups and press to the 2018 PyeongChang Olympics. Three South–North summit talks were also held in 2018 to denuclearise and establish peace.

Diplomatically, Moon's administration announced a 'New Southern Policy' and a 'New Northern Policy' to establish new diplomatic relations with the relevant countries and change its biased policy focusing on the US, China, Japan and the EU. In addition, it expressed a strong commitment to clean up and reform the corruption and abnormalities of the conservative regime over the past nine years. In this context, the reform movement was strongly criticised by the opposition parties, and this added to the difficulty of governance between the ruling and opposition parties. The main opposition also criticised the unilateral management and direction of Moon's government as a socialist style of the leftist authoritarian regime. Although Moon's approval rating reached nearly 90% at the beginning of his term, it recently dropped to about 40%–50%, which is still high compared to that of previous administrations. The term of Moon's administration will end in May 2022.

3.4.2. Economy: The Ongoing Economic Downturn

Lee Myung-bak was elected president with the overwhelming support of the people based on his pledge to save the Korean economy. Although the previous government recorded economic growth at an average of 4.3% per year, people accustomed to high economic growth in the past perceived it as a failure (Kim, 2015). The most representative economic projects of Lee's administration are '747 pledge', 'Four-Rivers Project' and 'Resource Diplomacy' (Kim, 2019). The 747 pledge represents 7% growth, 40,000 dollars in GNI 10 years later and the seventh-largest economy power in the world. Specifically, it mainly involves reducing corporate taxes, loosening government interference and regulation and establishing the rule of law. To achieve this plan, the government has engaged in business-friendly policies, including investment revitalisation and tax cut (Kim, 2019). In fact, conglomerates have benefited from tax benefits of about 37 billion dollars due to lower corporate taxes (Kim, 2019).

In addition, Lee's administration promoted economic revitalisation through a large-scale civil construction project called 'Four-Rivers Project'. The project was seemingly planned for improving water quality and preparing for flooding but was actually a large-scale stimulus project for realising President Lee's 747 pledge. Meanwhile, 'Resource Diplomacy' was promoted for long-term, mutually beneficial diplomatic and economic exchanges with resource-holding countries. There have been brisk exchanges on the import of oil and the export of nuclear energy, mainly with countries in the Middle East and America.

Lee's administration was positively assessed for successfully coping with the global financial crisis from the US in 2008. Nevertheless, income polarisation of the people was not improved, and the debt of household and public sector was significantly increased compared to that in the previous government (Sun, 2012). In particular, the average economic growth rate and inflation rate were approximately 3% and 3.6%, respectively, which were not as good as in the previous government

(Sun, 2012). Thus, Lee's administration was insufficient to bring about actual improvement of people's lives in spite of its external economic achievements.

Next, Park Geun-hye's administration emphasised the creative economy, the democratisation of the economy and the stability of the people's economy in order to revive the Korean economy, which had entered a period of stagnation. In its second year, Park's administration announced the 'Three-Year Plan for Economic Innovation' and proposed the '474 Vision' (Park, 2017), which was a blueprint to open the era with a potential growth rate of 4%, employment rate of 70%, and per capita income of 40,000 (Hwang, 2014). The main initiatives included the creative economy, balanced economy of domestic and export, reform of public sector and expansion of the social safety net (Hwang, 2014). For the creative economy, which President Park concentrated on, the government focused on creating ecosystems, fostering the ventures of small- and medium-sized enterprises and opening up new industrial markets (MCST, 2014a).

Moreover, a key confidant of President Park was appointed as the Minister of the Economy to carry out a large-scale fiscal stimulus policy (Lee, 2017). The policy aimed to save the stagnant real estate market and promote corporate investment for economic revitalisation. However, these plans were not properly implemented because Park's regime left in the middle of a five-year term. During Park's administration, GDP averaged about 2.9% and exports declined for the first time for two consecutive years (Park, 2017). Employment figures and unemployment rate significantly deteriorated compared to previous governments (Park, 2017). Overall, the lack of sustainability and consistency in economic policy caused confusion without the support of the people.

Lastly, Moon Jae-in's administration is pursuing a whole new economic policy to solve the serious problems and stagnation of the Korean economy, which has been pointed out for decades. Previous governments adopted conglomerates and growth-oriented economic policies, but Moon's government is seeking a distribution-oriented economic policy. The core economic policies of Moon's government include income-driven growth, innovation growth and fair economy

(MCST, 2020). Income-driven growth is an approach of growth through an economic structure with a virtuous circle, which reduces the burden on the people, increases income, boosts consumption and leads to economic growth, which can eventually create good jobs again (Park, 2018). For example, the government sought to create 810,000 jobs in the public sector and raise the minimum wage to 10 dollars per hour to address chronic job issues and income polarisation. Despite the endeavour, government-led income-driven growth has reduced investment in private companies and caused major complaints among the self-employed because of the rapid rise in minimum wage.

Meanwhile, Japan's provocative export restrictions, which were caused by historical issues in the middle of 2019, had a major negative impact on Korean corporate activities, especially semi-conductor exports. Fortunately, this incident, contrary to Japan's intention, led to the localisation of semi-conductor materials, components and equipment industries. In addition, Moon's administration has taken special care to stabilise the real estate market, which has repeatedly failed in each government. However, while various regulatory policies are attempting to stabilise house prices, they have limited loans from end users to purchase houses and reduced housing supply, leading to higher real estate prices compared to the previous government (Jeong, 2019). The economic growth in 2019 remained at 2%, and the unemployment and employment rate are numerically sluggish (Park, 2018). Hence, unlike the previous government, Moon's administration developed the people-centred economic policy, but this has not made practical achievements as the people expected.

3.4.3. Culture and Society: The Conflict Between Progressives and Conservatives and the Expansion of Welfare

Lee Myung-bak, a former businessman, tended to aggressively implement policies and pursue tangible and short-term results rather than secure the support and cooperation from the National Assembly and civil society (Park, 2012). Owing to this tendency, human rights and democratic policies were somewhat regressed

compared to the last two democratic governments. In the same vein, the influence and necessity of civil society were noticeably reduced during Lee's administration, and instead, surveillance and repression towards NGOs were carried out (Park, 2012). For example, at the time of the mad cow disease surge in 2008, the police suppressed candlelight rallies with excessive force, such as water cannons and fire extinguishers, and so received criticism on human rights violations from Amnesty International (Ko, 2008). There was also an increase in the suppression and restrictions on freedom of expression by netizens, journalists, protesters and teachers who criticised the government.

Meanwhile, Lee's administration emphasised culture and art more compared to previous governments. The government implemented a culture voucher system to provide underprivileged people access to culture and art, enacted the Arts Welfare Act and revived Korean Day as a public holiday. Furthermore, Lee's administration pursued practical welfare policies, unlike previous progressive governments. Rather than drastically modifying the existing welfare system, the government sought to develop market-friendly and customised welfare. In summary, Lee's administration took a pragmatic line in the cultural and social sphere but received a lot of criticism in the areas of democracy and human rights. It especially created a 'Blacklist' to monitor and retaliate against people in the culture and art, causing great social repercussion.

Park Geun-hye's administration greatly emphasised the importance of culture by including cultural integrity in the four major national political agendas. To enrich the culture, Park's administration announced in her inaugural address that the government would bridge the cultural gap and support various creative activities (Kim, 2016). However, it suppressed cultural and artistic figures of a progressive group and censored their creative activities, eventually violating their freedom of expression (Kim, 2016). Following Lee's administration, the Park government also created a 'Blacklist' of the culture and art world, penalising those critical of the regime.

Meanwhile, the welfare budget had steadily increased, but by the middle of Park's term, the actual welfare budget decreased. At that time, free childcare and free meals for young children and infants were implemented in stages. In the field of education, Park's administration promoted to standardise historical textbooks. In this way, it encouraged the state to block and control various interpretations of history, thereby educating students on history favourable to the conservative regime. The overall social atmosphere of Park's government was rigid, and its policies and direction were criticised as reverting to the authoritarian era of the 1970s and 1980s.

The cultural policy of Moon Jae-in's government focused on reversing the illegal intervention and interference of the last conservative regime. For example, the government sought to ensure fairness in cultural administration and strengthen support and welfare for cultural artists. The government stopped standardising the historical textbooks, enabling various interpretations of history. Additionally, Korea's World Press Freedom Index published by Reporters without Borders ranked 41st in 2019, rising steeply from 70th place in 2016 (Kim, 2019).

Meanwhile, the government set social welfare as an important agenda for state affairs to be innovative and the country to be inclusive. To achieve the agenda, the government increased the budget in the sectors of health, welfare and labour by more than 10% for the third consecutive year (Cho, 2019). Moon's administration likewise emphasised the cooperation with civil society by maintaining close relations. It stressed that civil society is a partner and participant in the national government. However, the government has maintained a tense relationship with the labour community, which opposed the government's labour policy (Kim, 2019). Overall, the liberal Moon government is pursuing various reforms on social issues, but as time goes by, there is an increasing conflict between progress and conservatism on each issue.

3.4.4. International Development Cooperation: Activeness Participation in International Development Cooperation

Korea in the 2000s had finalised its history as a recipient country and had participated in international development cooperation as a donor country, with the intention of serving as a key bridge between developed and developing countries. In 2010, Korea became a member of the OECD DAC, which is a cooperative organisation between advanced donor countries. In 2011, the Korean government hosted the World Development Assistance Congress, playing a leading role in the launch of the global partnership for effective development cooperation (ODA Korea, 2017).

In 2010, Korea established the Framework Act on International Development Cooperation and, along with various ODA policies and strategies, took a leap forward in international development cooperation (ODA Korea, 2020b). With the adoption of the 2030 SDGs at the UN in 2015, Korea is pursuing a comprehensive strategy to contribute to the achievement of the SDGs, which is a new goal of the international community. In addition, it joined the International Aid Transparency Initiative to promote the effectiveness and transparency of international development cooperation (ODA Korea, 2017).

Currently, the basic spirit of ODA in Korea includes reducing poverty in developing countries; improving the rights of women, children and people with disabilities; achieving sustainable development, humanitarian realisation and economic cooperation with partner countries; and pursuing peace and prosperity in the international community (ODA Korea, 2020b). According to the Framework Act on International Development Cooperation, the Korean ODA promotion system consists of a three-stage structure of ODA, including comprehensive body, governance body and implementing agency (ODA Korea, 2020b). The government recently emphasised policy making and participation through partnerships with civil society, businesses and academia.

The Korean comprehensive body for ODA is the International Development Cooperation Committee. In addition, the Office of State Coordination serves as the secretariat of the Committee, providing the support necessary for the processing and

operation of Korean ODA operations (ODA Korea, 2020b). Specifically, the Office designs the basic and implementation plans of international development cooperation and establishes the Korean ODA model and policy (ODA Korea, 2020b). The Ministry of Planning and Finance and the MOFAT are in charge of credit assistance and grant-type aid, respectively (ODA Korea, 2020). The MOFAT is responsible for examining whether the Korean ODA activities involved in each ministry are in line with the ODA goals and direction of the government through the Council of Free Aid Agency. The KOICA and the Korea Export and Import Bank are mainly responsible for the implementation of the ODA programme, and about 30 government departments and local governments are engaged in ODA activities. As Table 3.1 shows, the Korean ODA was approximately 2,201 million dollars, making it the 16th largest of the 29 OECD DAC member countries (ODA Korea, 2020b).

Table 3.1. Total ODA Scale   (Million dollars)

Year	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
Total ODA	1,755	1,856	1,915	2,246	2,201

Source: ODA Korea (2020b)

Korea currently has 24 countries designated as the main partner countries, taking into account diplomatic relations, the potential for economic cooperation and political situation among 130 partnership countries. These main partner countries include 11 countries in Asia, 7 in Africa and 6 in Latin America and the Middle East. More than 70% of aid is given to these 24 countries, and they have been re-selected by the International Development Cooperation Committee every five years (ODA Korea, 2020b). Consequently, international development cooperation in Korea has been trying to comply with the norms and system of the international community and conducting systematic ODA activities based on the relevant laws and relationships with partnership countries. Finally, the Korean government has recently expanded the participation of private sectors, including civil society and companies, and exerted efforts to increase transparency in ODA policies and activities.

4. Theoretical Framework

This chapter introduces National Preference Formation Theory and Constructivism to explore the applicability of existing relevant theories to new phenomena. Both theories also serve as specific guidelines for the research questions. Next, analytical hypotheses based on propositions and the same categories derived from both theories are presented.

4.1. Tension between Rationalism and Constructivism

The end of the Cold War and theoretical discussions explicitly demonstrated the limitation of mainstream IR theories, such as neorealism and neoliberalism. They could not sufficiently account for the epidemic change in the international system and analyse how actors obtain their identities and interests. At the moment, many scholars are concerned with the dynamics of international changes, the nature of international institutions and the role of non-state actors.

Mainstream IR theories have traditionally underestimated the role and importance of transnational influences (Finnemore, 1996). Actually, neorealism seeks to understand the phenomenon and its outcomes, such as alliances and warfare, in view of the security of states and the political structures of world politics (Wendt, 1999: 5, 118). It views international system structures in the frame of the material view of their member states (Wendt, 1999: 30). Neoliberalism also concentrates on understanding state behaviour from the perspective of the pursuit of wealth. However, constructivists argue that the pursuit of power, security and wealth led by neorealists and neoliberalists cannot predict critical international outcomes. Thus, national preferences cannot be taken as exogenously given (Finnemore, 1996), but should be created by the identities and interests of actors in the process of transnational interactions.

There are distinctive gaps between rationalism and constructivism in terms of understanding international changes and state behaviour. In view of rationalism, constructivism is not considered a substantial theory. In terms of philosophical

positions, rationalism and constructivism have different ontological and epistemological assumptions of what social reality is made up of and how scientists can know something about it (Paster, 2005). Based on different philosophical aspects, the perspective of rationalism, especially neorealism and neoliberalism, argues that political behaviour is commonly driven by egoistic self-interest (Paster, 2005). Rationalists note that interests and preferences are considered as exogenously given. They focus on traditional material factors, such as anarchy, military power and economic capabilities, to explain the political activities of world politics. Rationalists argue that international politics is formed by rational choice decisions of egoist actors who seek to maximise benefits and minimise losses (Behravesh, 2011). In other words, rationalism tends to neglect social construction and actors' identity formation (Wendt, 1999: 28).

Constructivism, on the other hand, is known as the social theory of IR, concentrating on the social construction of world affairs (Wendt, 1995). Constructivism admits the existence of material structures, but it argues that material entities are not fixed and isolated. These can be changed depending on intersubjectively established relationships and interactions of the actors (Finnemore & Sikkink, 1998). Wendt (1995) noted that constructivism seeks to explain the behaviour of states through the non-material structures of international politics, unlike rationalism, which is explained by material structures. To explain the processes and results of policy making, constructivism focuses on several ideational concepts, such as discourse, norms, values, ideas and socialisation, which may be concerned with diverse issues in international society (Checkel, 1997). An international system can be created by ideational kinds, which are a set of thoughts, ideas and norms at a certain time and place. Paster (2005) stated that constructivism is an explanatory framework of how socialisation or identities are formed and how norms are internalised. Moreover, constructivism notes that state interests are not structurally or exogenously taken for granted but rather constructed by historically contingent interactions (Wendt, 1994).

The two approaches between rationalism and constructivism have many differences of how the states' behaviours are driven and actors acquire their identities

and interests in the specific environment. Furthermore, many scholars have continued to explore the contrasts between the approaches. In recent years, however, it has been argued that the two paradigms are by no means contradictory, but may be complementary. Katzenstein, Keohane and Krasner (1998: 680) argued that the two approaches can be compatible in certain key points. The attempt is called bridge building, which aims to synthesise different theories into a middle point to clearly understand complex situations and phenomena. Bridge building could comprehensively help analyse complicated causal relationships by developing middle-range frameworks. It would ultimately result in a new synthetic theoretical course that contributes to much more extensive and plentiful explanations than those from the separated theories.

What is important regarding the synthesis of each theory is the elaborate integration with each other in terms of domain, scope conditions and criteria to clearly identify each hypothesis. In this study, both national preference formation theory as a rationalist perspective and constructivism as a constructivist perspective are adapted for a theoretical framework to explain various aspects of the Korean SfD approach from domestic and international political viewpoints.

4.2. National Preference Formation Theory

4.2.1. Liberal Intergovernmentalism

Liberal intergovernmentalism was formulated by Andrew Moravcsik in the second half of the 1980s to explain European integration in three steps. It is considered as a grand theory that deals with the broad change in regional integration. Liberal intergovernmentalism turns multiple theories with many determining factors into a single coherent approach to explain integration over time. It includes realist and inter-governmentalist perspectives. Traditionally, realists argue that states are still main actors in the policy-making process and in international cooperation. In the view of realism, institutions just exert a minimal influence on state behaviour and cannot be the entities directly involved when states cooperate with one another.

Owing to the criticism of neofunctionalism, which stresses the role and pressure of supranational institutions in regional or European integration, intergovernmentalism emerged to highlight the status of states determining the scale and scope of integration (Weidenfeld, 2010: 54). Liberal intergovernmentalism builds on "an earlier approach, intergovernmentalism institutionalism, by refining its theory of interstate bargaining and institutional compliance, and by adding an explicit theory of national preference formation grounded in liberal theories of international interdependence" (Moravcsik, 1993, p.480). As opposed to realism and intergovernmentalism, liberal intergovernmentalism seems suitable to analyse and explain the study regarding state preference formation.

Liberal intergovernmentalism is a rationalist framework of international cooperation that draws on three essential elements: the assumption of rational state behaviour, liberal theory of national preference formation and inter-governmentalist analysis of interstate negotiation and institutional creation (Moravcsik, 1993). The core assumption is that states are unitary, primary and rational political actors in an international system and seek their preferences by using intergovernmental bargaining, not force or central authorities (Moravcsik & Schimmelfennig, 2009: 68). The assumption of rational state behaviour offers that economic interests are the major decision factor of national preference as a general framework of analysis. Additionally, the preferences and identities of states are not fixed but can be changed depending on the environment faced by domestic pressure and state–society relations. The objectives of the states become the source of strategic interaction and need to be identified to analyse their influence and power (Moravcsik, 1998: Chapter 3). On the other hand, the relative extent of the national preference, existence of alternative coalitions and link between issues facilitate an intergovernmental analysis for coordinating conflicts among governments.

As Table 4.1 suggests, liberal intergovernmentalism entails three theoretical frameworks, including theory of national preference formation, interstate bargaining process and institutional choice, to secure outcomes in which each process can be explained by a different theory (Moravcsik, 1993). Theory of national preference formation is mainly based on the economic interests of domestic actors and the

pressure from domestic political institutions. Given that national preferences are formed at the domestic level, interstate bargaining refers to a process whereby each state tries to carry through their own domestic preference in the international arena. Various factors exist in this process, such as relative power of states, negotiation ability and even the role of international organisations, all of which can affect bargaining power and results.

However, as suggested by supranational bargaining theory, the intervention of supranational institutions and entrepreneurs does not have a decisive effect on the distributional outcomes of international bargaining (Moravcsik, 1993). Lastly, given the considerable agreement in the international stage, institutional choice seeks to explain the process of delegating or pooling decision making for international institutions. It is the process of locking the results of international negotiations that are under domestic ratification in the system through international institutions (Moravcsik, 1993). In other words, the procedure for institutional choice seems to be aimed at enhancing the credibility of commitments.

Liberal intergovernmentalism highlights (1) economic interests in the formulation of national preference, (2) the relative bargaining power of governments and (3) incentives to improve credible commitments to explain the process, essence and timing of European integration (Moravcsik, 1998: 19). Liberal intergovernmentalism is acknowledged to have valuable insights regarding the process of European integration.

Despite its great contribution to the study, there has been some criticism regarding liberal intergovernmentalism. For instance, liberal intergovernmentalism, like other integration theories, overlooks the varying roles and effects of diverse actors at different levels and fields (Erdogan, 2015: 28). In particular, the theory does not take the changing roles of the actors into consideration, a shortcoming that may play a role in the different dimensions in the process of integration. Wallace (1999) also pointed out that liberal intergovernmentalism found geopolitical factors a little insignificant compared to economic interests and that the theory tends to ignore the role of supranational institutions and entrepreneurs in the analytical framework. In

reality, many domestic policies these days are concerned with geopolitical issues and the influence of transnational institutions. Thus, various and external factors might need to be considered in the formation process of national preference.

Table 4.1. Liberal Intergovernmentalism Framework of Analysis

Stages of Negotiation	National Preference Formation	Interstate Bargaining	Institutional Choice
Alternative independent variables underlying each stage	What is the source of underlying national preferences? Economic interests or geopolitical interests?	Given national preferences, what explains the efficiency and distributional outcomes of interstate bargaining? Asymmetrical interdependence or supranational entrepreneurship?	Given substantive agreement, what explains the transfer of sovereignty to international institutions? Federalist ideology or centralised technocratic management or more credible commitment?
	↓	↓	↓
Observed outcomes at each stage	Underlying national preferences	→ Agreements on substance →	Choice to delegate or pool decision making in international institutions

Source: Moravcsik (2008, p.160)

4.2.2. Liberal International Relations Theory

There are diverse modern liberal IR theories that rest on their own liberal thoughts and political principles in the international arena. Without question, the mainstream of IR theory has changed over time along with dynamic issues, especially the outbreaks of World War I and II and the fall of East European countries. Generally, liberal IR theory differs from realism or political realism.

Traditionally, realism not only focuses on state power and unitary decision making but also considers domestic politics that is usually ignored. It is also different from liberal theory, such as neoliberal theory, which stresses the importance of international institutions (Moravcsik, 1997). Although the origin of modern liberal IR theory began in the 1970s, liberalism as formulated by Moravcsik, which is

differentiated from liberal theory such as neoliberal theory, is preferentially dealt with in the present study because it could be directly related to the assumptions and nature of national preference formation theory. Actually, the central insight of liberal IR theory is that it is bound to a bottom-up view and states are studded with domestic and international civil society, which could put restrictions on the actions and purpose of the government (Moravcsik, 1992). Moreover, liberal IR theory emphasises the effects between state–society relations affected by social groups, thereby shaping state behaviour.

Moravcsik (1992: 6) argued that there are three core assumptions that are bound on essential societal actors, the relations between state and civil society, and the international system. The first core assumption is that the fundamental actors in politics are individuals and societal and private groups with their autonomous interests and identities. Based on this assumption, the pressure and behaviour of societal interests are expected to have an influence on issue areas and situations, which create a different kind of constraint towards governments (Nye, 1990). In other words, unlike realism which stresses individual loyalty to the state, liberalism emphasises that individuals can have distinctive interests compared to relative gains and losses, which can differ from the ideas of the government or political leaders. This distinction means that the important factors on foreign policy refer to the identities of the societal groups, the nature of their interests and their relative effect over domestic policy (Moravcsik, 1997).

The second assumption of liberal IR theory is that all governments stand for some parts of domestic society, which are reflected into state behaviour (Moravcsik, 1992: 9). Society is considered as an aggregate of autonomous individuals and voluntary groups and comes before the state (Moravcsik, 1992: 9). In this context, the theory authorises domestic institutions to function as a mechanism that could connect the state with society. Societal pressures engage in state preferences via institutions and practices. The state and society have a principal–agent relationship, and the state is perceived as a representative of some set of social groups. Specifically, the state is not an actor but the representative institution that is affected by coalitions, preferences and the power of societal actors. The extent to which the state reflects

the interests of the population for the state policy need to be ascertained (Holsti & Holsti, 1985).

The third assumption is that "the configuration of interdependent state preferences determines state behaviour" (Moravcsik, 1997, p.519). For this reason, liberal IR theory focuses on the formation of domestic preferences as opposed to realists, which are based on interstate bargaining.

4.2.3. National Preference Formation Theory

Liberal intergovernmentalism refers to the grand theory, which entails three processes, namely national preference formation, interstate bargaining for substantive agreements and creating institutions, to ensure the negotiated outcomes for European integration. Each process is separately explained by a specific approach, which means that national preference formation in liberal intergovernmentalism can be further studied in detail through the national preference formation theory.

In liberal intergovernmentalism theory, states are considered a primary actor even though different kinds of domestic actors are involved in preference formation and foreign policy-making decisions (Moravcsik, 1993). As opposed to the perspective of realism, which regards states as autonomous actors, liberal intergovernmentalism based on liberal IR theory does not think of states as a billiard ball or black boxes with hierarchical preference over material factors such as security and wealth (Erdogan, 2015: 25). States act as if "they were unitary" (Moravcsik, 1999, p.22). It would be reasonable to think that liberal intergovernmentalism plays a vital role in understanding national preference formation, in that the theory recognises the importance of societal preferences and interests.

National preferences are defined as "an ordered and weighted set of values placed on future substantive outcomes, often termed as states of the world, that might result from international political interaction, they reflect the objectives of those domestic groups which influence the state apparatus and they are assumed to be

stable within each position advanced on each issue by each country in each negotiation, but not necessarily across negotiations, issues or countries" (Moravcsik, 1999, p.24). Kim (2016) noted that national preferences are the preferences of governments, and national preference formation is a process that countries or governments decide to pursue at the domestic level. In fact, national preferences are decisive factors that have an influence on state behaviour in the international arena.

In this regard, Moravcsik (1993) argued that the identity of major societal groups, the nature of their interests and their relative importance over domestic conditions are likely to affect the direction of foreign policy determined within each country. As Figure 4.1 shows, national preferences are determined by the pressures of the domestic groups and the interactions between relevant actors, and these can depend on domestic politics. In other words, national preferences are not fixed and can be mainly varied across time, issues and place because of issue-specific societal interdependence (Moravcsik & Schimmelfennig, 2009).

Figure 4.1. National Preference Formation
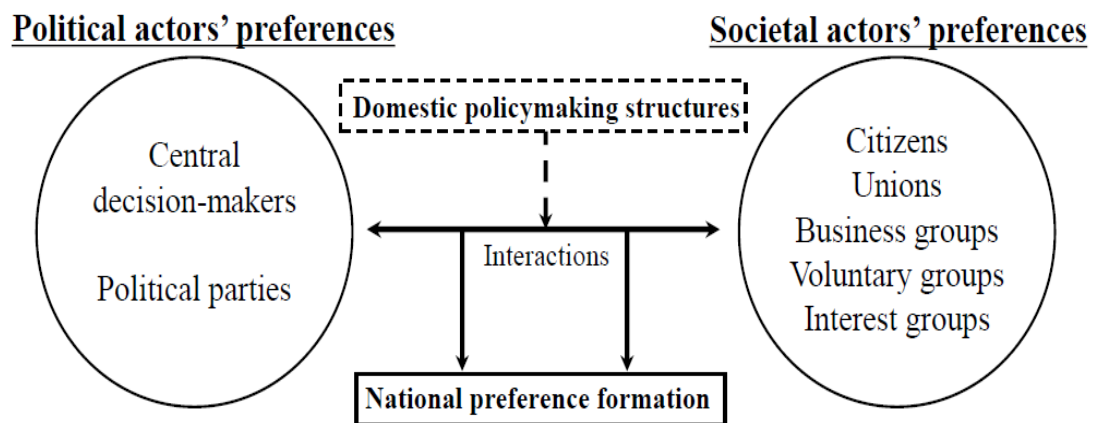
Source: Kim (2016)

National preference formation is grounded on liberal IR theory of domestic politics. In terms of liberal theory, state–society relations, especially democratic societies, are considered important in forming national preferences, given that foreign policies are influenced by electoral control and the pressures and constraints of societal groups (Moracvsik, 1997). In this context, it can be argued that national

preferences are formed by domestic politics through the interaction of state and society (Moracvsik, 1997). They can be changed by the interests and pressures of societal groups (Moracvsik, 1997: 518). These societal pressures can vary across several determining factors. For example, a determining factor would be relative gains and losses for the pressures and constraints on the government. Additionally, if alternative policies are more certain and important than existing policies, then the groups will likely mobilise politically. Thus, stronger interests in particular issues tend to result in higher level of political mobilisation.

The process of national preferences might also be related to the structure of domestic institutions and influences of societal groups. The electoral system, such as proportional or majoritarian, can lead to considerably different results in national preference formation and what kinds of interests will have wider representation (Hobolt & Klemmemsen, 2005). National preference formation can be different in terms of aggregating societal preferences based on whether states adopt a presidential system or a parliamentary system (Linz, 1994). For instance, the magnitude of the government's policy autonomy may be concerned with the preferences of diverse actors (Kim, 2016). Thus, the weaker the government's policy autonomy seems, the stronger the national preferences that embrace societal actors' interests.

The French government, which has a presidential system, tends to seek a high level of policy autonomy on European issues, whereas Germany has had a relatively low level of policy autonomy because of numerous institutional constraints. In addition, the modern party competition structure can have a political leverage between societal demands and government position (Kim, 2016). Political parties generally represent and support societal interests, and therefore interests groups often look for the party that seems to support their own preferences. Accordingly, domestic institutions play a role in helping societal preferences shaping national preferences.

The relations between a state and a government depend on the structure and system of the state, but it seems true that the government is an important part of the state and plays a role in achieving the purpose of the state. As an agency of the state,

the government is deeply involved in national preference formation. According to liberal theory, the relationship between the government and a domestic group indicates an agent–principal relationship (Moravcsik, 1993). The goals of the government in the international stage vary "in response to shifting pressure from domestic social groups, whose preferences are aggregated through political institutions" (Moravcsik, 1993, p.481). Particularly, the societal groups form the preferences and the government formulates these preferences through political institutions. The government is empowered or constrained by societal groups according to the gains and losses they expect from particular policies (Milner, 1988).

However, pressures from societal groups are not the only factor to predict national preferences. Governments expect support from the coalitions of influential groups and can also establish their own interests on specific issues. Moravcsik (1993) noted that governments could exert their discretionary authority when the pressures and opinions of important societal actors seem unclear and divergent. Similarly, governments are likely to present powerful and independent forces if societal groups are weak and ambiguous (Hadvabova, 2006: 18). Governments sometimes put pressure on societal groups involved in relevant interests by using international agreements (Moravcsik, 1998: 36). Notwithstanding, governments lay emphasis on aggregating the interests of major societal groups, such as domestic voters, parties and interest groups, so that they can seek stability and stay in office.

However, existing theories explaining national preference formation are sometimes criticised for their lack of proper attention to the role of policy-making structures. Kim (2016) argued that a correct understanding of policy-making structures can contribute to providing a specific framework for how divergent societal preferences are aggregated at the domestic level. The process of policy formulation can actually be different across domestic institutions and political structures. Therefore, policy-making structures should be taken into consideration in order to ensure accurate national preference formation.

4.2.4. National Interests

States have been seeking international development cooperation in the medium and long term in line with various national interests under rapid changes in the global order. Van Dyke (1962) viewed national interests as those which the state must protect or achieve in IR. Lerche and Abdul (1963: 6) defined national interests as long-term objectives of the state and government. Traditionally, national interests are considered to be military and economic power, but recently national interests have been widely defined through soft power, including culture, environment and education. National interests refer to the basic goals that the state should jointly pursue from various perspectives, such as economic, military and cultural.

The concept of national interest can be viewed differently according to the paradigm of each theory in the study of international politics. From the realism perspective, national interest is a key concept of international political theory established by Morgenthau. National interests such as military and economic power can provide reasonable and objective guidance on what foreign policy a state should pursue. According to neoliberal institutionalism, national interests are regarded as absolute power. In neoliberal institutionalism, the harmony of national interests in the international community can be achieved if the existence of mutual interests between states, the existence of repeated and long-term relationships among actors and the practice of reciprocity are fulfilled so that the institutionalisation of inter-state cooperation can be achieved (Ko, Kim & Hong, 2010).

In constructivism, the national interest is constructed by subjective and social factors, such as norms, rules, culture and identity. Although it is no longer possible to pursue exclusive national interests owing to increasing economic interdependence and the stronger role of international organisations, the fact that national interests are the main motive for a state's actions in IR is likely to remain unchanged.

Meanwhile, based on the link between domestic politics and international politics, liberal intergovernmentalism, which is rooted in liberalism, decides the national preferences under the influence of various social actors. National preferences are important determinants of state behaviour, and are affected by the

identity, interests and relative influence of various actors (Moravcsik, 1993). As a result, national preferences indicate the goal or national interest of the government to be considered in international politics in the exchange or cooperation between states. In terms of the process and factor of preference formation in liberal intergovernmentalism, numerous determinants affect the formation of national preferences. Many researchers said that national preferences are largely determined by domestic economic factors and interests (Aspinwall, 2007; Frieden, 1991). Others argued that national preferences are driven by the policy preferences of central decision makers in terms of geopolitical or security interests based on neorealist tradition or issues specific within states (Krasner, 1978).

Among these interests, economic interests are considered to be more important factors leading to national preference formation than geopolitical factors (Moravcsik, 1998). This may stem from the fact that the importance of domestic economic interests, as suggested by Moravcsik's research based on liberal theory, tends to be confined to issues regarding European integration and economic interests. He argued that transnational interactions, such as flows of goods, services and capital, bring about economic externalities that lead to national policy coordination in the process of European integration (Moravcsik, 1993).

Specifically, the distribution of expected costs and benefits of economic interdependence can cause the formation of national preferences in the process of European integration through the interests and pressures of diverse societal groups, such as producers and manufacturers (Moravcsik, 1993). It may be reasonable that economic interests remain the primary consideration to predict national preferences, even though geopolitical concerns seem important. In addition to economic interests, however, national preferences are affected by a variety of determinants in line with national interests that consider different interests and pressures of various actors. Therefore, diverse determinants, geopolitical interests, economic interests and certain issues should be considered as driving forces to influence the formation of national preferences.

Given the differences in national ideologies and goals as well as the history and cultural relations with partner countries, the motives and purposes of international development cooperation of each state are different as well. Korea is currently seeking to enhance its national interests and humanitarian motives, such as solving poverty problems in connection with international development cooperation (MOFAT, 2019). Korea is striving to promote future-oriented relations through development cooperation with developing countries. In a broad sense, Korea is looking at development cooperation from a political and diplomatic perspective. In this regard, international development cooperation is commonly affected by the military alliance, ideology, historical relations, security considerations and foreign policy between two countries (ODA Korea, 2017).

Recently, it was emphasised that enhancing diplomatic relations with emerging countries could lead to a stronger status in the international community and an expansion of soft power. In particular, Korea is emphasising sustained growth and development under a special economic environment that is highly dependent on foreign economies (MOFAT, 2019). Korea expects to expand export markets and companies' overseas expansion through international development cooperation with developing countries (ODA Korea, 2017). Such activities in Southeast Asia, which is emerging as a new strategic export market, are the result of considering the importance of the economic aspect.

In this regard, there are two conflicting views on the relationship between sports and politics. Firstly, advocates of the non-politicisation of sports argue that sports should be completely free from political intervention. On the contrary, there is a realistic view that sports and politics are inseparable. For example, countries in each camp boycotted the 1980 and 1984 Summer Olympics in the aftermath of the Cold War. The Korean government also decided to form a unified inter-Korean women's ice hockey team at the 2018 Winter Olympics. However, it could not be free from harsh public criticism for using sports for politics, given that sports have often been used as a means of pursuing national interests under the guise of sports diplomacy.

The majority of Korea's SfD programmes are directly or indirectly employed by the government as part of international development cooperation. Thus, the direction and purpose of Korean SfD programmes cannot but take into account the various goals and orientations of the government's international development cooperation in reality. In conclusion, as with various development cooperation activities in many fields, inter-country exchanges and cooperation through sports programmes would imply the pursuit of national interests, including economic and geopolitical interests as well as humanitarian motives.

4.3. Constructivism

4.3.1. Emergence of Constructivism

Constructivism is an analytical framework for understanding a new form of international political environment that influences state identities and interests by internalising international norms into a domestic level. Constructivism was not recognised at the beginning. It was not until the 1980s that many scholars realised the importance of constructivism as a non-material factor that affects the policy-making process, but it seemed difficult to theorise it to account for reality. Some scholars argued that constructivism is insufficient to provide broad-based knowledge, hypotheses, and even a system or behaviour of the states (Chernoff, 2007: 68). Critics were also sceptical that idea-based approaches could stand against mainstream approaches that are known as interest-based theories.

However, the end of Cold War in 1989 undermined the neorealist argument. In addition, globalisation led to the emergence of new socio-political movements and phenomena around the world, such as democracy, gender equality, human rights, environment problems and humanitarianism. Existing state-centric theories could not sufficiently explain state identities and their effect on the external behaviour of states (Daddow, 2013). Such issues have an influence on the growth of new theories to comprehend international and domestic politics. At the same time, different kinds of issues were driven by diverse actors, such as norm entrepreneur, non-state actors and transnational networks, in spite of the effect of states as primary actors of world

affairs (Wendt, 1999). Non-traditional studies on security issues started to challenge existing assumptions, especially neorealism and neoliberalism (Karacasulu & Uzgoren, 2007). In addition to the efforts and movement, the 'English School' and the 'Copenhagen School' contributed greatly towards the evolution of constructivism (Ulusoy, 2003). In the end, constructivism was finally introduced by Nicholas Onuf (1989) and Alexander Wendt (1992: Chapter 7), who stressed the importance of an international environment in reshaping state identities and interests.

Constructivism is not considered a theory of IR but rather as a theoretically informed approach (Onuf, 1989: Chapter 1). As constructivism developed over time, it was categorised into three forms according to the level of analysis (Reus-Smit, 2002). The system constructivism suggested by Wendt emphasised the interactions between unitary state actors in an international system but ignored domestic political culture and its role. Uni-level constructivists, on the other hand, focused on the domestic politics of states (Wendt, 1999: 200) and furthered the relationship between domestic norms on social and legal aspects as well as the identities and interests of states (Reus-Smit, 2002).

In the same context, Hopf (1998) stressed the role of domestic norms and domestic formation of identity in the area of national security. Compared to conflicting perspectives, holistic constructivism complements the first two forms. Finnemore (1996) emphasised the importance of norms of international society and their effects on state identities and interests. Holistic constructivism has actually been considered more elaborative than the two approaches mentioned above by combining domestic politics with international politics (Price & Reus-Smit, 1998). Despite the differences, whether to a great or small extent, each approach in constructivism has many things in common. They all focus on the importance of culture and identity and view the social and political world as consisting of shared beliefs rather than material determinants (Jackson & Sorensen, 2006).

Wendt (1992, p.411) noted that "international relations are socially constructed", which connotes three main characteristics to constructivism. Firstly, the key social and ideational structures of international politics are deeper structures

and more intersubjective than material structures (Wendt, 1995). Constructivists recognised that world politics could emerge from international society, which is embedded in particular rules, as well as from an international system. They likewise stressed the importance of normative and ideational structures as well as material structures (Adler, 1999). Nevertheless, the most important thing is social, not material, things. Social structure refers to the "distribution of knowledge, or intersubjectively shared ideas, beliefs, norms, and expectation which are constitutive for international politics and organise actors' actions" (Wendt, 1992, p.397). This means that these ideational factors are mutually created norms formed from the interactions among certain actors (Finnemore & Sikkink, 2001).

Secondly, as Figure 4.2 indicates, these social structures shape the identities and interests of the actors, which encourage the actors' behaviour or actions (Wendt, 1995). Wendt's approach seeks to explore the effect of the interaction between states on their identities and interests. Non-material factors, such as shared norms, beliefs or ideas, could constitute the social behaviour of the actors; in turn, state behaviour is shaped by the identities and interests of actors rather than given exogenously to the system by material aspects and domestic politics (Behravesh, 2011). Meanwhile, Finnemore (1996) argued that the identities and interests of actors are shaped by international forces created by international society. In other words, shared norms of international society could play a role in making state behaviour in constructivism while rationalists view states as rational egoistic actors (Erdogan, 2015: 16).

Figure 4.2. Relationship Between Actors and Structure

Actor Constitution of the Structure

Actors   **Structure**

Behaviour/Action

Interests

Identity

Domestic:
Norms
Structures

Shared norms
Ideas
Beliefs

Structure Constitution of the Actor
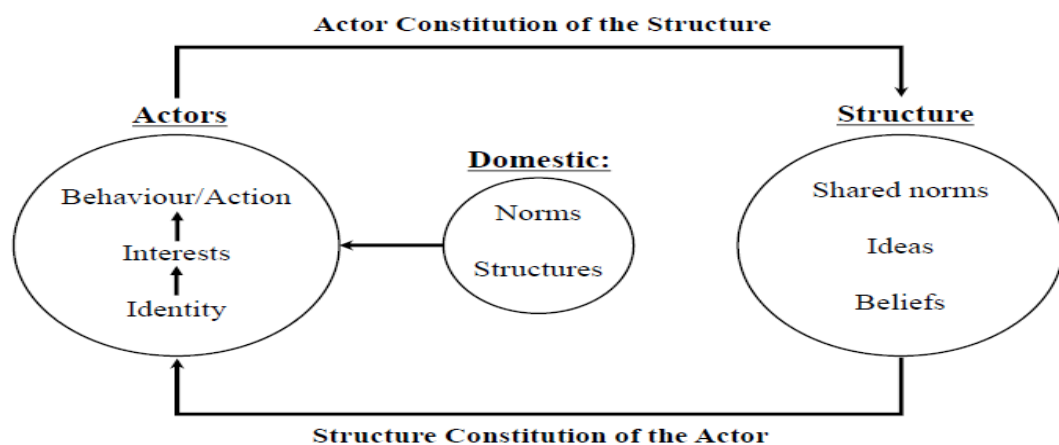
Source: Dixon (2013, p.144)

Furthermore, Finnemore (1996) suggested that international organisations exercise a strong influence on state policies through putting the norms into interests and identities. For example, constructivists argued that states might not think of a certain preference initially but come to hold certain the preference via the interactions of many transnational actors in international society. Thus, constructivism concentrates on the social identities and interests of the actors created by the norms of international society or the interaction between states, which could shape state behaviour.

Thirdly, "ideational structures and actors or agents who are known as individuals, states or non-state actors are mutually constitutive each other and codetermined" (Wendt, 1999, p.184). This means that actors and structures within states are not exclusively attributed to the states' interests (Hopf, 1998). Ideational structures, especially shared norms and ideas, are widely known to constitute the identities and interests of actors. Likewise, constructivism stated that the ideational structures are revised, reshaped, changed and transformed by the practices made between actors (Wendt, 1999: 366). The actors or agents can redefine social and ideational structures when they feel the need to change the structures. To sum up, constructivism views the international system and society as having socially constructed each other, not given exogenously, and that the interests and identities of actors and ideational structures are definitely mutual.

International norms are a key concept to explain the relations between domestic and international politics in constructivism. International norms have a wide impact on state behaviour, unlike neoliberalism, which recognises norms in certain issue areas. Moravcsik (1995) argued that international norms influence the incentives related to societal actors and politicians, that is, international norms restrictively affect behaviour in liberal theory. Generally, norms indicate "only that as a rule states engage in such practices", which include all patterns of behaviours (Thomson, 1993, p.81). Axelrod (1986) defined norms as standardised behaviours. Similarly, Katzenstein (1996: 54) noted that norms are a collective expectation for the appropriate behaviour of actors. Therefore, norms refer to some patterns

aggregated from customs, institutions, cultures and rules, all of which affect the behaviour of states.

In terms of the diffusion of international norms, once norms come into the domestic level, states will likely either proscribe or prescribe the norms. It could depend on the cultural, legal and political framework of the states. At the moment, compliance would take place if states embrace norms as a role of a social structure (Finnermore, 1996). Specifically, the movement of norms tend to be accelerated by international organisations, which establish national guidelines to push international norms into national policies (Finnemore, 1996). International norms mainly diffuse to the state level by integrating into the values and beliefs of the actors (Cortell & Davis, 2000). In addition, norms not only constitute the identities of actors but also sometimes constrain their identities and interests. For example, congressional representatives, government bureaucrats, pressure groups and national decision makers, who are known as political and societal agents, have been affected by international norms (Klotz, 1995).

Despite being a new form of analysis tool to help understand the international political situation affecting the identities and interests of states, constructivism is still marked by doubts, especially from the neorealism perspective. Firstly, although neorealists recognise the presence of international norms, powerful states do not comply with the norms if these deviate from their interests (Jackson & Sorensen, 2006). Historically, powerful states post-war have often infringed the autonomous right and domestic institutions of weak states, which had a considerable effect on the latter's behaviour (Krasner, 1994). Neorealists argue that the international system makes states egoistic and competitive because they operate in a condition of international anarchy, offensive capabilities and mistrust (Jackson & Sorensen, 2006). From the neorealism perspective, mutual cooperation among states seems impossible in the structure of an international system, and especially, uncertainty caused by anarchy cannot be sufficiently explained by constructivism.

Another crucial issue is that constructivists have taken some criticism because they cannot provide well-defined arguments to explain why important issues

and discourses rise and fall (Jackson & Sorensen, 2006). Neorealists pointed out that constructivists finally explained the changes by employing material structures and factors. Jervis (1998) even contended that constructivism fails to explain how international norms, identities and interests are formed and defined. In this regard, constructivists argued that they have been studying change even more than neorealists, and are trying to combine it with liberals and international society theorist to emphasise the presence of interests and values among states (Jackson & Sorensen, 2006). Liberal theories are mainly based on democracy, cooperation and international institution, which can contribute to explaining the existences of norms and ideas that are crucial to constructivism. Although constructivists stand opposite to neorealists, they have been seeking to elaborate the relations among states and the state behaviour based on the norm life cycle.

4.3.2. Actors in Constructivism

Until the early 1990s, mainstream IR theories used to ignore the role of non-state actors in the process of determining state interests. On the contrary, the concept of construction within constructivism itself indicates creation via a process of interaction between diverse agents, especially individuals, states and non-state actors as well as their environment (Behravesh, 2011). In particular, the increasingly democratic nature of a global world has enabled non-state actors to be significant agents around the world. Constructivism considers non-state actors as key actors as much as state actors. Non-state actors refer to politically influential individuals or organisations that could exert their influences on state preferences as well as international issues as norm makers and agents of change in international politics. They include transnational actors, IGOs, sub-state actors and transnational advocacy networks (TANs).

Transnational actors have been emerging as actors influencing national-level policy since the 1990s (Stone, 2004). In addition to national policy, transnational actors have become the most critical factors to draw policy ideas on diverse international issues (Johnson, 2006). Beland and Orenstein (2009) argued that there

are indirect and direct ways in which transnational actors can be involved in domestic politics. The indirect way is for transnational actors to engage in creation and diffusion activities of the norms at a domestic level. For instance, some organisations could hold relevant seminars or activities to spread norms, agendas or ideas (Orenstein, 2008). The direct way is for transnational actors to try and find certain partners who seem suitable to affect their purposes in the countries.

As a result of the partnership with domestic actors, they would expect to turn their minor point into a major one in domestic politics (Jacoby, 2008). In this regard, Beland and Orenstein (2009) implied that transnational actors provide several capabilities with their domestic partners. For example, they bring their own legitimacy, expertise and resources, all of which might far outweigh some of what domestic actors have. They also have distinctive power, especially perceived legitimacy, to persuade domestic actors. Finally, they can bring important material resources and ideational ones. They can support domestic partners by offering research materials, policy models, personnel and even funding the activities of the partners. These capabilities may contribute towards diffusing international norms and in turn mobilising certain people on a certain issue.

Transnational actors are commonly known as MNCs and NGOs. MNCs refer to multinational companies or global enterprises (e.g. Coca Cola and Barclays Bank) that are emerging actors for domestic and international issues through which they mainly seek to maximise their profits. NGOs are considered as major actors in the context of constructivism and are always present around international issues. NGOs are a type of private actor, and the states cannot become a member of the organisations. NGOs play a vital role in bringing up new concepts and persuading the states and other actors to change their identities and behaviour (Keck & Sikkink, 1998: 12). International Red Cross and Amnesty International are notable examples of NGOs, and they often cooperate with other states, MNCs and sub-state actors.

In view of constructivism, IGOs are known as a type of international organisations and are global key actors with autonomous bureaucracies at the international level (Barnett & Finnemore, 2004: 3). These organisations, such as the

UN, the World Bank and the IMF, are formed by a global community of at least three nation-states that seek their individual and joint interests. Although the organisations were created by the nation-states, they can shape domestic preferences in indirect and direct ways owing to their independent and autonomous position (Abbot & Snidal, 1998). They are considered as active agents of world politics because of their liberal goals and relatively stable structure, which lead towards new policy ideas, priorities and programmes (Barnett & Finnemore, 2004: 31). IGOs could be involved in shaping states and their interests (Finnemore, 1996). In other words, they serve to deliver to the states the norms of international society, which then influences the interests, identities and even policies of the states.

Meanwhile, TANs serve to link a variety of actors with actors who eventually play a critical role in shaping national preferences. TANs refer to a voluntary group of organisations and individuals who seek to work towards a common goal by sharing values, a common discourse, information and service (Keck & Sikkink, 1998: 2). TANs embrace a wide range of organisations, groups, individuals and even a certain part of government, such as IGOs, NGOs, the media, consumers and religious entities (Keck & Sikkink, 1998).

Lastly, sub-state actors are defined as domestic actors, including individuals or organisations, which have a power to affect foreign and domestic policies. They often use interest groups, lobbies, political parties or donations to get involved in state policies. Consequently, both non-state and state actors have become increasingly important actors or agents that lead to significant domestic and international changes. In particular, globalisation has begun pushing the boundaries between domestic issues and international issues. It would be necessary to understand ideational factors and structures to deal with various issues, such as development, human rights, environment and peace, all over the world. Therefore, non-state actors should be considered to explore national preference formation because this has a strong impact on domestic politics through the international norms embedded in international society.

4.3.3. International Norms

The core of constructivism is that the relationship between actors and ideational structure is mutually constitutive (Wendt, 1999: 184-188). Holistic constructivism, which seeks to embrace two conflicting approaches, argues that a "socialisation process internal to a state can change the state's identity and interests independently of international interaction" (Copeland, 2000, p.199). The approach aims to combine domestic identities with shared norms of international society to explain the identities of actors and further state behaviour. Domestic norms seem to be entangled with international norms. Actually, many international norms have originated as a demand for domestic pressures and then globalised by the continuous effort of diverse actors.

The norm life cycle suggested by Finnemore and Sikkink (1998: 895) refers to the mutual mechanism that explains the origins of international norms, the processes through which norms affect state or non-state behaviour and which norms would be more important under certain conditions. As Table 4.2 indicates, there are three main stages to the norm life cycle: emergence, cascade and internalisation. Table 4.3 indicates that different kinds of actors, motives and mechanisms play a role in each stage (Finnemore & Sikkink, 1998: 898). The first stage, norm emergence, is related to the process of norm building. It mainly occurs when norm entrepreneurs try to persuade norm leaders who are important actors in states to sympathise with new norms (Finnemore & Sikkink, 1998: 899-900). In addition to norm entrepreneurs, organisational platforms have a critical role in promoting norms by norm promoters at the international level (Finnemore & Sikkink, 1998). These organisational platforms are mainly established specifically to promote the norms, which refer to TANS and NGOs, such as Greenpeace and the Red Cross (Price, 1997).

Entrepreneurs and sizable international organisations, especially the World Bank and the UN, can also work together to influence and shape the norms related to diverse issues, such as decolonisation, sovereignty and humanitarian relief (Weiss & Pasic, 1997). Sikkink (1998) noted that norms originated from collaborative effort by norm entrepreneurs within governments, international organisations and non-governmental actors. In this stage, altruism, empathy, and

ideational commitment can be motives for norm emergence. No matter what the norm entrepreneurs, platforms and organisations are, it would be significant to gain the favour of the state actors to endorse their norms (Wapner, 1996). Meanwhile, there are tipping points or threshold points between stage 1 and stage 2. These points occur right after a critical mass of states are persuaded and become norm leaders by adopting new norms (Finnemore & Sikkink, 1998: 901). Thus, the norm could become cascaded even if particular states refuse to embrace a certain norm.

Table 4.2. Norm Life Cycle

Norm emergence (Stage 1) →	Norm cascade (Stage 2) →	Internalisation (Stage 3) →
(Tipping or Threshold points)		
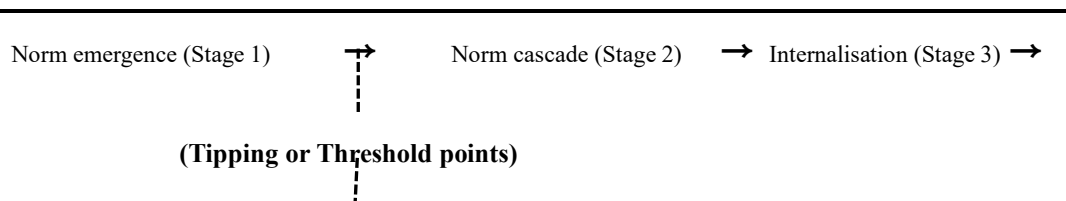
Source: Finnemore & Sikkink (1998)

Table 4.3 Each Stage of Norms

	Stage 1 Norm emergence	Stage 2 Norm cascade	Stage 3 Internalisation
Actors	Norm entrepreneurs with organisational platforms	States, international organisations, networks	Law, professions, bureaucracy
Motives	Altruism, empathy, ideational commitment	Legitimacy, reputation, esteem	Conformity
Dominant mechanisms	Persuasion	Socialisation, institutionalisation, demonstration	Habit, institutionalisation

Source: Finnemore & Sikkink (1998, p.898)

The second stage, norm cascade, is the process through which various actors as norm entrepreneurs spread the norms of other states without domestic pressures after crossing a tipping point (Finnemore & Sikkink, 1998: 902-904). At the moment, different kinds of motives could spur norm cascade, especially the pressure for

conformity, desire to reinforce legitimation and desire of state leaders to enhance self-confidence (Finnemore & Sikkink, 1998: 902-904). International socialisation is a mechanism through which states are promoted to shape their behaviour by adopting norms embedded in international society. In this regard, Barnes, Carter and Skidmore (1980: 35) argued that international socialisation is an active process and the dominant mechanism of promoting norm cascades to be able to turn norm opponents into norm followers. In international politics, diplomatic praise, condemnation, sanctions or incentives can be related to actions of socialisation, and international organisations, norm entrepreneurs and states act as agents of socialisation according to international standards (Finnemore & Sikkink, 1998: 902). In norm cascade, legitimacy, reputation and esteem can be motives for actors to follow norms.

After the end of the second phase, it would be accepted that norms are internalised by actors as if they have been taken for granted (Finnemore & Sikkink, 1998: 904). In particular, internalised norms might have considerable influences on actors or actors may be indifferent to them. Many scholars have suggested that various factors determine the degree of internalisation of international norms. In this regard, Johnston (1996) argued that different interstate systems and regime types have an influence on internalisation. Risse-Kappen, Risse, Ropp and Sikkink (1999) noted that regime types, experiences of civil war and the capabilities of domestic human rights organisations would be concerned with the extent to which states comply with norms in terms of international human rights. Additionally, Price (2003) argued that the ability of individuals, NGOs and international organisations to diffuse norms depends on the success of internalisation. This ability includes arena framing, networking, grafting and institutionalisation (Price, 2003).

In addition to the factors mentioned above, domestic political structures and environments are also considered important catalysts for internalising international norms (Sohn & Moon, 2012: 12). Charnovitz (1996) mentioned domestic institutional features, policy networks linking state and society and state accommodation to international norms and institutions as domestic political structures. Firstly, the domestic institutional features could be identified by the

degree of policy autonomy of the administration branch against other state institutions. For example, the French government's level of policy autonomy is relatively high due to the presidential system, but the German government's level is relatively low due to multiple institutional constraints (Kim, 2016). This difference means that if the centralisation of power and high level of policy autonomy occur in the administration, then international norms or new policies required by the pressure of societal actors or the legislative branch will not be taken seriously by the administration.

Secondly, the presence of policy networks linking state and society also indicate intermediate organisations, including a political party; a think tank, which is a group of experts; and an advisory committee, which contributes to carrying many voices of the civil society into policy-making processes (Sohn & Moon, 2012: 13). The extent to which these intermediate organisations reflect social demands could decisively affect the internalisation of international norms (Risse-Kappen, 1995: 3-30).

Lastly, the state's accommodation of international norms and institutions has an impact on the internalisation process of norms. Risse-Kappen (1995: 3-30) argued that the more centralised states are, the less they are insensitive to the international norms and international issues. In the same context, states that have a cooperative attitude to international institutions and roles are likely to react quickly and positively to international norms and agenda (Sohn & Moon, 2012: 14).

Checkel (1997: 478) argued that the mechanisms of norm diffusion can be different across domestic structures, such as liberal, corporatist, statist and state-above-society. The mechanisms have been adopted as empirical work by both rationalists and constructivist (Checkel, 1997: 477). As Table 4.4 shows, the pressures of societal actors are more important to diffuse international norms than of elites because domestic policies are generally shaped through the bottom-up, not the top-down, in the liberal structure. An example of changing policy he suggested was that of the Clinton administration deciding to prohibit exploitation of child labour as a result of global consensus and the effort of domestic and international organisations.

In the state-above-society structure, on the other hand, the power and authority of states far outweigh those of society, and therefore elite learning plays a greater role in empowering international norms than societal pressure does. For example, the leadership of Mikhail Gorbachev, which was based on a new normative understanding on international politics, decisively affected the most revolutionary change in tearing down the walls of the Cold War.

Table 4.4. Diffusion Mechanisms of International Norms

	Liberal	Corporatist	Statist	State-above-Society
Domestic mechanisms empowering international norms	Societal pressure on elites	Societal pressure on elites (primary) and elite learning (secondary)	Elite learning (primary) and societal pressure on elite (secondary)	Elite learning

Source: Checkel (1997, p.478)

In the corporatist domestic structure, a close relationship exists between state and society in the decision-making processes, but societal pressures are still considered as having a more primary role for norm empowerment than do elites in the structure (Checkel, 1997: 479). The process can be explained by the role of the Federal Republic of Germany in the European norms on citizenship, where a combination between bottom-up and top-down approaches occurs in the process of norm empowerment (Checkel, 1997: 479). Finally, elite learning plays a greater role in bringing about normative change in the statist structure than do societal actors. The influence and role of societal actors are somewhat weaker in the statist structure than in the liberal and corporatist structures. For instance, the French government enforced nuclear tests in the South Pacific in 1995 even though NGOs and many domestic organisations declared against it by offering environmental norms and conducting campaigns (Checkel, 1997).

Clearly, various domestic factors could be involved in the diffusion and internalisation of international norms embedded in international society. Above all, domestic political structures seem most important because they could directly influence the degree of diffusion of international norms and the involvement of elite groups and relevant societal actors.

4.3.4. Humanitarianism

In the international community, countries act in accordance with their national interests and the interests among states. Traditionally, in realism, national interests mean the relative forces or interests necessary for the state to compete and survive, whereas in liberalism, national interests are considered absolute power. However, constructivism, which emerged rapidly as a theory in the 1980s and early 1990s against the existing mainstream IR theory, regards national interests as variable. While neorealism explains the action of the state with the logic of power, constructivism views such action through culture and norms. In constructivism, the national interest claims to be changed and constructed by subjective and social factors, such as norms, ideas or expectations. In other words, the state is a social being that can pursue common values through understanding and internalisation of international norms (Park, 2012). Constructivism thereby recognises normative structures as an important factor in state behaviour.

Constructivists believe that norms, ideas or expectations are shaped by the interactions between actors of various international societies, including transnational actors, IGOs and individuals (Park, 2012). These non-material factors collected from the international community affect national behaviour through the process of diffusion and internalisation of various non-state actors. In the 2000s, discussions on the global standards of international development cooperation for the reduction of poverty and inequality became active. Major international organisations and inter-state consultative bodies, such as the UN, the OECD, G8 and G20 summits, have emphasised the importance of international development cooperation based on common principles, shared ideas and norms (Kim & Hong, 2014: 176). For example, the World Development Assistance Conference held in Korea in 2011 provided a platform for establishing a cooperative partnership for international development cooperation with the participation of various actors, including international organisations, civil society, local governments and academia (Kim & Hong, 2014: 176). These activities play a leading role in the formation and change of norms and ideas related to international development cooperation.

The epistemic differences surrounding international development cooperation are divided into two main motivations: from a national interest perspective and a humanitarianism perspective. Usually, states seek to simultaneously realise the universal value of mankind and political, diplomatic and economic interests when carrying out international development cooperation. However, the newly emerged non-state actors are challenging the existing state's pursuit of national interests, mainly by pursuing humanitarian policies (Kim, 2012: 21). Constructivism is a framework for understanding the impact of non-material factors, such as humanitarianism, on national levels (Son & Moon, 2012: 10). Humanitarian motivation in international development cooperation begins with the moral obligation of the international community to pursue absolute poverty relief for universal human values (ODA Korea, 2017). The international community has recently recommended international development cooperation based on interdependent values through multilateralism, but such cooperation seems only possible if humanitarian values are accompanied first.

The principles of universal humanitarianism are largely divided into four main categories: humanity, impartiality, neutrality and independence (MOFAT, 2019). Humanity is intended to relieve pain and save the lives of those affected by disasters. Impartiality means demand-based support without discrimination by person. Neutrality is the exclusion of favourable consideration for one side in a conflict. Independence means excluding support for political, economic and military purposes. This principle of humanitarianism covers the vulnerable groups of children, women and refugees, as well as areas such as health, education, vocational training and livelihood support.

Sports can play a role in effectively realising humanitarian values. In 2003, the UN adopted sports as a means of promoting education, health, development and peace (Cheung-Gaffney, 2018). Indeed, sports-based programmes are recognised as a tool available to reach the MDGs and SDGs announced by the UN. The SfD programme, along with various development fields, advocates and practices humanitarianism as a basic value. The government and private organisations mentioned that sport has long been used as a tool for global development and

humanitarian assistance because it has the ability to change individual lives in a unique and powerful manner (USAID, 2020). For example, the BMZ in Germany, along with the Afghan Ministry of Education, the DFB and the Afghan Football Association, provided school sports programmes for girls and sports coaching courses for female teachers (GIZ, 2016). The UNICEF conducted a health-promoting SfD programme for about 4,500 youth in Syria (UNICEF, 2019). The IOC provided humanitarian sports assistance to help refugees in countries around the world for more than two decades (IOC, 2020). Most SfD programmes are based on a variety of humanitarian values, regardless of who is the actor and what the purpose is.

Korea has a common goal of practicing humanitarianism along with political, diplomatic and economic interests through international development cooperation (ODA Korea, 2017). In particular, it has emphasised solidarity and cooperation with the international community on various issues that must be jointly addressed. In the area of sports, most SfD programmes in Korea aim to practice the MDGs and SDGs directly or indirectly. This means that Korea has been participating in SfD programmes to achieve humanitarianism and sustainable development. In conclusion, states have various motivations in carrying out international development cooperation, such as SfD activities, but humanitarian activities can be seen as the minimal responsibility to achieve the universal values of mankind.

4.4. Theoretical Adaptation

4.4.1. Criteria for Identifying Hypotheses

As mentioned earlier, two main research questions are answered in this study: (1) How far have national preferences played a role in the Korean SfD approach? (2) How far have non-material factors played a role in the Korean SfD approach? National preferences regarding the Korean SfD approach are explored using both liberal IR and national preference formation theories. This study adds liberal IR theory because the theory provides fundamental assumptions of national preference formation theory. For example, liberal IR theory recognises the relations between a state and society and highlights the importance of the role of societal groups with

their own interests and identities. The influence of international norms on the Korean SfD approach is explained by constructivism.

To examine the Korean SfD approach under a combination of liberal national preference formation theory with constructivism, establishing equal criteria between two theories could be crucial. The same criteria help the researchers clarify what to exactly control for and analyse in the study. In particular, establishing the same criteria between two theories would be important to acquire better validity and reliability in the study. Based on the research questions mentioned in Chapter 1, the criteria consist of (1) main actors, (2) development process, (3) role of government, (4) support and (5) motive.

Firstly, main actors specify who are significantly involved in each SfD programme. Secondly, development process is needed to understand overall the phenomenon of Korean SfD programmes, which would confirm how the Korean SfD programmes have been designed and implemented. Thirdly, role of government explains the position and role of the government as an agent or actor of the state during the process. Next, support plays a role in identifying who picks up money for each SfD programme. Finally, motive explores why relevant actors engage in the Korean SfD programmes.

4.4.2. Adaptation Propositions to Hypotheses

Propositions and hypotheses have similar meanings and may even be mixed. However, they are definitely different concepts. Firstly, a proposition refers to a statement between two existing concepts. Cooper and Schindler (1998, p.131) indicated that a proposition is "a statement about concepts that may be judged true or false if it refers to observable phenomena". Propositions usually come from previous research, rational assumptions and existing evidence from research. They indicate a relation or connection of existing concepts that may potentially be proven in the future. On the other hand, hypotheses are empirically testable statements that are derived and tested from these propositions. Hypotheses must be empirically

testable and measurable for a specific scientific question. In other words, the measurable form of the proposition can turn into a hypothesis for empirical testing.

The main actors can be a significant determinant to figure out the process of national preference formation. States are the primary and unitary actors of world affairs (Wendt, 1999: 8-10). Liberal intergovernmentalism continues to treat the state as a unitary actor (Moravcsik & Schimmelfennig, 2009). Kim (2016) argued that interest groups and citizens are also key actors in the domestic policy-making process. However, although the preference and policies of the state are decisively affected by the pressure and interests of societal actors, the state is still considered the most important actor in realising its interests and policies in international development cooperation. State actors include the actors that exercise power and authority on behalf of the state, such as government and quasi-governmental organisations, because the state is abstract and cannot be seen. Thus, the state is still the principal actor for shaping and achieving national preferences.

The Korean government has been strengthening its system and support for international development cooperation through sports since joining the OECD DAC in 2010. In fact, the government and quasi-government organisations are directly and indirectly involved in various SfD programmes. Considering the importance of state actors in national preference formation theory and the Korean SfD programmes, the following hypothesis is proposed.

H 1-1: State actors have played a critical role in the formation and development of the Korean SfD programmes.

In terms of constructivism, states are still significant but are no longer the only actors in world politics (Nye & Keohane, 1971: 330). The post-Cold War and new international social issues have brought about the emergence of various actors and interactions, which give rise to the change of the political process. In particular, constructivists view non-state actors as equally important as state actors. Deacon (2004) argued that the importance of transnational actors has been increasing since the 1990s. These include MNCs and NGOs, which play vital roles in involving

domestic politics through direct and indirect ways and even initiated the spreading of international norms and ideas into the domestic area. IGOs are also key actors with autonomous bureaucracies in view of constructivism (Barnett & Finnemore, 2004). As the status of local governments, which serve as a platform between the state and the people, increased day by day, local governments as one of the new non-state actors began to draw attention. The state is still an important actor, but since the 1990s, non-state actors, including transnational actors, IGOs, local governments and civil society, have emerged as major actors with a decisive influence on domestic policy decisions.

Meanwhile, an effort towards the SfD approach started with individuals and a few international organisations in the early 1990s. They formed a transnational society and network to combine sports with development. In other words, the SfD approach has been based on the activities of transnational cooperation and non-state actors, which exercise an influence over each country and domestic politics and actors. In fact, non-state actors, especially civil society, sports-related NGOs, the UN, the OECD and MNCs, have been carrying out numerous SfD programmes to achieve various goals in the Global South, such as Africa, Asia and South America. In the light of the context of constructivism and the development and emergence of SfD approach, the following is proposed.

H 1-2: Both state and non-state actors have played a critical role in the formation and development of Korean SfD programmes.

National preference formation theory notes that national preferences are created through domestic politics through the interactions between state and society (Moravcsik, 1993). In particular, national preferences can change depending on domestic politics. In democratic societies, policies related to foreign countries tend to be influenced by representative institutions, societal pressures and constraints forced by interest groups (Moravsik, 1997). National preferences are actually affected by diverse pressures and forces of societal actors, such as interest groups, companies, relevant organisations or media. In liberal theories of IR, pressures and

constraints of societal actors could have an effect on certain issues and situations towards the government (Nye, 1981).

Meanwhile, Korean sport policies still tend to be planned and implemented by a state-led approach, but there have been various stakeholders. Since the 1990s, democratisation has also increased the importance and influence of societal actors in Korea. In particular, various societal actors are likely to engage in the Korean SfD approach because the policy has practically been implemented in the manner of external programmes or projects. Given the relationship among the concepts of national preference formation processes and the reality of the Korean SfD approach and sport policies, the next hypothesis is put forward.

H 2-1: Korean SfD programmes have been formed and developed through domestic politics by the interactions between the state and societal actors.

From constructivism perspectives, national preferences cannot be taken as given (Wendt, 1992). Since the end of the Cold War, mainstream theories could not adequately explain state identities and behaviours (Daddow, 2003). Instead, it has been argued that state behaviour can be shaped by the identities and interests of actors (Behravesh, 2011). Finnemore (1996) argued that the identities and interests of actors are formed by international forces, especially ideational and normative structures, such as norms, ideas and beliefs. Compared to liberal theory (Moravcsik, 1995), which recognises the importance of norms as having a relatively limited role, constructivists argue that international norms are the key elements affecting state behaviour. In the same vein, non-material factors, such as shared ideas, campaigns, expectations, settings, practices, pressures or agenda created by the international scene, have influenced the process of national policy or policy-making decision.

Meanwhile, the SfD approach is regarded as an internationally standardised behaviour to deal with social issues through sports activities all over the world. This approach has come to be called an international norm through the effort of the cooperation of various domestic and international actors within the transnational societies and then diffused into each country. It has been recognised as an effective

campaign or shared idea for personal and social development across the world. Given the fact that non-material structures or concepts created by international society are considered as an important factor to shape state preferences, thus leading to changing state behaviour, the following is hypothesised:

H 2-2: Korean SfD programmes have been formed and developed through non-material factors, such as international norms, ideas, practices, settings, pressures, expectations or campaigns embedded in the international society.

In terms of the role of the government, the government mainly indicates a group of people or a system that governs the state. Kim (2016) argued that government preferences point to national preferences, which means that the government is deeply involved in national preference formation. The relationship between the government and society is considered to be an agent–principal relationship. The actions and courses of the government are affected by the pressure of domestic actors and society (Moravcsik, 1992). Specifically, the preferences of the government are empowered or constrained by societal groups depending on their gains and losses expected from particular policies (Milner, 1988). That is to say, the government strives to gather the various opinions of societal actors and then incorporates them into actual policies. It plays a role in aggregating the preferences of diverse social actors, which finally lead to the shaping of national preferences.

In the past, Korean sport policies were implemented through a state-led approach by senior officials and several elites within the government. Since the democratisation in the 1980s, most policies in Korea have started to reflect the opinions and interests of diverse societal members and groups in the policy-making process. In fact, societal actors have proposed policies and participated in the decision-making process, and the government has played a role in collecting their needs and opinions. The MCST and the MOFAT are directly related to the SfD approach, and they listen to and reflect the opinions of various civil society. In other words, interactions between the government and societal actors would be necessary to plan and implement SfD programmes. Considering the role of the government in relations to national preferences formation, the following is proposed.

H 3-1: The Korean government has reflected the preferences of various societal actors in Korean SfD programmes.

The government might be concerned with international norms, which can be the key conduit to carry international institutions into the national-level policy process. Klotz (1995) argued that government bureaucrats and national decision makers are affected by international norms. These actors can internalise the norms (Sikkink, 1993). In this regard, Sohn and Moon (2012) argued that states, individuals, non-state actors and networks are considered as vehicles that promote the internalisation of non-material factors. Of course, the government is not always affirmative to these norms. Internalised norms may have a powerful influence on state behaviour or remain insignificant. However, the more states actively participate in the activities of international organisations, the more their international norms and agendas converge (Keohane, 1989). Hence, it is believed that the internalisation of non-material factors and agendas would be easier for states and favourable to the factors or the efforts of international organisations or non-state actors on specific issues.

Similarly, the Korean government spontaneously encounters international norms regarding the SfD approach while aggregating various preferences and establishing SfD-related policies. The non-material factors created by international society might or might not match up with the preferences of the Korean government. The government could ultimately decide whether the non-material factors related to the SfD approach conform to national preferences. However, Korean governments have traditionally been favourable to the norms and activities of the international community in many areas. In particular, Korea intends to participate actively in international development cooperation as the first country to be transformed from a recipient country to a donor country around the world. Given the basic attitude and historical background of Korea on international development cooperation, the following is hypothesised.

H 3-2: The Korean government has reflected the non-material factors or agendas on the SfD approach embedded in the international society in Korean SfD programmes.

As previously mentioned, national preferences are formed through domestic politics by the interaction between state and society. Moravcsik (1993) argued that the identities and interests of the major societal actors would probably affect the direction of foreign policy. However, states are considered as primary actors for shaping and achieving national preferences. States can decide the magnitude of support depending on the preferences they have towards certain issues. Of course, state actors synthesised the opinions and pressures of societal actors, but act on behalf of the state in the international community. As a result, support would be decisively affected by state actors.

In relation to the SfD approach, the Korean government has provided each programme with an allocated budget every year. The government is responsible for developing an overall plan for Korea's SfD approach. Although Korean SfD programmes might be managed with the support and cooperation of various actors, the role and authority of the Korean government are absolute, so it will take the lead in supporting various resources necessary for implementing SfD programmes. Considering the process of national preference formation, the following is proposed.

H 4-1: Support for Korean SfD programmes has been influenced by state actors.

Constructivists noted that social structures form the identities and interests of actors and result in shaping the behaviours of actors and states (Wendt, 1995: 71-72). In particular, the identities and interests of actors are affected by non-material factors, such as shared norms, ideas, values and beliefs created in international society. Specifically, in the process of internalising international norms into a state, non-state actors might play an additional role in providing information, technology and financial support to help non-material factors settle down at a domestic level. Beland and Orenstein (2009: 3) noted that transnational actors bring important ideational

and material resources in the domestic policy environment. Such resources include personnel, funding, policy framework or publications. If non-state actors are involved in domestic politics, then it is likely that they provide the various resources they possess to realise their non-material factors or agendas.

Traditionally, the SfD approach began in the transnational network and helped the Korean government adopt the agenda related to international development cooperation through sports. There have currently been some interactions among state and non-state actors regarding the SfD approach in Korea. When programmes or projects are promoted as a result of the interactions among relevant actors, various information, practical knowledge, and material, human and financial resources are accompanied from non-state actors, network or society. In fact, many countries and non-state actors in the Global North usually provide financial, human and equipment support for SfD programmes in the Global South region. Given the relevant statements from constructivism and the general spreading path of SfD approach, the next hypothesis is put forward.

H 4-2: Support for Korean SfD programmes has been influenced by non-state actors as well as state actors.

Diverse determinants can affect national preference formation. Moravcsik and Schimmelfennig (2009: 69) noted that national preferences are driven by geopolitical issues or issue-specific interests. Aspinwall (2007) stated that national preferences are mainly driven by economic elements and interests. Moravcsik (1998: 6, 35-50) noted that economic interests are considered far more important than geopolitical interests in shaping national preferences. Economic interests are closely related to diverse societal actors, such as business groups, trade unions and interest groups. However, these interests do not only determine the national preferences and state behaviour. The key determinants could be changed depending on the issues and interests. In other words, both geopolitical and economic interests are in line with the national interests' point of view.

Traditionally, Korean ODA projects were driven by national interests, especially economic interests. The increase in exports to the recipient country seems an important determinant of ODA allocation processes. In addition, the Korean ODA is influenced not only by geopolitical motive, such as traditional military alliances or ideologies, historical relationships, security considerations, and foreign policy between donor countries and recipient countries, but also mutual economic interests (ODA Korea, 2017). Aside from pursuing the humanitarian aspect, the Korean ODA likewise enhances political and foreign affairs, creating a new economic market and pushing the so-called natural resource diplomacy. Given the fact that national preferences are mainly driven by national interests, such as economic interests and geopolitical interests, the following is hypothesised.

H 5-1: Korean SfD programmes have been driven by national interests.

Since the end of the Cold War, the efforts of the international community have been strengthened to deal with various social issues, such as democracy, gender equality, human rights and humanitarianism. In terms of constructivism, non-state actors have played a role in diffusing international norms regarding arguable issues as much as state actors have. For example, IGOs, especially the UN and the World Bank, are based on independent and autonomous authority, which serves to deliver the humanitarian norms created by an international society into state preferences (Weiss & Pasic, 1997). To sum up, constructivists noted that ideational and normative structures, especially norms, ideas or values, could create the preferences and identities of actors, which help spread out the humanitarian value into state preferences.

Sports have become an increasingly important part of the humanitarian and development fields (Sportanddev, 2020). The MDGs and SDGs scheme sought to achieve both development and humanitarian goals, which have led to the promotion of the SfD approach across the world. This circumstance has finally resulted in the creation and diffusion of non-material factors (Hulme & Fukuda-Parr, 2009: Chapter 3). Around the world, the SfD approach has contributed to achieving development goals in the well-being of individuals and societies (Shilbury, Sotiriadou & Green,

2008). As Coalter (2007) suggested, the SfD approach can be divided into sport-plus and plus-sport approaches depending on where a specific priority is placed.

Despite the criticism on the SfD approach about its imperialistic and neo-colonial views, it is clear that the approach essentially aims to deal with diverse issues and problems facing developing countries from the humanitarian point of view. The humanitarian motive is also one of the key values for implementing ODA projects. It is regarded as the moral duty of the international community to seek absolute poverty relief for realising the universal basic values of man (ODA Korea, 2017). Considering the fundamental goals of the SfD approach and the activities of non-state actors in the context of constructivism, the hypothesis below is proposed.

H 5-2: Korean SfD programmes have been driven by a humanitarian motive.

Table 4.5 shows the hypotheses considering each proposition based on the theoretical framework to address the research questions.

Table 4.5. Hypothesis for Each Proposition

Criteria	H	National Preference Formation Theory	H	Constructivism
Actors	1-1	State actors play a critical role in the formation and development of Korean SfD programmes.	1-2	Both state and non-state actors play a critical role in the formation and development of Korean SfD programmes.
Development Process	2-1	Korean SfD programmes have been formed and developed through domestic politics by the interactions between state actors and societal actors.	2-2	Korean SfD programmes have been formed and developed through non-material factors, such as international norms, ideas, practices, settings, pressures, expectations or campaigns embedded in the international society.
Role of Government	3-1	The Korean government has reflected the preferences of various societal actors in Korean SfD programmes.	3-2	The Korean government has reflected the non-material factors or agendas on the SfD approach embedded in the international society in Korean SfD programmes.
Support	4-1	Support for Korean SfD programmes has been influenced by state actors.	4-2	Support for Korean SfD programmes has been influenced by both state and non-state actors.
Motive	5-1	Korean SfD programmes have been driven by national interests.	5-2	Korean SfD programmes have been driven by a humanitarian motive.

5. Research Methodology

This chapter presents research method to be applied to this study. Based on specific methods for post-positivism, multiple case studies, data collection, data analysis and validity and reliability test suggested by Yin's case study method, various methods and procedures are presented to enhance validity and reliability.

Research methodology is a systematic way to address research problems and questions. Rajasekar, Philominathan and Chinnathambi (2013) described research methodology as a plan of action by which researchers seek to describe and predict a certain phenomenon. This chapter presents the research paradigm, methods, strategy, designs and ethical considerations employed in this study to address the research questions. The main research question is how far national preferences and/or non-material factors or agenda have played a role in the Korean SfD approach.

This study comprehensively follows the research methods and processes mentioned and suggested by Yin (2014); Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2016); and Bryman (2016). As Figure 5.1 shows, Saunders et al. (2016) suggested a specific research process known as the research onion. They argued that no better research philosophy exists, only a research philosophy and methods that can be matched with the research questions. Such philosophy and methods could result in well-organised methods for data collection and analysis. In the research onion, each process should align itself with the research purposes and questions, which would lead to the reliability and validity of the research.

Figure 5.1. Research Onion
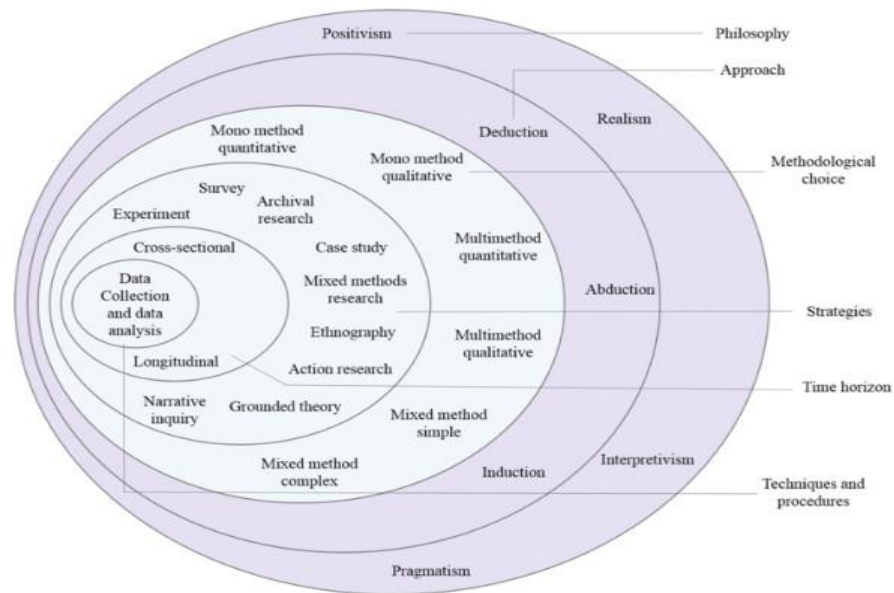
The research 'onion' (Source: Saunders et al. 2016, p. 164)

5.1. Research Paradigm

Research mainly builds on specific philosophical assumptions that could guide the research process and how the research problems can be solved. The research approaches, methods and designs are subject to guided philosophical assumptions. In this context, philosophical assumptions are considered an important element to enhance the validity of the research.

A paradigm is a framework of a shared view of the world guided by philosophical assumptions as to the nature of social reality, the nature of the relationship between the researcher and the reality as well as ethics and value systems in the research (Patton, 2002). Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) argued that research paradigm consists of three main dimensions: ontology, epistemology and methodology. These dimensions are interrelated with one another to understand the nature of social reality, philosophy of knowledge and phenomena in practice. In particular, social phenomena are formed by two fundamental philosophical assumptions of the researcher: ontological and epistemological assumptions (Burrell & Morgan, 2017).

Establishing philosophical assumptions plays a role in setting the background, nature and knowledge of the research. As Figure 5.2 indicates, two dimensions are regarded as an encompassing structure or system, which help the researchers adopt appropriate research strategies, methods and designs for systematic and scientific inquiry to answer the research questions. Therefore, it could be necessary to look at essential ideas of two philosophical assumptions and figure out what philosophical stances are taken in the study in terms of the nature of social reality and the philosophy of knowledge.

Figure 5.2. Research Procedure
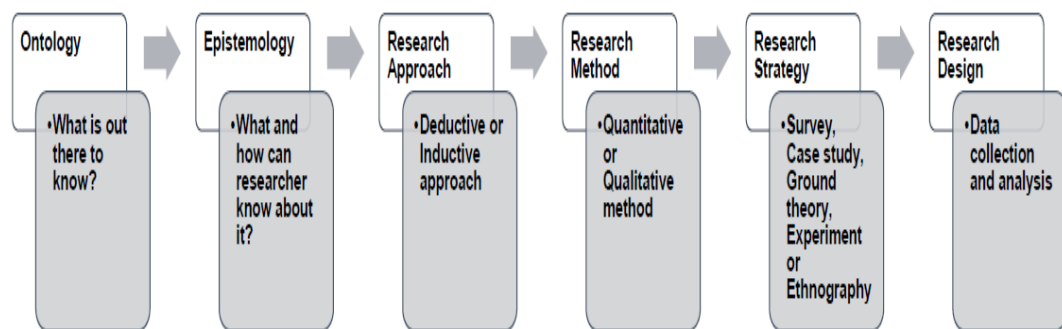
5.1.1. Ontology

Ontology is concerned with the nature of reality and what constitutes it. It refers to the nature of social entities and what it is possible to know about world view (Snape & Spencer, 2003). Bryman (2016) defined ontology as a philosophical consideration concerned with the nature of social entities. Specifically, ontology is a type of assumption that concerns the nature of social reality and the social world (Richards, 2003). It has something to do with where the nature and structure of the world are located from the perspective of social actors. Despite the various assumptions in ontology, it is mainly divided into two main positions: objectivism and constructivism.

Objectivism is an ontology position whereby social entities independently have an existence external to that of social actors (Saunders et al., 2016). This means that social phenomena and reality could exist independently from human awareness

and social actors. Bryman (2016) gave concrete examples for the concept of objectivism. An organisation is believed to be a tangible object external to social actors. The organisation has rules, regulations and principle procedures for getting something done. Specific responsibilities and a hierarchical society among employees are given by the organisation. For this reason, the organisation is said to have a social entity external to and independent from the people. Objectivism has a position that reality is considered an external existence, and the world is objectively present without being influenced by social actors. This means that the nature of social entities and their meanings remains unchanged. From the academic point of view, researchers could be unbiased about social phenomena. Additionally, objectivists argue that reality as the material world can be measured and examined through direct and accurate methods and ways.

On the other hand, constructivism, which is considered a counterpart of objectivism, concerns the interactions between social actors and the world. Constructivism is an ontology position that contends "social phenomena and their meanings are continually being accomplished by social actors" (Bryman, 2012, p.33). This definition means that social objects and phenomena are socially constructed through the interactions among social actors, although an external reality exists. Constructivists argue that social awareness and meanings of the actors construct social entities that can be revised, changed, reformed and renewed by them. Bryman (2016) described a framework of constructivism as the example of objectivism. In the view of objectivism, the organisation exists independent of social actors, but constructivists assert that the nature of the organisation is socially constructed by the actors involved. For example, rules, regulations or roles of the organisation are not suddenly formed but are accomplished by the interactions of the actors. In this context, constructivism argues that researchers subjectively create by-products and new versions of social meanings that vary across time and regions (Bryman, 2016).

In conclusion, social meanings and phenomena are considered static and independent in view of objectivism while they are reconfigured at any time by human awareness and interactions.

5.1.2. Epistemology

In comparison with ontology, which concerns what the nature of social reality means, epistemology is related to knowledge that exists in social phenomena. Epistemology refers to a way of observing and understanding knowledge around the world (Crotty, 1998). Hirschheim, Klein and Lyytinen (1995) noted that epistemology is concerned with the relationship between the researcher and the knowledge. The thing is that epistemological consideration directly leads to a methodological orientation of the research that the researcher will use. Despite the variety of epistemological considerations, there are two main assumptions: positivism and interpretivism (Bryman, 2016).

Positivism is an epistemological position that focuses on uncovering a truth through scientific methods (Henning, Van Rensburg & Smit, 2004). Bryman (2016) noted that knowledge is directly based on experience and senses and should be tested before being considered as knowledge itself. The purpose of knowledge is to describe social phenomena that the researcher experiences by employing a rigorous empirical approach. Careful observation and experiment are the keys of scientific endeavours to understand social phenomena and human awareness; they emphasise facts and the causes of behaviour. If this process is incomplete and defective, then it would be difficult to call it scientific knowledge, which consists of facts, and looks for causality and fundamental laws in view of positivism.

Moreover, science in positivism is said to be conducted objectively and to be value-free, which means that researchers must distance themselves from their results (Snape & Spencer, 2003). Positivism is aligned with the nature of objectivism. For instance, positivist paradigm argues that the world is external and independent, which is unaffected by the researcher. Thus, the researchers remain detached, unprejudiced and unbiased. In addition, knowledge is viewed as tangible, objective and generalisable. Meanwhile, positivism entails the principle of both deductive and inductive approaches. According to Bryman (2016), in the inductive approach, knowledge is formed by the accumulation of facts, which provide the basis for laws.

Positivism also has the principle of the deductive approach, which presents hypotheses based on theory that can be tested, enabling causality and laws to be assessed. The ideas and thoughts of positivism have been associated with numerous theories and practices, such as Comtean-type positivism, logical positivism, behaviourism, empiricism and cognitive science. However, some criticisms and limitations on positivism have emerged since the 1960s. Owing to a lack of subjectivity in portraying social reality, interpretive constructionism and critical postmodernism have proposed alternative research approaches regarding theoretical, methodological and practical aspects (Gephart, 2004). Positivism has likewise been replaced by post-positivism because of its limitations and differences in interpreting beliefs on reality (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

Interpretivism is a term that mainly represents a contrasting epistemology to positivism (Bryman, 2016). Interpretive paradigm seeks to make sense of social phenomena through people's subjective experiences of the external world (Deetz, 1996). Given that interpretivists argue that reality is socially constructed by social actors, there exists no ideal method, approach or theories to knowledge (Willis, 1995). In other words, knowledge and meanings are deeply related to the subjective and unique interpretation of people, which means they cannot be independent of the thinking and reasoning of human beings. Social reality is constructed by shared meanings, language and consciousness of individuals. Furthermore, interpretivism is based on observation and interpretation, which are usually used to collect information and to understand the meaning of the information, respectively (Aikenhead, 1997). Thus, interpretivism attempts to explain the subjective meaning and reasons behind social action through the interactions of individuals.

Interpretivism involves assorted philosophical bases, such as hermeneutics and phenomenology (Boland, 1985). Hermeneutics is concerned with philosophy and a certain method of analysis for the interpretation of human action (Bleicher, 1980). It provides interpretivism with a fundamental philosophical basis and a way to understand meaning or textual data. Unlike positivism, which is trying to explain human behaviour, interpretivism puts an emphasis on understanding human action. Hermeneutics focuses on written text and the interpretative process, including verbal

and non-verbal types of communication, to comprehend human beings in a social context.

Moreover, interpretivism embraces some phenomenological aspects, which have an interest in describing and expressing distinct features of a certain phenomenon. Phenomenology concerns the question of how individuals make sense of the world and how they should get rid of preconceptions in their comprehension of the world (Bryman, 2016). This means that phenomenology focuses on the exploration, understanding and interpretation of knowledge derived by the researchers, whereas positivism pursues objective observation and experiment to describe social phenomena that the researchers experience.

In terms of methodological aspects, interpretivism does not seek to adopt a well-organised research design in the research process. Interpretive research does not establish independent and dependent variables but attempts to understand the complexity of human sense and actions (Kaplan & Maxwell, 2005). Researchers look to subjectively interpret and understand the world through the relationships between themselves and the participants or objects. This may be related to the use of interview and participant observation as data collection methods.

In this regard, Creswell (1998) noted that inductive qualitative research via interviews and observation would be important to describe detailed information and perceptions in phenomenological research. In addition, researchers seem to encounter difficulty in being completely objective and value-free because they inevitably become involved in the research process, especially in the data collection and findings. Lastly, researchers have their own perspectives and understandings of reality. This means that interpretivism would not be suitable to carry out the research of natural science, which seeks accurate results and facts through well-structured experiments.

5.1.3. Post-Positivist Approach to the Study

Along with establishing a topic and research questions, specific philosophical positions should be identified to guide research processes, especially overall approaches of research designs and research methods. Dash (2005, p.4) suggested "several questions in the process of specifying research paradigms and methodology. These questions are directly concerned with key elements of ontological and epistemological philosophy mentioned above". For instance, (1) What is the nature of the social phenomena being explored? (2) Are social phenomena objective in nature or created by the human mind? (3) What are the bases of knowledge corresponding to the social reality, and how can knowledge be acquired and disseminated? (4) What is the relationship of an individual with their environment? Are they conditioned by the environment or is the environment created by the individuals? Considering these questions leads to the determination of the specific research paradigm that could explicitly affect research methodology.

The main topic in this study is the SfD phenomenon in Korea, which requires an empirical study to examine in depth. The key research question is how far national preferences and/or international norms have played a role in the Korean SfD approach. To answer the question, hypotheses based on a set of propositions are tested for analytical generalisation. In addition, the study attempts to comply with the ideals of objectivity and the generalisability of results. It argues that social phenomena are objective and independent, and knowledge can mainly be acquired by experience and the senses of the researcher through an enquiry of explanation, prediction and control. For these reasons, the study adopts post-positivism approach, which embraces the basic elements of objectivism and positivism in the ontological and epistemological aspects.

Post-positivism is considered as an alternative or less strict form of positivism but tends to be aligned with objectivism, which stresses that social reality is independent of the researcher. Ellingson (2011) argued that post-positivism seeks to entail the principle of objectivity and the generalisability of results that positivists push towards. However, it may be true that post-positivism rejects the beliefs of positivism in many aspects and is influenced by critical realism (Trochim, 2002). In

this context, a modified objectivism is called post-positivism. Unlike positivism which believes that truth can be revealed and that reality can be grasped accurately, post-positivism aims at steadfastly and approximately reaching reality even though it would be impossible to achieve it. Post-positivist researchers claim that all measurements and observations to comprehend the nature of reality would be incomplete and fallible compared to the ideals of positivism (Guda & Lincoln, 1994).

In addition, the post-positivist argues that all researchers are theory-laden and inherently biased by their cultural experiences and viewpoints. Each researcher can perceive the same event or phenomenon differently, depending on their experiences, beliefs and ideas. Such awareness implies that the observations of researchers might include errors and that theories may need recommendation (Trochim, 2002). No matter what scientific method is used, research outcomes are not totally certain or objective (Crotty, 1998). That is to say, post-positivism recognises that the ability of the researcher to identify reality with certainty is limited.

To minimise the limitations and investigate what is happening in reality, the post-positivist strives to use multiple measures and observations, which is known as triangulation, to reduce diverse possibilities of errors in collecting and analysing data. Meanwhile, post-positivism maintains that knowledge is deductively made by testing propositions that are based on theories rather than careful observation. It comparatively focuses on theory falsification while positivism focuses on theory verification (Ponterotto, 2005). These states come from the argument of the post-positivism that reality exists independently, but researchers cannot perceive reality objectively and perfectly even though they approach it. According to central tenets of post-positivism, therefore, this study tries to achieve objectivism by using multiple sources and follows prescribed procedures to sustain the validity of the study. The hypotheses on the Korean SfD approach are empirically tested to produce the knowledge of the world. Lastly, the study focuses more on theory falsification rather than theory verification because the observations of the researchers are likely to involve misconceptions or mistakes.

5.2. Research Method

Research method is a necessary strategy for establishing assumptions, research design and data collection and helps researchers draw an optimal conclusion (Myers, 2019). In empirical research, researchers largely choose quantitative or qualitative methods across a type of data, especially numerical and non-numerical data, but they sometimes mix two methods depending on the kind of study and methodological framework. In addition to the type of data, quantitative and qualitative methods show clear distinctions in many aspects, including assumption, purpose, process and the role of researcher.

Quantitative method refers to the use and examination of numerical data through mathematically centred methods in order to understand phenomena (Aliaga & Gunderson, 2002). It was first introduced in the natural sciences to explain natural phenomena, and is now widely acknowledged in the social sciences, including methods such as survey, laboratory experiments and econometrics (Myers, 2019). The method is primarily based on positivism/post-positivism and empirical assumption. The researchers assume that reality is an entity that exists independently and objectively, which means they see reality as an object of objective measurement through instruments, such as a questionnaire.

In terms of its purpose, the quantitative method principally aims to describe, compare and identify causal relationships among measured variables. In the process of quantitative research, researchers predetermine hypotheses, operational terms and research procedures and take into consideration the validity and reliability of the research in advance. In this regard, Bryman (2016) noted that quantitative research is considered a highly structured method in which the researchers are able to concentrate on specific concepts and phenomena. Additionally, researchers should not be biased and interfere in the whole research process because they view a reality as independent and objective. Thus, it would be necessary to employ representative and significant sampling in quantitative research.

However, there are several criticisms of quantitative research. For example, it has been argued that the quantitative method has failed to distinguish between

researchers and social reality. Bryman (2016) argued that the researchers could have the ability to explain phenomena around the world. Many authors also pointed out that the measurement process in quantitative method seems bogus and artificial to secure validity and reliability of the research. They argue that the measurement for testing validity even appears to be fabricated, and respondents of questionnaires cannot clearly distinguish the difference among key concepts, thus affecting the measurement results (Bryman, 2016). Lastly, structured procedures and instruments in experiments and surveys sometimes prevent researchers from examining real contexts and phenomena in detail. Respondents might have different levels of knowledge, information and interests on a set of questions (Cicourel, 1982). Overall, quantitative research tends to have difficulty in deeply looking into a phenomenon because it mainly relies on limited instruments.

Compared to quantitative method, qualitative method can express various interpretations and perspectives because it seeks open, subjective and less structured approaches. Generally, qualitative method is known as "a subjective approach which includes examining and reflecting on perceptions in order to gain understanding of social and human activities" (Hussey & Hussey, 1997, p. 20). The method has been used to understand social and cultural phenomena through observation, interviews, questionnaires, documents and the impressions and reactions of the researcher (Myers, 2019).

There are three main fields in which qualitative method can be used (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2007). Firstly, the method is useful to study a lived experience, which is related to life history, cognitive psychology, phenomenology and phenomenographic research. The second field is associated with exploring the phenomena of society and culture in detail, which include the study of action research, ethnography, cultural studies, critical theory research, ethnomethodology and symbolic interactionism research. The third form is linked to investigating the area of language and communication, which embraces narrative analysis, ethnographic content analysis, ethnographic of communication and structuralism (Gall et al., 2007). Qualitative method can thus be applied to various disciplines and philosophical and methodological paradigms.

These multiple characteristics and usefulness of the qualitative method also appear in research assumptions, purposes, processes and the role of the researcher. Qualitative method is mainly based on interpretivism, constructivism and critical theory (Chase, 2005). These paradigms tend to focus on subjectively interpreting, understanding and creating social realities of the world from the point of view of each researcher. In other words, qualitative method involves an interpretive and naturalistic approach in which the reality is constructed by interactions between the researcher and the object.

Meanwhile, the main purpose of the qualitative method is to understand the everyday life of different kinds of people and communities in social and cultural contexts (Myers, 2019). Maxwell (1998) summarised the main purposes of qualitative studies: (1) understanding the lives and experiences of participants engaging in events, situations and actions; (2) understanding the behaviours of participants in a specific context; (3) identifying phenomena and influences that lead to shaping grounded theories; (4) exploring the process of particular events and actions; and (5) examining causal explanations. With these objectives, the qualitative method contributes towards providing the complexities, differences, similarities and uniqueness of the meaning of phenomena in the world (Philip, 1998).

In terms of the research process, qualitative method largely embraces flexible, changing and inductive approaches, which means that pre-designed hypotheses are unnecessary to begin research. This characteristic leads to relatively unstructured enquiry strategies, data collection methods and analysis (Creswell, 2003). The data sources mainly include rich, contextual and non-numerical data in a natural setting, such as observation, interviews, documents and texts under people, events and environments. The researcher can be an important instrument to collect and analyse data. As mentioned above, the researchers seek interaction with research objects and phenomena, revealing biased and subjective perspectives towards the research. They play a vital role in helping develop comprehension of the research environment through their own understanding in a given context (Merriam, 1998). In summary, qualitative method aims to discover phenomena based on interpretivism and

naturalistic approaches through which the researchers subjectively become involved in their own research to achieve a deep understanding of social realities.

However, these informal approaches bring about some criticisms of the qualitative method. Data are considered as flawed, weak and impractical due to the researcher's subjective position (Goulding, 2002). Similarly, Bryman (2016) pointed out that qualitative findings tend to depend on unmethodical approaches, which are based on open-ended and inductive ways. In addition, it would be difficult to replicate qualitative studies because the research has no strict procedures and instruments. The researchers can be a main instrument of data collection, which causes difficulty in the true replication of the research more than the quantitative method using statistical methods and instruments with relatively higher validity.

The qualitative method also retains the problems of generalisation of the research. Although it employs many different kinds of documents, interviews are carried out by a limited number of individuals in a certain environment. To investigate a particular phenomenon, the researchers select similar environments, people, programmes or events, which cannot explain the overall aspects of phenomena objectively and comprehensively.

Lastly, qualitative method seems unclear and transparency is lacking in the overall process of reaching the conclusion of the research (Bryman, 2016). It would be ambiguous to analyse qualitative data because the sources, such as interviews and observations, are unquantifiable and unclear. Recently, many researchers have sought to use mixed methods to complement the disadvantages and limitations of each method. Using quantitative and qualitative method together would be a good solution, but a key point is that the choice of method should depend on the research aims and questions, research topics and theoretical framework (Silverman, 2013).

Given the research aims and questions for this study, qualitative method could be the best way to understand the phenomena, especially their meaning, process and motive in detail. As stated above, this study adopts post-positivism, which focuses on empirical study and theory falsification. The purpose of the

research is to explore how far national preferences and/or international norms play a role in the Korean SfD approach. To understand the phenomena in naturalistic settings, the Korean SfD programmes are considered to comprehend how and why Korea has engaged in the SfD approach for international development and cooperation through sport. Additionally, existing theoretical frameworks on the process and motive of national preference formation are verified to be able to explain the Korean SfD approach and whether analytic generalisation is possible. Basically, theory generation is one of the key traits in qualitative method (Gummesson, 2005).

However, as Silverman (2013) said, qualitative research can adopt different kinds of methods and approaches, such as testing theory. The case study methodology suggested by Yin (2014) embraces post-positivism, deductive approach and analytical generalisation, although it belongs within qualitative method. In particular, the present study establishes hypotheses based on two main theories and a research design prior to collecting and analysing data. Therefore, analytical generalisation can be sought at the end of the study even with the use of the qualitative method. The study uses non-numerical data, including documents and interviews, which enable an extensive understanding of the Korean SfD approach. Lastly, the researcher might inevitably participate in collecting and interpreting data.

5.3. Research Strategy

Depending on the research methods, which are quantitative, qualitative and mixed, researchers can choose a suitable research strategy that helps respond to the research questions. If qualitative method is selected, then it is necessary to pick out a certain research strategy. These qualitative strategies based on textural data have emerged as alternatives owing to the limitations of quantitative strategies. Qualitative strategies have a primary meaning in understanding human life and discovering meaning through experiencing and interacting with human beings. Among the many diverse strategies, the five main qualitative strategies are grounded theory, phenomenological study, ethnography, content analysis and case studies (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001).

Firstly, grounded theory means the "researcher attempts to derive a general, abstract theory of a process, action, or interaction grounded in the views of participants in a study" (Creswell, 2003, p.14). It seeks to establish an appropriate theory from data collected in the field rather than from the research literature by using an inductive approach with interviews and documents. In other words, grounded theory investigates how and why people behave in a certain situation, which leads to explaining human behaviour through theorisation processes. In particular, it is useful under the situation where there exists little research and theory explaining the research topic and certain behaviours of the groups or people.

Secondly, phenomenological study aims to understand the story of the experience of individuals from their point of view (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001). In this strategy, the participants' perceptions of the situation are considered as key to answering the research question. In particular, the experiences of the participants are involved in both the outward appearance and inward consciousness on the basis of memory, image and meaning (Creswell, 1998). Phenomenological study allows participants to state their experiences and further their own meaning and viewpoints on the phenomena. It focuses on finding the essential meaning within a certain situation, whereas grounded theory focuses on the process of how individuals recognise and solve the certain situation.

Third, ethnography is a research strategy that aims to describe the unique cultures of individuals in societies from their point of view (Murchison, 2010). The researchers believe that each group or society has a special culture that can change across time and place. Moreover, it is necessary to gain and analyse data by interacting with those who are part of the study in the field through observations and in-depth interviews. Fourth, content analysis defines a strategy as an enquiry on the contents of a particular body of language and texts for objective, systematic and quantitative description. The forms of human communication mainly include books, newspapers, historical records, letters, various articles and text of a speech to identify patterns or themes (Williams, 2007). Content analysis is mainly used to quantitatively analyse documents because it is a type of literature review research.

Lastly, case study is a research strategy that accurately examines and analyses certain issues or phenomena going on around human beings, groups, organisations or programmes. Various researchers have put forward a number of definitions and concepts of case study. This means that case study still does not have a consensus on the well-defined and well-organised design of implementation (Yin, 2014). Nevertheless, Yin, Merriam and Stake are considered dominant authors who suggest the overall procedures of how to conduct a case study (Creswell, Hanson, Plano & Morales, 2007). Yin (2014) defined case study as a comprehensive research strategy to explore a contemporary phenomenon within its real context. He focused on an empirical inquiry investigating the case or cases by using 'how' or 'why' questions about the phenomenon. As his case study embraced post-positivism, it sought the ideals of objectivity and analytical generalisability of research results (Ellingson, 2011).

Stake and Merriam also considered case study as an intensive study to understand important circumstances or phenomenon through a case, such as a programme, an institution, a person and a process (Yazan, 2015). However, they adopted constructivism or interpretivism to conduct a case study. For them, social reality is intersubjectively constructed through meanings and understandings developed socially and experientially (Merriam, 1998). In other words, each researcher can choose a case study research on various disciplines with different philosophical perspectives, which lead to different methodological approaches and research designs. Although the three main authors have their own procedures to conduct a case study research, they seek to gather data from a number of sources, especially observations, interviews and document review. This means that case study focuses on determining concrete facts of a certain phenomenon from different kinds of viewpoint rather than discovering the general principle and universal truths.

In the current study, case study is used as a strategy to conduct the research. Case study aims at discovering a series of decision-making processes, meaning that it should explore why the decision-making process is put into action and how it is implemented. It can be helpful to discern detailed contents around a certain circumstance regarding the process, motive and effect. Additionally, case study

contributes to comprehending the main context related to the phenomenon in order to deeply understand the phenomenon in a real-life context when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are ambiguous (Yin & Davis, 2007). In this context, case study strategy would help the contemporary SfD approach in Korea to be identified in terms of various aspects, such as actors, motives and processes.

Yin's case study seems a sophisticated and rigorous strategy that seeks to remedy the existing limitations and shortcomings of several case study strategies. For example, Yin's case study strategy attempts to adopt data triangulation, which refers to the collection of data from various sources and informants. Data triangulation helps enhance the validity of sufficient evidence by developing converging lines of inquiry (Yin, 2014). Prior to getting into details, Yin emphasises establishing theoretical propositions and the operationalisation of concepts in advance that can be based to collect and analyse data.

In addition, as Yin's strategy embraces positivism or post-positivism, it is also known as a quasi-experimental study, which means that the strategy supports deductive and testing-oriented processes. In the light of Yin's case study, the phenomenon of the Korean SfD approach should be investigated, which leads in turn to the analytical generalisation of the research results. Thus, the case study strategy developed by Yin (2014) enables the study to identify diverse aspects of how and why the SfD approach has been developed in Korea and further contributes to generalising and extending applied theories.

5.4. Research Design

The case study research design suggested by Yin requires a high level of rigidity design compared to those by other researchers, such as Stake and Merriam, whose research design seek flexibility. This requirement could be related to Yin's principle to place great emphasis on achieving objectivity, validity and generalisation. Traditionally, many researchers have underdeveloped case study despite the fact that it is a type of empirical study. It is true that a case study might be short of academic

rigor because of the lack of structured research procedures (Yin, 2014). Many researchers wonder how a case study can generalise the results from only one case. This means that they see case study as being less capable of generalising research results. Yin (2014) likewise noted that it might be difficult to consider case study as a method that has a clear relative advantage over other research methods, such as survey and experiment. For these reasons, Yin argued that researchers should follow systematic procedures to compensate for the shortcomings of a case study.

This study pursues rigid procedures and logical sequence in data collection and analysis to connect research questions to empirical data. Naturally, research design can also be modified even after data collection but should go back to the beginning if it needs to be greatly modified. In particular, Yin (2014) emphasised several factors in research design. Firstly, the researcher should elaborate specific research questions that begin with how and why. This step will help guide the study and find the appropriate research method. Secondly, the researcher should establish theoretical propositions that accurately guide the direction of the research. This enables the researcher to pinpoint what needs to be investigated and suggest where to find meaningful evidence for the research.

Thirdly, the researcher should define what the case is in the study. In addition to research questions and propositions, defining proper cases would greatly narrow the scope of the research, contributing to more feasible research. Fourthly, the researcher should use a suitable analysis technique to link between research propositions and results. This step includes pattern matching, explanation building, time-series analysis, logic model and cross-case synthesis. Lastly, to verify the logic of the research design mentioned, the researcher should strive to secure a high level of validity and reliability. In Yin's case study, construct validity, internal validity, external validity and reliability are used to verify whether the research design is appropriate.

5.4.1. Multiple Case Study

choosing between single case study and multiple case studies is the most important decision in the stage of research design (Yin, 2014). This selection can affect overall case study design, techniques and criteria for analysing findings. Yin (2014) noted that the choice is directly related to theoretical proposition or theory.

Single case study can be selected when the case is critical, unique, exploratory or a pilot study. Yin (2014) explains that single case study is appropriate to test a well-known theory. Firstly, single case study with all the necessary conditions is used if the case is very important. Secondly, the study can be used when it is so unique or extreme that the single case is sufficient, which makes the use of the single case study common in clinical psychology. Single case study can be used as well if the case is so common and general that it can represent the majority of cases. It can be selected when it lets us know what we did not know before. In addition, it is valuable because the study itself is very new. Lastly, the single case study can be used when it is longitudinal as it is about how certain conditions change over time in view of one case. It can be selected as a pilot test for a more complex research design. Despite these various conditions of use, the disadvantages of the single case study are more prominent than those of the multiple case study, and so alternatives should be considered in advance.

The multiple case study is evaluated as more persuasive and robust than the single case study (Herriot & Firestone, 1983). It can enhance the external validity of the findings and overcome any bias through replication logic (Yin, 2014). In other words, it provides the potential for the generalisability of findings (Patton, 1990). The multiple case study also enables two purposes, namely the development of new insights and concepts and the replication of existing findings. The two main types of replications in multiple case study are literal replication and theoretical replication (Yin, 2014). Literal replication is usually employed when the researcher tries to predict the same or very similar results while theoretical replication is used when the researcher expects at least two cases to be contrary results (Yin, 2014). If the result is different from the logic pursued, then the research proposition should be revised or revalidated with other cases (Yin, 2014).

156

As Figure 5.3 shows, Yin (2003) suggests the process of the multiple case study. The process starts with the development of theory and then cases are selected. Next, it would be important to determine how to measure the propositions mentioned in order to converge the evidence into one result (Yin, 2014). Lastly, each case should be repeated and compared to draw a comprehensive conclusion and support or revise the theory adopted. Consequently, multiple case study seems to require relatively more time and effort. In addition, Yin (2014) argued that multiple case study pursues replication logic, but it was wrong to think of it as multiple respondents through sampling logic, which is based on statistical generalisation. The multiple case study argued by Yin (2014) uses analytical generalisation, whereby existing theory is adopted as a theoretical framework to compare it with the empirical results of the case study.

Figure 5.3. Multiple Case Study Method
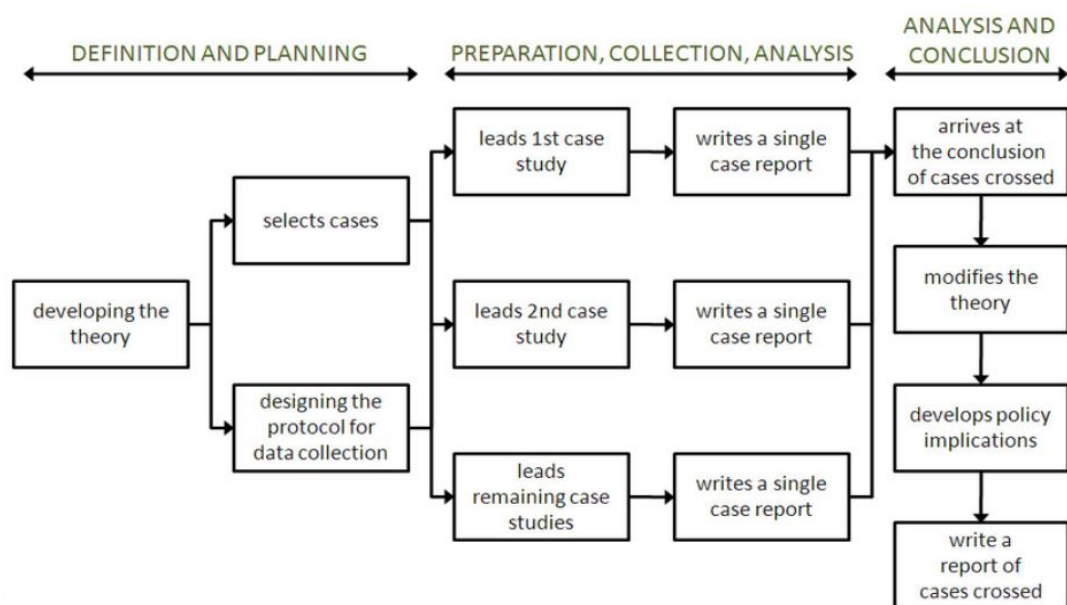
Source: Yin (2003, p.72)

Korean SfD approach regarding process, main actors, role of government, motive and support in view of national preference formation theory and constructivism. Thus, selecting multiple case study could lead to strengthening the completeness of the study through carrying out each case study.

5.4.2. Unit of Analysis

The case refers to a phenomenon in a bounded context (Miles & Huberman, 1994). To carry out a case study, it is also very important to determine what the case means. The case represents objects to be analysed in a real context. In the past, the case in a conventional case study indicated the individual who has experienced some phenomena. For example, a patient, a political leader, a model student and a criminal could be the object of the research (Yin, 2014). The individual was the main object of the research and naturally became the unit of analysis.

Apart from the individual, however, anything can be the object of a case study. Usually, the unit of analysis can be an individual, an event, an implementation process or an organisation (Myers, 2019). In addition, Yin (2014) noted that an event, a small group, a decision-making process, a programme or a change in a certain organisation can be the object of a case study. The case should be concrete, specific and exist in reality. Among various objects, a community, a relationship, a decision-making process or a project can be an ambiguous and abstract object rather than an individual, a group or an organisation (Yin, 2014). This means that a tangible or visible thing would be more appropriate for the case of the study.

In the current study, each SfD programme is used as a case for a multiple case study. The organisation, decision-making process or event can also be the case, but the programme allows the researcher to grasp various and complex phenomena, which could be concrete and substantive, thus meeting the nature of case study. The Korean SfD approach has been revealed through each SfD programme, which entails various information on how it has been driven, who has supported it and has been its main actors, why Korea has pursued it and what role the government has played in it. In particular, the programme can facilitate the identification of research questions and the testing of pre-established theoretical hypotheses.

5.4.3. Selecting Cases

There are no specific rules for determining a suitable sample size in a multiple case study. It mainly depends on assumption of the researcher regarding how many cases would be appropriate. Patton (2002) argued that the number of cases can vary according to what the researcher wants to know, the aim of the study, what will be useful, the credibility of the research and the available time and resource. However, he also mentioned that the validity, meaningfulness and insights in a multiple case study are more likely to be decided by the abundancy of information about the cases and the researcher's capabilities for analysis and observation rather than by the sample size.

Nevertheless, several scholars recommend certain number of cases. Eisenhardt (1989) stated that a sample size of 4 to10 work well. Crabtree and Miller (1992) argued that cases between 6 and 10 are ideal for a multiple case study. Yin (2014) suggested that 2 to 3 cases for literal replication is sufficient if the theory adopted is simple and the issue does not need high certainty, but a sample size of 5 to 6 or more would be necessary if the theory is complex and subtle, requiring high certainty. Considering the theoretical replication in multiple case study, the number of cases depends on how important the researcher feels the competition explanation is and whether further cases need to be investigated if the competition explanation is robust (Yin, 2014). Accordingly, case size varies depending on the theory complexity and the certainty that the researcher wants.

In terms of the specific selection criteria of cases as a sample in a qualitative study, it is not mainly based on the representativeness of the sample. In other words, selection should follow a purposive sampling technique that is subjectively chosen based on the characteristics of a population and the objective of the study (Patton, 2002). In this regard, Perry (1998) recommended four main strategies to choose the appropriate cases. Firstly, a sample should be a typical case representing the most characteristic or prevalent examples of the studied phenomenon. Secondly, it would be better to adopt extreme cases. For example, the researcher can use cases that present noticeable differences in order to explain research questions clearly. Thirdly, cases should be diversified to show various aspects of the phenomenon. Lastly, cases

should be easy to access and provide plentiful information sources for the phenomenon.

Following these recommendations, this study chose six programmes as cases to explain the research questions and test the theoretical framework adopted. The six programmes are DTM Programme, PyeongChang Dream Programme, World Friends Korea–Korea Overseas Volunteer (WFK–KOV) Programme, Incheon Vision 2014 Programme, Taekwondo Peace Corps Programme and Sport ODA Programme in KPC. Ha and Ha (2016) mentioned the main Korean SfD programmes, including DTM Programme, PyeongChang Dream Programme, KOICA Programme and Incheon Vision 2014 Programme. Ha et al. (2015) stated DTM Programme, PyeongChang Dream Programme and Taekwondo Peace Corps Programme as the programmes for international development cooperation through sport. Other Korean scholar often suggested the programmes mentioned above as typical programmes for the Korean SfD approach. Hence, above mentioned, the six cases were prevalent examples for the Korean SfD approach and are chosen to explain the pertinent phenomenon.

In addition, the six cases are ongoing SfD programmes in Korea. This means that the study can gain relatively easy access to relevant sources and get a more accurate picture of the real phenomenon. It is also true that existing Korean SfD programmes tend to be elite sport or SFA-centred. For this reason, the study added sport ODA programme provided by the KPC, which could give a chance to investigate further phenomena, including international development cooperation through disabled sports activities. Lastly, there are several Taekwondo-related SfD programmes in Korea. It would be difficult to add all such programmes into cases as the content could be redundant and monotonous. Therefore, the study selected the Taekwondo Peace Corps Programme among them, as it is the most common thus a well-known programme in Korea.

5.4.4. Conceptualisation and Operationalisation

To understand a certain phenomenon in detail, a case study based on positivism-related philosophical paradigm requires structured instruments for testing hypotheses. The qualitative case study recommended by Stake (1995) and Merriam (2009) commonly tends not to approach a priori reasoning because it follows an inductive approach with an interpretivism-centred paradigm focused on methodological freedom and flexibility. However, the case study methods suggested by Yin requires conceptualisation and operationalisation to deeply and scientifically explore the phenomenon of research interest. This means that the researcher should go through a process of conceptualising abstract social phenomena and then transforming these into operational definitions to verify them in view of the theories adopted.

Conceptualisation is the process of using a particular term to refer exactly to what the term means (Rubin & Babbie, 2007). This process creates explicit and agreed meanings for the concept of research purpose and can help specify the abstract concept to find the object or method of observation. Basically, this study requires conceptualisation of five main concepts, including actors, development process, role of government, support and motive. These five key concepts explain each research question about the Korean SfD approach, which should be specified exactly to what it means in the study.

As Table 5.1 indicates, actors refer to state actors and non-state actors involved in the promotion and development of the SfD approach in Korea. The development process indicates the process for promoting and developing the SfD approach in Korea. The role of government refers to the attitude and actions of the Korean government in promoting and developing the SfD approach. Support means various support activities of actors involved in the SfD approach. Finally, motive means the decisive driving force that has influenced the promotion and development of the SfD approach.

While conceptualisation is the task of elaborating obscure and abstract concepts in detail, operationalisation is the development of concrete procedures that

allow researchers to observe empirical data directly from the real world (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Operationalisation reveals exactly what a concept is in the context of the research. Through operationalisation, social phenomena can be converted into measurable factors. The researcher should consider the following elements when conducting operationalisation. What is important is that the researcher should take the range of concepts into account. Also, the specificity and scope of the measurement should be appropriate for the purpose of the research. In this context, specific and rich data should be collected if the researcher is unsure how specific they need to be.

This study aims to identify the actors, development process, role of government, support and motivation of the SfD approach in Korea by applying them to national preference formation theory and constructivism. To collect and analyse data, the operationalisation of what to analyse in five main categories is needed. Actors are classified as state actors, especially central government, and non-state actors, referring to local governments, social actors, sport organisations, companies, NGOs and IGOs. The actors could be identified by exploring who has been directly and indirectly involved in the operation, management and supervision of Korea's SfD approach. Development process could be found by identifying interaction and cooperative activities between actors in the SfD approach. The process could also be identified by figuring out how non-material factors or agenda of the international community acted on Korea's SfD approach. Role of government could be identified by understanding how the government collects and reflects the opinions of societal actors and non-material factors or agenda in the SfD approach. Support could be identified by exploring the financial, material and human support activities of actors for the SfD approach. Lastly, motives are identified by examining what backgrounds, value and reason the main actors promoted and developed in the SfD approach.

Table 5.1. Definition of Key Concepts and Operationalisation

Criteria	Definition	Operationalisation
Actors	Key state actors or non-state actors involved in promoting and developing Korea's SfD approach.	Investigating who has been directly and indirectly involved in the operation, management and supervision of Korea's SfD approach.
Development Process	Overall process for promoting and developing Korea's SfD approach.	Identifying not only the interaction and cooperative activities between actors but also how non-material factors or agenda of the international community acted on Korea's SfD approach.
Role of Government	Attitudes and actions of the government in promoting and developing Korea's SfD approach.	Identifying how government collects and reflects the opinions of societal actors and non-material factors or agenda in Korea's SfD approach.
Support	Various support activities of actors for Korea's SfD approach.	Identifying the financial, material and human support activities of actors in Korea's SfD approach.
Motive	The decisive driving force that has influenced the promotion and development of Korea's SfD approach.	Identifying what backgrounds, value and reason the main actors promoted and developed in Korea's SfD approach.

5.4.5. Data Collection

5.4.5.1. Triangulation

Case study following post-positivism places great importance on maintaining objectivity. The post-positivist thinks that reality is imperfect and probabilistic (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Post-positivism strives to achieve accurate results through observation and measurement. In other words, while it seems impossible to be completely objective, post-positivism seeks such objectivity as ideal.

In this context, researchers tend to adopt to achieve objectivity as much as possible. Triangulation refers to "a validity procedure where researchers search for convergence among multiple and different sources of information to form themes or categories in a study" (Creswell & Miller, 2000, p.126). Similarly, Blaikie (2000) argued that triangulation means the use of multiple methods and measures of interrelated phenomena. Triangulation techniques can reduce bias in data, which may often occur in case studies, to ensure the validity of the results. The biggest purpose of triangulation is to enhance the quality of the data. Specifically, it is designed to

solve construct validity by using multiple measures of the same phenomenon (Ridder, 2017). In policy research, most of the source, such as information, data and ideas, are derived from document and people (Bardach, 2009). Therefore, using multiple pieces of evidence can be the best advantage of multiple case studies to appropriately gain a rich understanding of a phenomenon.

For triangulation, Yin (2014) suggested six main sources of case study evidence: documents, archival records, interviews, direct observation, participant-observation and physical artifact. Qualitative researchers are expected to use at least two sources of evidence (Yin, 1994). Among them, documents, interviews and observations are the main sources (Merriam, 2009). Journals and other written materials can be prevalent approaches to investigate experiences and changes (Creswell, 2013). Recently, images, webpages and social media have become appropriate sources for data collection (Bazeley & Jackson, 2013). Triangulation through these different sources helps establish converging lines of evidence and makes the findings robust and persuasive (Yin, 2014). Therefore, this study uses a triangulation strategy with different sources to improve the quality and validity of the data.

5.4.5.2. Document and Archival Record

Documents refer to social facts that are produced, shared and used in socially organised ways (Atkinson & Coffey, 2004). Stake (1995) argued that document analysis is particularly suitable for qualitative case studies that require rich explanation of phenomenon, event, organisation or programme. Document helps researchers discover the meaning associated with researcher problems and provides deep understanding and insight (Merriam, 2009). Document in combination with other qualitative sources is mainly used as a means of triangulation in the study. Specifically, it is used to provide the background and context of research, supplement sources and even corroborate or verify findings (Bowen, 2009). Similarly in this study, documents serve to supplement data from semi-structured interviews by providing contexts of the phenomenon and are even used as key data to verify

hypotheses. Therefore, document is considered one of the most important sources of the data in the qualitative study.

Yin (2014) mentioned four main advantages of documents in data collection: safety, neutrality, accuracy and generality. Firstly, researchers can review the document again at any time. Unlike interviews and direct observations, documents allow researchers to repeatedly review the same content and meaning to help understand the phenomenon more deeply. Secondly, document analysis does not have any direct or indirect influence on the subject of the research. Documentation helps researchers identify phenomena from a neutral perspective as much as possible. The quality and content of data from interviews on the other hand can vary greatly depending on the ability of the interviewer.

Thirdly, document includes details of the exact name, date and source. This increases the reliability of the data, and consequently improves the quality of the findings. Lastly, documentation can cover numerous events and various environmental factors over a long period of time. Unlike interviews and observations, documents provide a wealth of data from the past to the present.

Of course, data are so extensive that it is difficult to accurately search for the desired data, and there is a possibility that researchers may collect the data in a biased manner. Additionally, researchers might lack objectivity by reflecting prejudices in collecting data, and access to documents may be restricted. Nevertheless, document is the most important source of data in qualitative research. Documents are in various forms, including personal documents, visual forms, official documents from the state and private sectors, mass media outputs and virtual outputs (Bryman, 2016).

Personal documents consist of diaries, letters, autobiographies, memos, email letters and schedule notes. These materials are usually used for historical research. Official documents from the state and private sector provide very important and extensive information (Bryman, 2016). Examples are Acts of Parliament, official reports, annual reports, announcements, conference records, meeting materials, company newsletters, organisational charts, memos and so on (Bryman, 2016; Yin,

2014). In reality, it is not easy to obtain official documents, and often, those from the public sector are relied on (Bryman, 2016). Mass media outputs include newspapers, magazines and local newsletters (Yin, 2014). Recently, there has been an increasing number of cases in which information is obtained through Internet searches. Finally, academic papers on cases or phenomena of research interest are also valuable documents.

Archival records mainly refer to secondary records that are provide accurate and quantitative information which are useful for collecting valuable data in the study. In terms of data characteristics, such records have accurate and quantitative information. Archival records include statistics provided by the government, budgets, personnel data and relevant data already presented by other researchers.

In this study, various documents and archival records are the main sources to identify research questions. The data from government and private organisations included statistics, white papers, announcements, annual reports, annual plans, internal data, brochures, promotional materials and agenda concerning the Korean SfD approach. Academic papers from other researchers, domestic and foreign books and newspaper articles related to the SfD approach are also used. Lastly, data with limited access in documents were obtained through a website search for useful domestic and international sources.

5.4.5.3. Semi-Structured Interview

Along with document information, interview is one of the most important and common sources of data for gathering evidence in a case study (Yin, 2014). Keats (2001) argued that interview is an efficient way to collect data when the researcher aims to identify people's motivation and opinion. Interview further aims to understand in detail the reality through peoples' experiences from their own perspectives. This helps researchers to understand the research topic from the point of view of the interviewees (King, 2004). In other words, interviews should elicit practical answers through natural dialogue rather than structured forms.

The three main types of interviews are structured, semi-structured and unstructured. Each type has its advantages and disadvantages. Structured interview uses a pre-arranged set of questions that allow a systematic interview even with limited answers to questions. Unstructured interview is very close to a conversation in many aspects. It is an interview technique where answers to questions are not limited, and the focus is on listening to the response of the interviewees. However, this technique should be used in accordance with the interviewees' awareness of the topic. Semi-structured interview is conducted with a list of questions but could allow free responses from interviewees to specific questions. The type of interview has more inherent flexibility than other approaches. It can offset the shortcomings of the other interview techniques by obtaining standardised responses as well as identifying additional phenomena. Therefore, this study uses semi-structured interview along with documentation and archival records to collect data regarding the Korean SfD approach.

5.4.5.3.1. Participants

For the selected six SfD programmes, there were 14 interviewees, 2 of whom were interviewed for several programmes they were involved in (Appendix A). In this study, purposive sampling approach among non-probability sampling approaches. Purposeful sampling refers to "the selection of participants or sources of data to be used in a study, based on their anticipated richness and relevance of information to the study's research questions" (Yin, 2011, p.311). Since it enables the researcher to identify appropriate interviewees, purposeful sampling could be appropriate for qualitative case studies.

The researcher needs to deliberately select as interviewees with deep and rich experiences regarding the research topics. Basically, the researcher tried to select two interviewees for each SfD programme, one from the state actors and one from non-state actors. The specific criteria for selection are as follows:

1. Participants with general knowledge and understanding who have been involved in Korea's SfD programme for more than a year.

2. Participants who are directly responsible for or have experience in managing and supervising the SfD programme in Korea.

3. Participants who have fully understood the purpose of this study and actively agreed to participate in it.

As mentioned earlier, the total number of interview participants in this study was fourteen, and most of them met the criteria set forth above. For the Dream programme, the researcher conducted interviews with five interviewees. First, the researcher conducted a 40-minute interview with Mr. Yoo and Mr. Lee at a private space in the Gangwon provincial government on April 3, 2019. They have been managers of the Dream programme for the past three years. Although they were not involved in the beginning of the programme 15 years ago, they now had a good understanding of the overall programme's progress and background within the Gangwon Provincial Government. The researcher also interviewed them simultaneously because they are expected to complement each other when they explain on the programme. Ms. Lim has been in charge of promoting the Dream programme for the past three years as a programme manager within the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (MCST). She is generally responsible for creating sports heritage in Korea, especially developing and managing the legacy of the PyeongChang Winter Olympics. The researcher interviewed her at the MCST for about 30 minutes on April 2, 2019. Next, Mr. Jeong as a deputy general manager has long worked in the department of fund support in the KSPO, which is financially involved in a variety of the SfD programmes, including the Dream programme, the DTM programme and the TPC programme. The researcher interviewed him for about 20 minutes at the KSPO on April 1, 2019, in order to figure out how the KSPO provides financial support to the programme through the MCST.

For the DTM programme, the researcher conducted an interview with Ms. Yoon for about 30 minutes near the MCST on April 2, 2019. She is responsible for

supporting sport development in developing countries within the MCST. In particular, she has been in charge of planning and running the DTM programme for the past two years. Thus, the researcher judged that she had a good understanding of the programme within the MCST. Next, Prof. Dr. Kang has been operating the programme practically since the DTM programme started in 2013. He is one of the most prominent professors in Korea's sport industry, and has recently contributed greatly to international development cooperation through sport. The researcher decided that he was very ideal for an interview for the DTM programme, so an interview was conducted for about 30 minutes at a room nearby his office on March 28, 2019. The researcher conducted an interview with Kang who is a deputy general manager on April 4 for about 40 minutes. He has been commissioned by the MCST to operate and manage the DTM programme for the past 5 years. As he was in charge of the job for a long time, he was selected as an interviewee.

For the Vision 2014 programme, the researcher conducted an interview with Mr. An, who is a member of the National Assembly, on April 10, 2019 for about 30 minutes at his office. He made a huge contribution as the mayor of Incheon City at the time of hosting the 2014 Asian Games. Since the start of the Vision 2014 programme was closely related to the 2014 Asian Games, the researcher was able to directly or indirectly listen to the story on main actors, process, government role, financial support and motive of the Vision 2014 programme through an interview with him. Also, the researcher conducted an interview with Ms. Jeong, who is now a manager of the Vision 2014 programme in Incheon metropolitan government, on March 29, 2019 for about 40 minutes.

For the TPC programme, the researcher conducted an interview with Mr. Jeong who is a manager of the TPC programme in the MCST, but also one who has the most experience in ODA activities through Taekwondo within the MCST. The interview was conducted on April 2, 2019 for about 30 minutes at the MCST. Next, Mr. Won works at the department of international cooperation in the TPC Foundation, which actually operates the TPC programme. He has been in that position for about 7 years and is working hard to expand the scale of the programme in close

consultation with the MCST. The researcher conducted an interview with him for about 50 minutes on April 2, 2019.

Moreover, for the WFK-KOV programme, the researcher conducted an interview with Mr. Kim who is a manager in the MOFAT at a café nearby his office for about 30 minutes. He has been supporting the international development cooperation programme via the KOICA for the past 2 years. Also, the researcher conducted an interview with Yoon in the KOICA on April 12, 2019 at a café near the KOICA for about 40 minutes. The researcher decided that she would be able to explain this programme in detail more than anyone, as she had specialised in international development cooperation projects for about 15 years at the KOICA. Lastly, the researcher interviewed Ms. Sin, who is the head of the department of international cooperation in the KPC on March 29, 2019. In addition to the KPC YPSC programme, the KPC is deeply involved in the Dream programme. Therefore, the researcher determined that Ms. Sin, who has been working for the programme for a long time, would be helpful in understanding the promotion and development process of the two programmes.

However, Korean society has recently encouraged job rotation to motivate people to broaden their horizons by experiencing diverse working environments. Although one interviewee had worked on the Vision 2014 programme for less than a year, the researcher had to interview her because obtaining an interview with her predecessor was difficult. Furthermore, the official in charge of the Youth Para Sports Camp (YPSC) programme in the MCST was indifferent and avoided the interview request. Therefore, the researcher freely conducted an in-depth interview with the programme manager at the KPC, who had been fully responsible for the programme over a relatively long period of time.

Polit and Beck (2012) stated that data are saturated when further information and experience from interviewees are not specified and similar information is duplicated. This study determined that when two people were interviewed for each programme, a number of contents were duplicated and became saturated. Nevertheless, given that the Dream and DTM programmes are leading SfD

programmes in Korea, the researcher conducted interviews with two or more people for each programme. Finally, for the TPC programme, which was judged to be lacking in information during the content analysis process, the researcher conducted one more interview with the participant by phone.

5.4.5.3.2. Data Collection Process through Interview

The interviews were conducted from March 25 to April 12, 2019. The data collection consisted of individual interviews with participants and some field notes (Appendix B). Specifically, the researcher emailed the participants in advance to set an appointment at a time convenient for the participants (Appendix C). At that time, the researcher sent a research plan, including the purpose of the study, to the interviewees to briefly inform them of the study (Appendix D). Each interview was conducted in a space where the participants' privacy was protected, and confidentiality of the interview details was guaranteed. Interviewees signed a consent form for participation in this study (Appendix E), and the flow of the interview was not interrupted. They were asked to permit recording the interview, and with the exception of two participants, everyone agreed to the recording.

Each interview lasted about 30 minutes to 1 hour, and the interview tried to keep the direction of the question consistent and unbiased to suit the purpose of this study. The researcher used semi-structured and open forms of questions to avoid deliberately inducing the desired answers. Meanwhile, the interviewees were asked introductory and closing questions before and after the main questions. In the case of introductory questions, they were asked about the status and trends of the SfD programmes, and at the end they talked about what was not fully discussed during the interview or what additionally came to mind. Lastly, a small gift worth 4 euros was given to the participants after the interview as a token of appreciation.

5.4.5.3.3. Questionnaire

The semi-structured interview needs an interview questionnaire guide. Yin (2014) pointed out that a poor questionnaire can cause critical errors in response. Thus, the researcher should design questionnaires with a number of considerations. For example, it would be better that the order of the questions is from easy or macro to difficult or micro. During interviews, researchers should not use biased words or ask leading questions. The questionnaires should be appropriately structured to meet the objective of the research for measurements involving high validity and reliability.

Basically, the questionnaires were designed to identify research questions and hypotheses as to how the SfD approach has evolved in Korea (Appendix F). A total of five key topics were addressed in the questions: main actors, development process, role of government, support and motive. Specifically, the questions attempted 1) to identify the main and relevant actors (*e.g. Who has been the main and relevant actors of the SfD programme? What were the role of the actors?*); 2) To determine how Korean SfD programmes have been implemented (*e.g. How has the programme been implemented? How have the opinions of the various actors been reflected in the implementation and management of the programme?*); 3) To identify the role of government (*e.g. What role has the government played mainly in implementing and managing the programme?*); 4) To ensure how the Korean SfD programmes have been supported (*e.g. How and who has supported the programme financially? Is there any international support for the programme in the human resource, material or financial aspects?*); 5) To identify the motive of actors, (*e.g. What has been the motive and purpose of implementing the programme?).*

To draw up a well-organised questionnaire, firstly, it was decided what information to obtain. Whether the responses to the questionnaires appropriately reflect the research questions in the study was considered to investigate overall the Korean SfD approach. Secondly, as it was difficult to find similar existing research cases, a completely new draft questionnaire was prepared on the basis of the research questions and hypotheses. Thirdly, the questionnaire was revised and supplemented by the researcher's supervisor and three Korean scholars in the field of sport management who are familiar with to the topic of research. Based on the discussion,

the composition, meaning and nature of the concept of measurement were reviewed and modified. Next, a pilot test was conducted with the first and second interviewees to identify various responses to questionnaires. By doing the same in the actual interview, it was possible to identify several problems that would arise from an actual interview before finalising the questionnaire.

5.4.6. Data Analysis: Deductive Content Analysis

In this study, qualitative content analysis was adopted to examine qualitative data in depth. Content analysis is a method to analyse written, verbal or visual communication messages (Cole, 1988). Krippendorff (2004) argued that content analysis is a necessary research technique to elicit repeatable and valid reasoning from all materials, such as text, artwork, and maps. In other words, it is a means of obtaining the reliability and validity for the research using all the data and achieving the same results in the same way, even in different research situations. Content analysis also overcomes time constraints, enabling in-depth research into data at various times from diverse perspectives (Weber, 1985). It is a method suitable for describing phenomena by using deductive and inductive approaches (Elo & Kyngas, 2008).

Deductive content analysis is appropriate for identifying categories, concepts, findings or hypotheses based on existing studies (Marshall & Rossman, 1995). It can be used to verify existing theories in a new context. The present study aims to understand the Korean SfD approach and verify it in light of existing relevant theories. Establishing theoretical propositions enables a robust research design and provides strong guidance in determining data collection and analysis strategies. The study adopts the two main theories of national preference formation theory and constructivism, which lead to the direction of data analysis. Such direction helps interpret and analyse how and why the Korean SfD approach has been implemented from the national and international level.

In this context, the data analysis of this study used the deductive category formation analysis method presented by Mayring (2000), Elo and Kyngas (2008) and Kuckartz and Radiker (2019). Basically, deductive category analysis is a method that extracts certain structures from textual materials, drawing on reasonable inference (Meyering, 2000). Compared with conventional content analysis method using an inductive approach, it has a more structured approach framework. In deductive category analysis, the main categories must be predetermined before the passages are coded. The main category should be set up to reflect either the research questions, theory-based interview guides or prior research (Kuckartz & Radiker, 2019).

As shown in Figure 5.4, the deductive content analysis method consists of three main stages: preparation, organisation and report. In the preparation stage, this study decided to analyse the phenomenon related to the Korean SfD approach through deductive methods based on two main theories. Next, the specific operationalisation of the deductive category analysis was divided into five stages. Firstly, the categories were divided into five categories based on the SfD policy and programmes of the various countries described in Chapter 2.1.1 to comprehensively analyse and understand the Korean SfD approach.

The five main categories were divided into Main actors, development process, Role of government, Support and Motives. The SfD policies and programmes of each country clearly reveal the main actors, role of government and the subject of financial support. In particular, a closer look should be taken at the role of the government as it has played a leading role in international development cooperation for a long time. It would also be important to identify the process and motivation of the Korean SfD programme to understand how it has recently been promoted.

Figure 5.4 Content Analysis Process
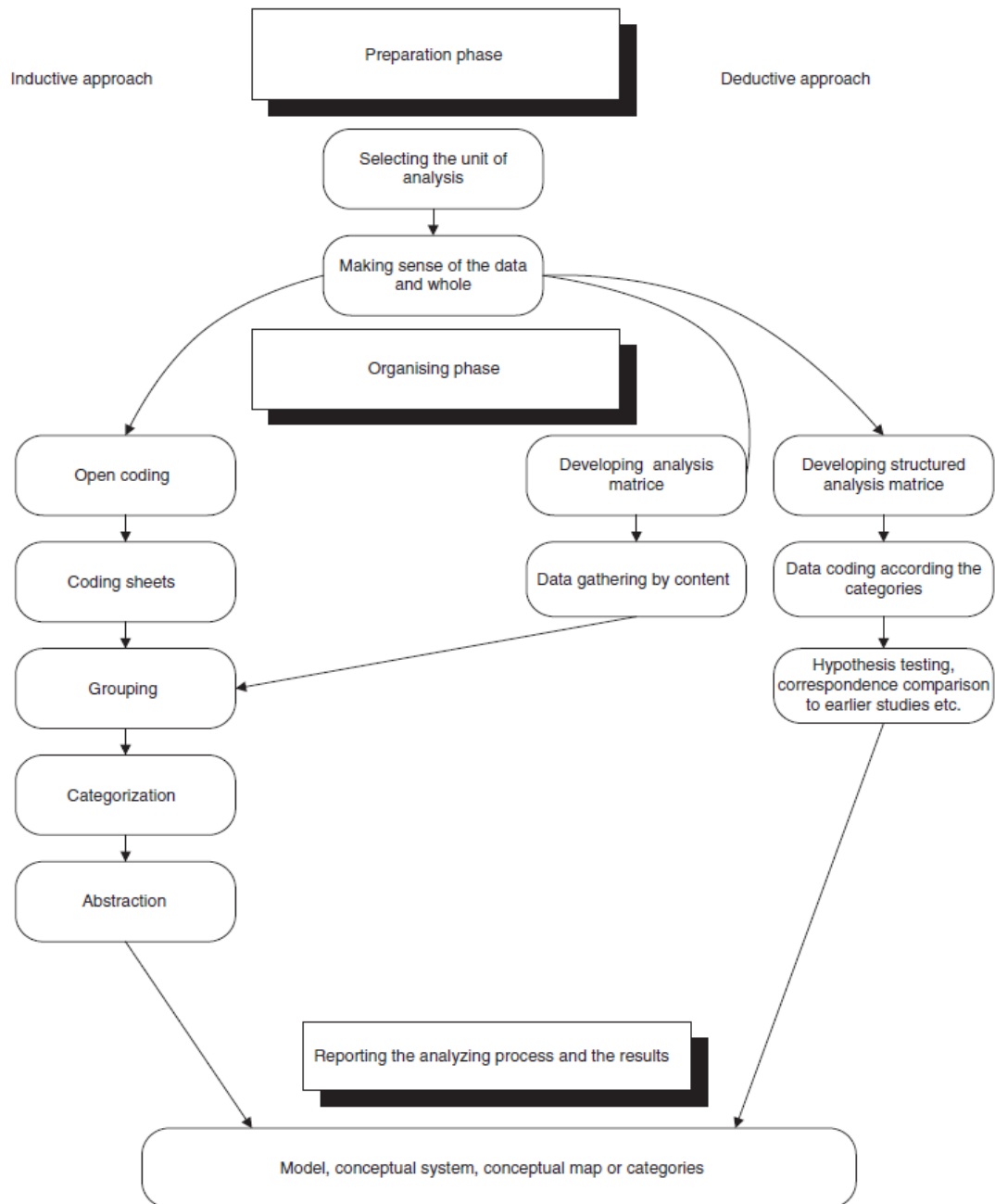
The following are the steps to categorising key attributes. The categorisation matrix should set the main categories and sub-categories to the initial coding category based on theoretical frameworks, prior studies, models and mind maps

(Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). It is necessary to establish exactly which text component can belong to the given category. Considering the theoretical frameworks of this study, which are national preference formation theory and constructivism, as shown in Appendix G, the actors were classified into state actors and non-state actors, and the process was categorise as interaction between state actors and societal actors as well as non-material factors or agenda created in the international community.

The role of government was classified into Reflecting preferences of societal actors and Reflecting non-material factors or agenda in the international community, and support was divided into Support by state actors and Support by non-state actors. Lastly, motive consisted of National interests and Humanitarianism. It is recommended to include an anchor example and coding rules in the categorisation matrix for accurate categorisation. Anchor samples serve as an example of a typical phrase belonging to a particular category to clearly describe the characteristics of the category (Mayring, 2000). Coding rules refer to the criteria necessary to include text components with ambiguous concepts into a certain category.

During the step of data collection, questionnaires based on the main categories and sub-categories were prepared and collected through semi-structured interviews with participants. Next, meaningful statements related to the five main categories were identified within the collected data, and these were individually coded and classified within the predetermined sub-categories. In this process, important statements, codes and categories were repeatedly modified. If some statements did not fit the categorisation matrix, the researcher identified create new concepts by using inductive content analysis procedures (Elo & Kyngas, 2008). In the final stage of reporting, it was necessary to understand and describe what each category means to Korea's SfD approach.

In multiple case studies, a single case must be isolated and then all must be analysed comprehensively (Yin, 2014). Cross-case synthesis analysis can be applicable only to multiple case studies. It would be useful for aggregating the results of each case study conducted independently and allows analysis if the pattern of

cases in the study were repeated or contrasted. The analysis of each case allowed for specific main actors, development process, role of government, support and motive of each SfD programme to be derived. As a result of integrating each case and analysing it by category, similarities and differences were analysed through cross-case synthesis analysis, leading to a compelling logic for the results. Finally, the similarities and differences between cases were identified as applicable to the two main theories applied in this study.

For example, the researcher creates a table for integrating parts of the actor in each programme's findings. Next, as shown in Table 5.2, codes which correspond to each sub-category, such as state actors and non-state actors, must be described. Comparing the results, the researcher can naturally figure out the similarities and differences between the main actors of SfD programmes in Korea, and finally identify if the main actors would be state actors or non-state actors.

Table 5.2 Example of Table for Cross-Case Synthesis Analysis

Programme	Sub-Category: State Actors	Sub-Category: Non-State Actors
	Code	Code
PyeongChang Dream Programme		
DTM Programme		
OCA–Incheon Vision 2014 Programme		
TPC Programme		
WFK–KOV Programme		
KPC YPSC Programme		

In addition to the techniques for data analysis, computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS) is usually used to analyse qualitative data (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Lowe, 2002). Some scholars question whether CAQDAS can give rise to an incorrect quantification of research and cause fragmentation of

the data for which narrative flow is overlooked (Bringer, Johnston & Brackenridge, 2004). However, CAQDAS can handle laborious and hard tasks through coding and retrieving as well as enhance the level of transparency of research considering the similarity of theory and results evident in the documents (Bryman & Bell, 2007). It also has the ability to code multiple categories, and to support complicated code structures. As a result, it would be better for the researcher to use it in an auxiliary role after taking into consideration of pros and cons of CAQDAS. In this study, NVivo 12 was used to help analyse the interview data on Korean SfD programmes (Appendix H). This process contributes to the identification of patterns and meanings hidden within qualitative data through visualisation.

In conclusion, this study applied a deductive content analysis method suitable for expanding the validity of the theories applied by verifying existing findings or hypotheses. The deductive content analysis method consists of three main stages: preparation, organisation and reporting. In particular, it establishes a categorisation matrix based on existing literature and theoretical frameworks. This study formed main and sub-categories based on prior research related to the SfD approach, national preference formation theory and constructivism. After deductive content analysis was conducted for each case, cross-case synthesis analysis identified the similarities and differences between the six SfD programmes. This identification contributed to strengthening the logic of multiple case studies, enabling the applicability of the theories on the Korean SfD approach to be explained. Lastly, with the use of NVivo 12, interview materials and documents were coded into the categorisation matrix established prior to data collection.

5.4.7. Validity and Reliability

Traditionally, the criteria for qualitative research were not strict because pertinent research simply aimed to understand social phenomena. In fact, qualitative research used less structured and proven instrument tools and fewer samples than quantitative research. However, qualitative researchers recently realised the need to secure a high level of validity and reliability to enhance the overall quality of the research (Johnson,

1997). This study applied the case study design presented by Yin (2014). In doing so, attempts were made to enhance the quality of research design by reflecting the corresponding validity and reliability criteria suggested by Yin. Yin (2014) recommended that research design should be verified by construct validity, internal validity, external validity and reliability. In addition to these criteria, this study tried to further reflect validity and reliability by taking into account true value, applicability, consistency and neutrality as presented by Lincoln and Guba (1985).

Firstly, construct validity examines whether the concepts to be studied are correctly measured (Yin, 2014). It is deeply related to some of the true value, applicability and neutrality suggested by Lincoln and Guba (1985). The critics to case studies often point to the subjective data collection and interpretation by researchers (Ruddin, 2006). The researchers should derive an appropriate concept concerned with the purpose of the study and use suitable instruments to measure the concepts. To secure construct validity, Yin (2014) suggested using diverse information and key informants and establishing a chain of evidence. In this study, various data sources, such as documentation, archival records and interview, were used to collect data, leading to data triangulation. In particular, various materials related to Korea's SfD approach were included, such as previous studies, sports white paper, white paper on international development cooperation and government reports in the MCST and the MOFAT.

In addition, this study went through the process of being reviewed by Korean experts in the field of sport. The results were presented to a professor and a researcher who respectively hold Ph.D. degrees in sport management and sport history in Korea to confirm whether they agreed with the research results in light of their knowledge and experience. Lastly, this study consistently tried to follow the same process and procedure of data collection.

Secondly, internal validity identifies the extent to which a valid causal relationship is established between independent and dependent variables (Yin, 2014). However, Yin argued that internal validity is necessary for an explanatory case that aims to investigate the causal relationship for a phenomenon. This type of validity

does not apply to the current study which seeks to understand the main actors, development process, role of government, support, and motive of the Korean SfD approach. Thirdly, external validity is related to whether the result can be generalised (Yin, 2014). Yin (2014) recommended two main strategies: use of theory in case study and replication logic in multiple case study. Additionally, it would be necessary to select typical cases that are representative of a large number of cases. Generally, case studies carry out the analytical generalisation using a theoretical framework, not the generalisability of the findings. To increase external validity, this study tried to connect theoretical propositions with the results by utilising replication logic and cross-case synthesis techniques. These connections would contribute to the analytic generalisation of the study.

Fourthly, reliability is concerned with whether findings could be the same or similar if the research is carried out again (Yin, 2014). In this study, research protocol was used to facilitate data collection, which included research purpose, importance of the research, data collection procedure, main questionnaire items and interview guideline. A database was likewise set up to explain what data and which interviewees were used to create results. This would help maintain consistency in data collection, thus contributing to increasing reliability. In the same vein, the research design and analysis process were regularly consulted with a supervisor and Korean scholars who have extensive experience in qualitative research to ensure consistency and logic in research methods, data collection and data analysis.

Finally, this study tried to select participants who experienced or are now deeply involved in each SfD programme in Korea and conduct interviews in a comfortable environment to enhance the true value of the research. Lincoln and Guba (1985) also argued that researchers should be free from any bias that may appear in the research process and results. To secure such neutrality, this study tried to consciously control preconceptions by reflecting on whether there were any conversations that revealed personal opinions during the interviews the interview materials were being transcribed. In the course of data analysis, this study strove to understand the data collected in a value-neutral manner by clearly distinguishing

between the researchers' preconceptions, prejudices, document materials and interview materials.

5.5. Ethical Considerations

In the case of human studies, research should be carried out in accordance with highly ethical standards to protect the interviewees (Yin, 2014). Given that case studies mostly deal with human lives, ethical considerations are essential. Therefore, special attention and preparation should be taken before data collection to protect the interviewees.

There are several considerations necessary to attain ethical standards. Firstly, the characteristics of the study should be informed in advance, and participation should be voluntary. Secondly, the researcher should prevent harm caused by participation in the research. Thirdly, the research should protect the privacy and confidences of the interviewees. Fourthly, special measures are needed to protect vulnerable groups, such as children, when conducting research. Fifthly, interviewees should be chosen fairly without any prejudice.

Based on a few matters that require attention as mentioned above, this study received an approval letter (Nr. 042/2019) from the Institutional Review Board of the German Sport University Cologne to conduct the interview a month before the data collection (Appendix I). At that time, ethical considerations were reviewed again. Initially, this study selected only people who are best familiar with the study along with information, and asked them to participate in the interview without any prejudice. Everyone was informed of the research topic, purpose and major questions, and their voluntary participation was requested.

In addition, efforts were made to protect the privacy and confidences of the participants to protect against any harm caused by their participation in the study. For example, interviewers allowed the conversation to proceed freely away from their workplaces, and personal information and statements were kept anonymous in this study. Most of the interviewees work for the government, government agencies

or university, so care was taken to avoid causing them any disadvantage or inconvenience from the interviews. All collected data, including voice files recorded on a mobile phone, were not exposed to others. A written consent form for the content above was prepared and signed by the interviewees. Moreover, a small gift worth 4 euros was given to the participants after the interview as a token of appreciation.

Lastly, researcher have made personal arrangements for well-organised qualitative research. Firstly, the researcher completed all the classes related to research methods through a master's course at Korea National Sport University and Loughborough University in the UK. Now, the researcher has developed the research design part to enhance validity and logic through regular personal meetings with my supervisor. In addition to the personal meetings, the researcher has been participating in an internal colloquium three to four times a year to broaden the understanding of qualitative research and case research methods. Additionally, in 2018 and 2019, the researchers regularly participated in small seminars operated by the Sport Convergence Research Lab at the Korea National Sport University every week to gain knowledge of various research methods. Finally, the researcher has been striving to achieve academic growth through reviewing relevant papers and books on qualitative research and case study methods.

6. Empirical Study

This study aims to analyse the SfD approach in Korea by classifying information data about six programmes into five main categories based on national preference formation theory and constructivism. A deductive content analysis based on documents and interviews was conducted. Interview transcription materials are contained in Appendix J.

6.1. PyeongChang Dream Programme

As a result of deductive content analysis based on 5 major categories and 10 sub-categories, 41 codes were derived from the PyeongChang Dream Programme. Given the similarities and differences between each code, this study was able to identify a total of 5 major categories and 12 sub-categories as predetermined categories for classification. The final five categories were re-named as 'Actors', 'Development process', 'Role of government', 'Support' and 'Motive' (Table 6.1), reflecting the meaning of document and participant statements.

Table 6.1. Codes and Categories of the PyeongChang Dream Programme

Category	Sub-Category	Code
Actors	State actors	Involvement of the MCST
		Involvement of the MOFAT
		Involvement of the public office
	Non-state actors	Involvement of the PyeongChang Legacy Foundation
		Involvement of the KSPO
		Involvement of international organisations
		Involvement of International Sport Committee
		Involvement of Gangwon Province
		Involvement of Seoul City
Development process	Interaction between state actors and societal actors	Effort of the Winter Olympic bid committee
		Cooperation with the KPC
		President's critical support
		Cooperation with the MOFAT
		Development through PyeongChang Forum
		Compliance with the MDGs and SDGs

	Non-material factors or agenda created in the international community	Spreading world peace
		Compliments and expectations of international sports and media
	Interaction between non-state actors	Support of the Governor of Gangwon Province
		Effort of Gangwon Province
		Cooperation with Gangwon Athletic Association
		Operating programme of the International Sports Committee
		Transferring the programme to the PyeongChang Legacy Foundation
		Development through PyeongChang Forum
Role of government	Reflecting the preferences of societal actors	Collecting and reflecting opinions of Gangwon Province
	Reflecting non-material factors or agenda in the international community	Following and reflecting international norms
	Comprehensive management and supervision	Management and supervision
		Practical assistance
		Development directions
Support	Support by state actors	
	Support by non-state actors	Financial support by the KSPO
		Financial support by companies
		Financial support by Seoul City
		Human support by Athletic Association
		Human support by Gangwon Province
		Material support by companies
		Sponsorship of international organisations
Motive	National interests	Hosting of the Olympic Games
		Strengthening of sports diplomacy
	Humanitarianism	Olympic legacy and movement
		International human exchanges and friendship
		Experiences and chances for developing countries
		Responsibility for international development cooperation as a donor country

6.1.1. Actors

Since 2004, the Dream programme has been held every winter in the Gangwon Province, Gangwon Province has been responsible for hosting and planning the Dream programme. Naturally, the main actor of the programme is Gangwon Province, where PyeongChang is located.

> *It is no exaggeration to say that Gangwon Province is the main department of the Dream programme, and we have taken charge of*

everything in the programme. (Interviewee Lee, Manager in Gangwon Province, 3 April 2019)

The Dream programme was organised and managed by the International Sports Committee, which was established separately in Gangwon Province. The Committee was established in 2003 after PyeongChang was unfortunately eliminated from the selection process for the 2010 Winter Olympics. It is a non-profit foundation chaired by the governor of Gangwon Province and consists of government officials, mayors, athletics, academia, media and private enterprise personnel (quoted in Hankyung Newspaper, 2003 – Journalist Lim, B. Y.)

In other words, the International Sports Committee was created by the local government and diverse organisations in civil society to allow them to work together to host the Olympics.

The main responsibilities of the Committee are to create a foundation for international exchange, host winter sporting events and host the Winter Olympics (quoted in Hankyung Newspaper, 2003 – Journalist Lim, B. Y.).

Thus, it has played a key role in hosting the Winter Olympics. It was likewise responsible for the operation of the Dream programme until 2019.

After three challenges, Gangwon Province succeeded in bidding for the 2018 PyeongChang Olympic Games in 2011, and it then prepared for a national mega sporting event. Since then, the MCST and the MOFAT have been involved in the programme.

MCST is mainly involved in the government because Gangwon Province succeeded in hosting the Olympics, which meant that it became a project that is funded by the national government. (Interviewee Lee, Manager in Gangwon Province, 3 April 2019)

The MCST is in charge of the Dream programme because it oversees the overall sport policies in Korea, including elite sport, SFA and international development cooperation through sport. The MOFAT has not been directly involved in the Dream programme, but it is engaged in the programme in its role of recruiting international participants and requesting cooperation from other countries.

> *We are cooperating with the MOFAT in order to request the cooperation from foreign countries and recruit participants for the programme.* (Interviewee Lee, Manager in Gangwon Province, 3 April 2019)

The Dream programme began active cooperation with the Korean government departments right after the hosting of the 2018 Olympic Games was confirmed in 2011. In addition, when the programme was conducted every winter, the International Sports Committee and Gangwon Province worked closely with the KSOC, KPC and local athletic associations.

> *When we carried out the programme, we were working with more than 20 relevant organisations, including the KSOC, KPC, emergency medical service and local police station.* (Interviewee Lee, Manager in Gangwon Province, 3 April 2019)

In addition, Gangwon Province promoted cooperation with other cities and companies.

> *Since 2007, Gangwon Province has officially cooperated with Seoul to host the Winter Olympics, and since 2011, they have decided to strengthen cooperation for winter sports development, including improvement of the Dream programme* (quoted in Gangwon Province white paper, 2003)

> *Banks and companies for apparel and telecommunications equipment are indirectly involved in the programme through various forms of sponsorships* (quoted in MK Newspaper, 2015 – Journalist Cho, S. S.)

Following the successful PyeongChang Olympics, the main actor of the programme was transferred from Gangwon Province and the International Sports Committee to the PyeongChang Legacy Foundation, a non-profit organisation. The Chairman of the PyeongChang Legacy Foundation is Yoo Seung-min, a member of the IOC, and the board consists of various stakeholders from the MCST, the KOC, the KPC, the Olympic Organizing Committee and cities that hosted the Olympics.

Internationally, the IOC, the UN and the International Ski Federation (FIS) have been deeply interested in the Dream programme (Lim, 2004).

> *In 2013, Gangwon Province signed an MOU with UNOSDP for the programme, global youth development and world peace. Through this MOU, the Dream programme sought opportunities to engage North Korean youth in friendships beyond nationality* (quoted in Newsis Newspaper, 2013 – Journalist Han, Y. S.)

However, this was not realised because of the political situation, and it seems that Gangwon Province did not feel much influence from these international organisations.

> *We know that we have communicated with UN in the past, and recently, there has been no close communication with the UN.* (Interviewee Lee, Manager in Gangwon Province, 3 April 2019)

Thus, the main actors of the Dream programme were Gangwon Province and the International Sports Committee, but the main actor has now changed to the PyeongChang Legacy Foundation. The MCST, the MOFAT and the KSPO are supporting actors, and during the programme, Gangwon Province cooperates with the city and various organisations, including Seoul, the KSOC, the KPC and local athletic associations. Internationally, the IOC, the UN and the FIS are indirectly involved in the programme, but the influence has not been significant.

6.1.2. Development Process

Promotion for the Dream programme began during the bidding process for the 2010 Winter Olympics. In August 2002, the IOC selected PyeongChang as an official candidate for the 2010 Winter Olympics along with Vancouver, Salzburg and Bern.

> *In 2000, Gangwon Province established the PyeongChang bid committee and began domestic and international activities. […] At this time, the 2010 Winter Olympics bid committee was formed at the government level, which consisted of 130 members from the IOC, the KOC, academia, media and well-known people in the field of sport.* (quoted in Gangwon Province white paper, 2003)

For about a year, the Committee strove to promote the city of PyeongChang as the best place to host the Olympics. In this process, the Committee obtained positive evaluation by the IOC members and planned the Dream programme to spread and develop winter sports.

> *We think that the Committee for hosting the Winter Olympics proposed and promoted the Dream programme to appeal to the IOC and its members.* (Interviewee Lee, Manager in Gangwon Province, 3 April 2019)

> *Gangwon Province promised to promote the Dream programme in the process of hosting the 2010 Winter Olympics. Although hosting of the Olympics failed at that time, Gangwon Province continues to keep the promise of developing and expanding of winter sport through the Dream programme.* (Kim, Jin-sun, Governor in Gangwon Province, quoted in Monthly Chosun, 2007)

The Committee announced plans for the programme at the 2003 IOC General Assembly. Gangwon Province failed to host the Olympics, and the implementation of the Dream programme, which was a major commitment for hosting the Olympics, seemed uncertain. Nevertheless, Gangwon Province, which rebidded to host the 2014 Olympics, decided to carry out the programme.

On October 28, 2003, the International Sports Committee continued its role as the PyeongChang Olympic bid committee, which was disbanded due to its failure to host the Olympic Games (quoted in Hankyung Newspaper, 2003 – Journalist Lim, B. Y.)

The International Sports Committee has carried out the Dream programme since 2004. However, since Gangwon Province officials held key positions in the International Sports Committee, the province has practically been in charge of carrying out the programme. At this time, the central government and other stakeholders do not appear to have any direct involvement in the planning phase of the programme. Despite the failure to gain right to host the 2010 Olympics, the Dream programme was highly acclaimed by the IOC and international organisations, which were major driving forces in the implementation of the programme.

From the outset, the IOC favourably supported the programme and the efforts of Gangwon Province. (Interviewee Lee, Manager in Gangwon Province, 3 April 2019)

I am grateful for the efforts of the Olympic movement through the Dream programme. (Jacques Rogge, IOC president, quoted in Chosun, 2005)

PyeongChang has all the competencies and conditions to actually host a successful Olympic Games and will certainly be given the opportunity to implement the Olympic spirit. (Maio Pescante, Chairman of the European Olympic Committee, quoted in 2005 Prague General Assembly)

The Dream programme is a true Olympic movement. (IOC official, quoted in Monthly Chosun, 2007)

Gangwon Province showed its passion and aspiration for the development of winter sports and hosting the Olympics.

Domestic and foreign media contributed to promoting winter sports in the Gangwon Province to help Korea host the Winter Olympics by

promoting the Dream programme to the whole world from the beginning of the programme. (quoted in website of Gangwon Province, 2004a)

Since then, the media has played a role in promoting the annual Dream programme and related events at home and abroad.

Furthermore, non-material factors have influenced the successful launching and operation of the Dream programme. The MDGs announced by the UN as a global movement and norm to combat poverty aimed at achieving eight goals by 2015, which is illustrated by Kim (2011).

Dream programme is an activity and effort to realise the MDGs. (Interviewee Lee, Manager in Gangwon Province, 3 April 2019)

Gangwon Province agreed with the UNOSDP to contribute to the development of youth development and the spread of world peace through sports. (quoted in Newsis Newspaper, 2013 – Journalist Han, Y. S.)

In particular, Gangwon Province agreed to advise and cooperate with the UNOSDP for the successful operation of the Dream programme, hold the UNOSDP Youth Leadership Camp and promote mutual cooperation for the participation of North and South Koreans as a single national team in the Olympics.

In 2014, Gangwon Province held a special lecture titled 'Champions of Tomorrow' during the Dream programme. Wilfried Lemke, president of the UNOSDP, gave a speech on the linkage between MDGs and sports on the theme of international development and peace through sports. (quoted in Gangwon Newspaper, 2014 – Journalist Ahn, E. B.)

Clearly, the efforts and support of the UN to spread international norms on the MDGs have given legitimacy and deep significance to the Dream programme.

Since the programme began in 2004, Gangwon Province and the International Sports Committee have consulted with various stakeholders to improve the quality of the programme.

> *We are working closely with Gangwon Athletic Association to share opinions on the development of the programme. Especially after adding a programme for people with disabilities, we have been conducting exchanges with the KPC.* (Interviewee Lee, Manager in Gangwon Province, 3 April 2019)

Moreover, in 2011, the Gangwon Province decided to strengthen sports exchanges with Seoul, including the development of winter sports talent, the Dream programme support and youth camps for winter sports development. The MOFAT is essential for the programme to cooperate with foreign countries and organisations.

> *If necessary, we also communicate with the NOC, the National Paralympic Committee or the Department of Sports in each country for the programme.* (Interviewee Lee, Manager in Gangwon Province, 3 April 2019)

To improve the programme, Gangwon Province is also adopting the process of receiving feedback from those involved in the programme.

> *We do not hold public hearings for the development of the programme, but at the end of each year, we conduct a satisfaction survey with participants, volunteers and coaches and taking into consideration their opinions as much as possible to improve the programme for the future.* (Interviewee Lee, Manager in Gangwon Province, 3 April 2019)

After achieving its goal of hosting the 2018 Winter Olympic, the future of the Dream programme was uncertain. In this situation, favourable speech and willingness of the chief executive in the central government and local government have a decisive impact on continuance of the Dream programme.

> *South Korea's the Dream programme invites youth from countries that have limited gaining access to winter sports. To date, more than 1,500*

youth from 75 countries, including even Syria, which is in the middle of a civil war, have formed a friendship in the snow fields of PyeongChang. […] I believe that this valuable programme should remain as a legacy of PyeongChang and lead to the tradition of the 2018 Winter Olympics. (Moon Jae-in, President of South Korea, quoted at the UN General Assembly in 2017)

After the Olympics, there were rumours and talk about the operation of the Dream programme, especially from the Gangwon Council, which pushed for the suspension of the programme for financial reasons. However, the governor of Gangwon Province expressed his intention to proceed with the programme since it has been well-known and supported by a budget from the central government. (Interviewee Lee, Manager in Gangwon Province, 3 April 2019)

As mentioned earlier, programme's good reputation from international organisations have helped keep the programme running.

The Dream programme has been well received by the IOC and the UN, so it has been a positive driver to carry out the programme even after the Olympics. (Interviewee Lee, Manager in Gangwon Province, 3 April 2019)

Meanwhile, the Dream programme has been managed by the PyeongChang Legacy Foundation after the 2018 Olympics. Since the Foundation is a non-profit organisation established by various stakeholders, such as academia, civil society and government and local government officials, it is expected that many voices will be heard more than in the past.

We are currently preparing to move to the PyeongChang Legacy Foundation, so we will continue to develop the programme through cooperation with civil organisations or private organisations. (Interviewee Lim, Manager in the MCST, 2 April 2019)

The 2020 PyeongChang Peace Forum was hosted by Gangwon Province and KOICA and organised by the PyeongChang Legacy

Foundation. Specifically, the objectives of the programme are to spread and preserve the Olympic heritage, campaign for peace and implementation of the SDGs and promote public diplomacy through sports. (quoted in VOP Newspaper, 2020 – Journalist Lee, S. H.)

It is an effort to bring together people from all walks of life to seek an effective succession of the legacy of the Olympics. Therefore, the importance and necessity of the programme might be highlighted through these events. In conclusion, the programme was firstly planned by the 2010 Olympics bid committee but has since strengthened cooperation with the central government and domestic and international organisations to further develop it and lead it to success. In particular, the opinions of the highest decision makers of central government and local government have played a decisive role in the continuity of the programme, and the influence of international norms, campaigns and expectations, such as the MDGs, SDGs, Olympic movement, forum and media has been significant in implementing the Dream programme.

6.1.3. Role of Government

As mentioned at the end of Chapter 3, the general direction and coordination of Korea's ODA policy is made by the International Development Cooperation Committee while the Office of State Coordination is responsible for overseeing the Korean ODA activities. The MOFAT is responsible for grant aid in ODA activities, which judge the redundancy and effectiveness of the programme through consultation with relevant ministries. The MCST, which is primarily responsible for sport ODA or the SfD programme, conducts detailed consultations with the MOFAT each year to identify the validity, redundancy and effectiveness of each SfD programme.

In relation to the Dream programme, Gangwon Province had carried out its own programme until 2010, except in 2007, and so the role of the central government was relatively insignificant. Since 2011, when holding the 2018 Winter Olympics was decided, securement of a government budget for the programme began.

Basically, the MCST reviewed the basic plan submitted by Gangwon Province to determine whether it was appropriate and then determined a reasonable budget.

> *We are responsible for identifying and approving whether the plan for the Dream programme is contrary to the law and purpose of Korea's ODA.* (Interviewee Lim, Manager in the MCST, 2 April 2019)

In particular, the MCST has commonly strove to gather the opinions and demands of Gangwon Province and the International Sports Committee as much as possible.

> *Since the MCST is the department in charge of the programme, they set a budget and present the programme's development plan. The MCST gathered our opinions as much as possible, incorporated those opinions into the programme.* (Interviewee Lee, Manager in Gangwon Province, 3 April 2019)

This would be related to the atmosphere and tone of the central government's more active financial support for the ODA sector over other sectors.

> *Since the central government has actively participated in and followed international development cooperation, like ODA-related activities and international norms such as the MDGs and the SDGs, the MCST also seemed to support the programme in accordance with the central government's plan and direction* (Interviewee Lim, Manager in the MCST, 2 April 2019)

For this reason, MCST tends to not only collect opinions, but also actively provide advice and suggestions to improve the quality of the Dream programme.

> *We actively set the direction for the Dream programme and proposed ideas. For example, we thought that Gangwon Province only focused on quantitative growth to increase the number of participants and countries, but we offered our opinions on how to improve the programme in terms of quality.* (Interviewee Lim, Manager in the MCST, 2 April 2019)

Meanwhile, the MOFAT is responsible for Korea's grant-type aid projects but is not involved in any specific SfD programme itself.

In order to recruit participants in our programme, it is necessary to provide practical assistance from the MOFAT and the Embassy of Foreign Affairs. Therefore, we are in close consultation with the MOFAT whenever necessary. (Interviewee Lee, Manager in Gangwon Province, 3 April 2019)

Thus, the MCST appears to have tried to positively accept the opinions of Gangwon Province and the International Sports Committee and incorporate them into the final plan in order to participate actively in the government's agenda of international development cooperation.

6.1.4. Support

The Gangwon Province has almost independently operated the Dream programme from 2004 until 2010. The government provided a one-off budget of 400,000 dollars for the 2007 and 2011 Olympic bid efforts. At that time, it funded a budget to improve the programme's quality in order to receive an excellent evaluation from the IOC's delegation, a decisive step in hosting the Olympics. Since 2012, the government has provided annual funding for the Dream programme.

At first, we started the programme independently in 2004. In 2011, MCST began to engage in the programme on behalf of the government. As time passed, the government's funding increased, and the KSPO as a fund-managed quasi-government organisation executed the budget. After the Olympics, the budget scale did not decrease. (Interviewee Lee, Manager in Gangwon Province, 3 April 2019)

In 2007, the MCST provided one-off support, and it has been supporting about 50% of the budget for the Dream programme since 2011. (Interviewee Lim, Manager in the MCST, 2 April 2019)

As shown in Table 6.2, the government was responsible for more than 50% of the budget for the Dream programme through the KSPO.

Table 6.2. Total Budget for the Dream Programme   (Criteria: 1000 dollars)

Year		2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
Total	13,794	664	689	742	899	751	834	849	985	915	1,182	1,189	1,264	1,293	1,538
Government	4,274	-	-	-	100	-	-	-	300	500	600	680	694	700	700
Gangwon	8,436	664	689	742	759	726	794	849	497	299	396	415	426	490	690
Etc.	1,084	-	-	-	40	25	40	-	188	116	186	94	144	103	148

Source: Gangwon Province (2018)

In addition, in 2011, Gangwon Province signed a sponsorship agreement with the City of Seoul to cooperate in hosting the Olympics.

> *Seoul has sponsored a tour of Seoul for young people from all over the world who participated in the Dream programme* (quoted in YNA, 2011 – Journalist Lim, B. Y.)

Meanwhile, Gangwon Province has received professional personnel from Gangwon Province Athletic Association to carry out the Dream programme.

> *Through Gangwon Province Athletic Association, we received necessary services from professionals who have abilities in winter sports activities, such as skating or ski.* (Interviewee Lee, Manager in Gangwon Province, 3 April 2019)

Among civil societies, companies and individuals have provided financial, physical and human support for the Dream programme.

> *At the beginning of the programme, we asked the private sector for assistance, but very little was done. After our success in hosting the Olympics in 2011, there was a bit of financial and equipment support. There was cash support once or twice, and recently there was garment support.* (Interviewee Lee, Manager in Gangwon Province, 3 April 2019)

196

In fact, from 2013 to 2015, the Korea Exchange Bank (now Hana Bank) donated a total of 150,000 dollars to the Dream programme (Dream programme, 2020).

> *In 2014, the Gangwon Province signed an agreement with Shin-Sung Company to sponsor the 2014 Dream programme. Shin-Sung, a manufacturer of clothing and bags, provided the programme participants with approximately 100,000 dollars' worth of sportswear necessary to run the programme.* (quoted in The Kyunghyang Newspaper, 2013 – Journalist Choi, S. H.)

In addition, KT, a telecommunications company, supported the 2015 Dream programme by providing the communication infrastructure needed to operate the programme. Also, Gangwon Province recruits volunteers every year to ensure smooth operation of the Dream programme.

> *The volunteers are selected according to their abilities, such as language skills and coaching skills for winter sports, including skiing, snowboard and skating* (quoted in website of Dream programme, 2020)

The Dream programme has likewise evolved with the support from international organisations, such as the IOC and the FIS.

> *Based on this year's result, we will create a more advanced programme next year. The support of international competition organisations, especially the IOC and the FIS, adds to the significance of the programme.* (Gangwon Province official, quoted at YNA, newspaper, in 2004)

International organisations such as the IOC and the FIS have assessed that the Dream programme has contributed to the spread of the Olympic Movement. However, these organisations did not provide any financial or material support for the programme. They sent a favourable evaluation, which played an important role in ensuring that the Dream programme became a famous SfD programme related to winter sports. In summary, the Dream programme is operated primarily by financial

and material support from domestic actors while international actors contribute to the development of the programme through sponsorship.

6.1.5. Motive

The Dream programme is a representative Korean SfD activity, and various actors have worked together to run the programme. Although there are domestically and internationally relevant actors, the programme has mainly been operated in close cooperation with Gangwon Province and the MCST. While they may have similarities, the two actors have slightly different motives for their involvement in launching and engaging in the programme.

In relation to the Dream programme, Gangwon Province has two main motives. Firstly, the officially known motivation is to provide youth in countries that do not have the opportunity to enjoy and play winter sports.

> *We launched the programme to provide opportunities for youth and young children in countries where they cannot experience winter sports.* (Interviewee Lee, Manager in Gangwon Province, 3 April 2019)

> *The Dream programme invited youth from countries where winter sports was unavailable because of the climate to provide winter sports experiences and systematic training. The programme has created opportunities for cultural exchange and friendship among youth in each country to understand one another, which ultimately promotes harmony and peace through sports activities.* (quoted in Gangwon Province white paper, 2004b)

Such understanding and harmony can help build close relationships between countries from the cultural exchanges among participants.

> *The programme consists of winter sports activities, cultural activities and recreation. Specifically, the 2018 programme operated the winter sports academy, and the Seoul Tour allowed participants to experience Korean traditional culture. Consequently, Gangwon*

Province has strove to spread the Olympic movement for world peace and humanity through the expansion of winter sports. (quoted in Internal Report of Gangwon Province, 2018)

Another motivation for the start of the Dream programme mentioned by Gangwon Province was to host the PyeongChang Winter Olympics. In fact, Gangwon Province presented the programme to the IOC as a part of its bid to host the 2010 Olympics.

The Dream programme started in 2004 to promote winter sports as part of its strategy for the Olympic bid. (quoted in Report of the Institute for Global Economics and Social Affairs, 2013)

Naturally, at first, hosting the Olympics was the most decisive motive. It is no exaggeration to say that without the Olympics, there would be no Dream programme. (Interviewee Lee, Manager in Gangwon Province, 3 April 2019)

Through the Dream programme, Gangwon Province wanted to promote the province and let the world know about its ability to hold the Winter Olympics in Korea.

Let's create another winter sports myth in PyeongChang through the Dream programme! (Kim Jin-sun, Governor of Gangwon Province, quoted in YTN, 2004)

This stance continued until after three bids to host the Winter Olympics.

We have failed to host the Winter Olympics twice, but we are still promoting PyeongChang to host the 2018 Olympics. Also, through the Dream programme, we would like to dispel the vision that there is great difficulty in hosting the winter sports event in Asia and show that an Asian country has full capacities to host winter sports events. (Park Jong-hoon, Official in Gangwon Province, quoted in RFA, 2009)

In other words, the Dream programme can be regarded as an event to show the passion and competence of Gangwon Province for the Winter Olympics. This is

not much different from the reason the MCST become involved in the Dream programme since 2011.

> *The government provided support to the programme with the expectation of making the world become aware that Korea is an advanced sport country, and that PyeongChang Olympics will be held successfully.* (Interviewee Lim, Manager in the MCST, 2 April 2019)

In addition, the government recognised the Dream programme as an international development cooperation programme and wanted to contribute to the international society.

> *As you know, Korea has a sense of gratitude and responsibility as the first country to become a donor country from being a recipient country. That's why we want to repay the past support we have received from the international community towards developing countries. We hope that those programmes will be of some help in mutual diplomatic relations through exchanges with participating countries.* (Interviewee Lim, Manager in the MCST, 2 April 2019)

For this reason, the Korean government tends to participate in the Dream programme with a sense of responsibility as a donor country.

Meanwhile, the Dream programme was at a crossroads after the 2018 Winter Olympics. Gangwon Province finally hosted the Olympic, which meant that the main motivation for carrying out the programme has disappeared. As mentioned previously, President Moon Jae-in stated that the Dream programme should lead to the tradition of the Winter Olympics because it is a legacy of PyeongChang. According to an internal report, Gangwon Province considers the programme to be the biggest legacy of the Olympics.

> *Gangwon Province has a plan to send to the world a message of friendship and harmony through youth exchanges with conflict zones and North Korea.*

This goal will affect the purpose and future direction of the programme. In conclusion, from the perspective of Gangwon Province, its hosting of the Olympics and the spread of the Olympic movement through the participation of youth in developing countries were the driving force behind the Dream programme. The responsibility to support the successful hosting of the Olympics and contribute to international development cooperation activities seems to be the motivation behind the involvement of MCST in the Dream programme.

6.1.6. Summary

The Dream programme is an SfD programme that has provided young people in warm countries with winter sports and cultural experiences since 2004. In the recent 2020 Dream programme, 123 people from 29 countries participated in 7 sports. Since Dream programme was originally planned to increase the attractiveness of Korea's bid to host the Winter Olympics, Gangwon Province, a candidate city, hosted the programme. Gangwon Province established the International Sports Committee to enhance international exchange and create a foundation for hosting the Olympics. The Committee was composed of those from Gangwon Province, the county, academia, media, sport and companies and has been in charge of the practical operation of the programme with Gangwon Province until 2019.

After the Dream programme won the bid in 2011 to host the Olympics on its third attempt, its status was upgraded to a sport ODA programme supported by the government. Since then, the MCST, the MOFAT and the KSPO have provided financial and administrative support for the Dream programme. Furthermore, Gangwon Province has close cooperation with sport organisations, such as the KSOC, the KPC and each sports organisations in the province. Internationally, non-state actors such as the IOC, the UN and the FIS are sponsoring the programme. In particular, the UNOSDP signed an MOU with Gangwon Province to develop the programme, and the IOC recognises the Dream programme as a representative legacy programme for the Olympics. After the 2018 Olympics, the work of the

Dream programme was transferred to the PyeongChang Legacy Foundation, which was established to continue developing the legacy of the 2018 Olympics.

As mentioned earlier, the Dream programme was promoted in the process of bidding for the Winter Olympics. Gangwon Province and the PyeongChang bid committee planned the programme ahead of the selection of the host city for the 2010 Winter Olympics. Although Gangwon Province failed to host the 2010 Olympics, it has operated the Dream programme since 2004 as promised. Gangwon Province continues to work with the Dream programme-related actors, such as the MCST, KSOC, KPC and Seoul City. In this process, the IOC and foreign media recognised the Dream programme as an SfD programme that realised the Olympic movement and spirit and, at the same time, accepted it as a strong contender to host the Olympics in Korea.

International norms or values spread by the international community and international organisations have affected the development of the Dream programme. The UN, which cooperated with the Dream programme, insisted on international development and the realisation of the MDGs and SDGs through sports, emphasising the legitimacy and importance of the programme. After the 2018 Olympics, the Dream programme was on the verge of being abolished naturally. However, thanks to the positive evaluation and willingness of the chief executive of the government and Gangwon Province, the PyeongChang Legacy Foundation is now running the programme.

Since its involvement in the Dream programme began in earnest in 2011, the MCST has been settling the budget after reviewing the basic plan of the programme and determining whether the direction is appropriate. In this process, the MCST played a role in gathering various opinions from Gangwon Province and the International Sports Committee, incorporating these in the final plan of the programme. The MCST has also been supporting the programme in accordance with the intention of the government to comply with and implement international norms, such as the MDGs and SDGs. Meanwhile, the Dream programme was carried out only with the budget of Gangwon Province until 2010, except in 2007. Since 2011,

when the Olympic bid was confirmed, the KSPO has been funding about 50% of the budget needed for the Dream programme. When the Olympics were confirmed, financial and material support were provided by domestic companies for the Dream programme as well. Human resources, including coaches and volunteers, were selected by Gangwon Province. Although the IOC and the FIS do not provide any financial or material support, their support has had a significant impact on the development of the domestic programme into an international SfD programme related to winter sports.

The Dream programme was initiated and developed by two main motivations. Gangwon Province has had a desire to contribute to the development of winter sports by providing opportunities for young people to experience winter sports. It has been expecting the motives to lead to the spread of the Olympic Movement to realise world peace and humanity. Importantly, Gangwon Province started the Dream programme as a means to host the PyeongChang Winter Olympics. Additionally, the MCST fully supported the programme for the successful hosting of the Olympics. It has likewise sought to contribute to the international community by faithfully playing its role as a donor country in international development cooperation.

6.2. Dream Together Master Programme

As a result of deductive content analysis based on 5 categories and 10 sub-categories, referring to SfD programmes in major countries and the two main theories applied to analyse the phenomenon in this study, 30 codes were derived from the DTM Programme. Considering the similarities and differences between each code, this study was able to identify a total of 5 main categories and 12 sub-categories as a result of classifying them into predetermined categories and sub-categories.

Table 6.3. Codes and Categories of the DTM Programme

Category	Sub-Category	Code
Actors	State actors	Involvement of the MCST
		Involvement of the government departments
	Non-state actors	Cooperation with domestic mega sporting organising committee
		Involvement of the KSPO and the KSOC
		Involvement of international organisations
		Involvement of Seoul National University (SNU)
Development process	Interaction between state actors and societal actors	Cooperation between the MCST and civil society
		Cooperation between the MCST and SNU
		Plans to further interact with civil society in the future
	Non-material factors or agenda created in the international community	Compliance with the MDGs and the SDGs
		Development of the programme through international forum
	Interaction between state actors	Development through relevant policies and laws
		The government's indifference to SfD at first
		Active promotion of sport ODA after two consecutive failed Olympic bids
Role of government	Reflecting the preferences of societal actors	Collecting and reflecting the opinions of SNU
		Collecting and reflecting the opinions of various civil societies
	Reflecting non-material factors or agenda in the international community	Following and reflecting international agenda
		Following and reflecting international norms
	Comprehensive management and supervision	Management and supervision
		Practical assistance
		Development direction through announcing relevant policies
Support	Support by state actors	
	Support by non-state actors	Financial support by the KSPO
		Human support by SNU
		Material support by SNU
		Sponsorship of international organisations

		Hosting the Olympic Games
Motive	National interests	Establishment of a global network for sports diplomacy
		Practice the MDGs and the SDGs
	Humanitarianism	Contribution to the development of developing countries through sports
		Responsibility for international development cooperation as a donor country

The final five categories were re-named as 'Actors', 'Development process', 'Role of government', 'Support' and 'Motive' (Table 6.3), reflecting the meaning of document and participant statements.

6.2.1. Actors

DTM Programme is a master course that nurtures next-generation sport administrators and is considered to be one of the leading sport ODA programme in Korea. From the start in 2013, the government was deeply involved in the DTM programme because it was initially planned as a part of the Korean government's ODA project. The MCST is a government department in charge of international development cooperation through sports, such as the DTM programme. The MCST plays a role in budgeting after reviewing the business plan of the programme.

> *We budget for Korea's sport ODA programme and determine whether the programme has a proper institutional and legal basis as an ODA project.* (Interviewee Yoon, Deputy director in the MCST, 2 April 2019)

However, the MCST entrusted the Sports Talent Development Foundation with the actual management of the programme in 2013. Two years after the programme began, the KSPO continued to act as an auxiliary operator when the foundation was absorbed and integrated into the KSPO.

> *The reason we commissioned the Sports Talent Development Foundation and KSPO to operate the programme is because the MCST has already engaged in many international sports cooperation*

activities. So we cannot run everything in detail directly. We also thought they would do better with networking and practical work with developing countries based on their work and experience. (Interviewee Yoon, Deputy director in the MCST, 2 April 2019)

The KSPO is a quasi-governmental organisation for fund management in Korea; it is a place where state funds are managed or entrusted with management under the National Finance Act. The KSPO basically establishes an annual plan for the DTM programme and serves as a consultant for the MCST. However, the KSPO is not an educational institution, so there was a limit as to what the DTM programme could actually carry out. Therefore, the KSPO selected the educational institution and entrusted it with major tasks.

The DTM programme is a course for a master's degree. The MCST has designated us as an assistant operator to allow us to use the National Sports Promotion Fund and the programme, but we cannot operate the master's degree programme. Therefore, we are in charge of selecting and contracting universities to operate the programme. (Interviewee Kim, General Manager in the KSPO, 4 April 2019)

For this reason, the most practical tasks of the programme will be performed at the university selected. The KSPO, however, is trying to exercise more authority on its own programmes in order to maximise its performance without undermining the purpose of the state-run project.

Seoul National Univ. (SNU) is currently in charge of recruiting master's students mainly from developing countries. We think it would be more in line with the purpose of the programme if we select those who engage in sport policy and administration in sports-related government departments in developing countries. Thus, we along with the MCST have a plan to select those directly within the government and National Olympic Committee through exchanges with governments in developing countries. (Interviewee Kim, General Manager in the KSPO, 4 April 2019)

> *Since 2017, the KSPO has entrusted outside agencies with the assessment of the DTM programme's proposed business plan as to whether the project meets the UN's SDGs. We send the results to SNU and then get feedback on the assessment.* (Interviewee Kim, General Manager in the KSPO, 4 April 2019)

The KSPO and SNU have thus been working together for the development of the DTM programme since 2016.

SNU is running the DTM programme in the role of the KSPO's agency. It has been selected as the operator of the DTM programme twice in a row since 2013. Indeed, SNU has the best environment, conditions and even curriculum to run the master's programme.

> *Basically, we thought that it would be the role of SNU to train sports administrators because we are not capable of educating athletes or coaches. We were selected as an educational institution for the first DTM programme designed for five years. Owing to the nature of the programme, all classes must be conducted in English, but in reality, one or two professors cannot operate it. SNU has more than five professors who have taught abroad, so this is feasible.* (Interviewee Kang, Project director in SNU, 28 March 2019)

> *The curriculum of the DTM programme consists of sports humanities, sport event management, sport marketing, sport development, sport organisation and governance and sport media and communication. In addition to the master's programme, SNU has held the Dream Together Forum, special lectures on notable persons at home and abroad, field trips and a Korean language course.* (quoted in Brochure of the DTM programme, 2018)

Meanwhile, there was a subtle tension between the KSPO and the SNU over their role and authority within the programme.

> *The budget is a bit smaller than during the first five years of the project. I don't know the exact reason, but the KSPO seems to have reduced*

207

the budget a little. As it is an educational programme, we are actually running it, but the KSPO is trying to intervene in various parts of the programme, engaging in many things in person. (Interviewee Kang, Project director in SNU, 28 March 2019)

Various actors, as well as the MCST, the KSPO and the SNU, have been cooperating directly and indirectly with regarding to the DTM programme.

The International Development Cooperation Committee, the Office of State Coordination and the MOFAT, which oversee and coordinate Korea's ODA activities, are naturally involved in the DTM programme in the process of setting the annual plan, and the Ministry of Economy and Finance is also connected with the process of drawing up the budget. We are also cooperating with the KSOC if necessary. (Interviewee Yoon, Deputy director in the MCST, 2 April 2019)

The DTM programme has also worked with the KSOC, the PyeongChang 2018 Olympics Organising Committee and the Gwangju 2015 World Swimming Championships Organising Committee. (quoted in Brochure of the DTM programme, 2018).

In 2015, we signed an MOU with the Gwangju 2015 World Swimming Championships Organising Committee to help master's students participate and volunteer during the competition (Interviewee Kang, Project director in SNU, 28 March 2019)

Internationally, the DTM programme has been partnering with the Association of National Olympic Committees (ANOC), the International University Sports Federations (FISU), the UNOSDP and the WT to continue mutual cooperation.

We have partnerships with various foreign sports-related organisations. For example, ANOC and FISU, which have an MOU with SNU, recommend to students interested in a master's course the DTM programme. The DTM programme is also a course that is accredited by the IOC and has signed an MOU with the UNOSDP. We

are also working with the World Taekwondo Federation if necessary. (Interviewee Kang, Project director in SNU, 28 March 2019)

As we know, SNU has an exchange relationship with Tsukuba University in Japan, and we are working with the Ministry of Education in Taiwan and FISU. (Interviewee Kim, General Manager in the KSPO, 4 April 2019)

Lastly, the DTM programme provided a foundation for sports exchange with foreign countries.

Several countries, including Ecuador and Vietnam, have been contracted first and have expressed their desire to form partnerships with the DTM programme. However, there has been no concrete cooperation yet. (Interviewee Kang, Project director in SNU, 28 March 2019)

Through the DTM programme, 108 students graduated from a total of 48 countries, and you can say that there have already been cross-border exchanges through the DTM programme. (Interviewee Kim, General Manager in the KSPO, 4 April 2019)

The main actors of the DTM programme consist of the MCST, the KSPO and SNU. Moreover, the programme has domestically been working with the KSOC and the Organising Committee of mega sporting events in Korea. Internationally, it has worked with ANOC, FISU, IOC, UNOSDP, Tsukuba University and Taiwan's Ministry of Education on the basis of partnership and MOUs.

6.2.2. Development Process

In 2013, Park Geun-hye's government presented 'Culture of Life' as one of the main goals of the state.

The government suggested sport ODA projects for developing countries as a part of its detailed plans to promote cultural diversity

and expand cooperation through sports (quoted in Sport White Paper, 2014a).

After analysing policy research, gathering public opinion and conducting a discussion session, the MCST announced Sports Vision 2018, which is a blueprint for the sport policy over the next five years, including the DTM programme (MCST, 2013). To come up with a concrete business plan for the DTM programme, the MCST held working-level consultations with relevant government departments.

> *In 2013, the Korean sport ODA planned a five-year programme, including the DTM programme. After working-level consultations with the International Development Cooperation Committee and the Office of State Coordination as well as consultations with the MOEF to secure the budget, we finally decided to carry out the project.* (Interviewee Yoon, Deputy director in the MCST, 2 April 2019)

From the beginning, however, the MCST did not seem to have an interest in programme to nurture sports administrators, such as the DTM programme.

> *At first, I guess that the MCST was not interested in sport ODA or international development cooperation at all and probably did not even know there were these kinds of activities. It seems that the MCST was simply interested in international sports cooperation.* (Interviewee Kang, Project director in SNU, 28 March 2019)

Indeed, the government did not pay much attention to well-organised international development cooperation through sports until the end of the 2000s. However, the two failed bids for the Winter Olympics highlighted the need for sports diplomacy.

> *At that time, sport ODA programmes were designed to prepare and support the 2018 PyeongChang Olympics, which were usually implemented by the MCST.* (Interviewee Kim, General manager in the KSPO, 4 April 2019)

The MCST began serious efforts to promote friendship and soft power among countries through sports cooperation. Although various SfD programmes were also planned at the government level, several suggestions by a renowned professor in the field of sport management greatly helped design the programmes which utilises human capital. The professor at SNU suggested a number of ideas, especially international sports development during a meeting with the second vice minister of the MCST.

> *At that time, I had a chance to meet with the newly inaugurated Vice Minister of the MCST and introduced various ideas while talking about various sports fields. One of them was fostering sport administration. These days, I thought it is more important for Korea to strengthen sports cooperation by cultivating sports administrators and also to play an important role within the global sports network than to win medals in international competitions.* (Interviewee Kang, Project director in SNU, 28 March 2019)

In response, the Vice Minister of the MCST expressed great interest in these subjects, contributing to the establishment of the ministry's international sports administration programme.

> *It is true that I have proposed many things, but the Vice Minister of the MCST created an environment for the promotion of international development cooperation within the ministry. In my memory, the Vice Minister visited London around the time of the London Olympics and made a public announcement about these plans.* (Interviewee Kang, Project director in SNU, 28 March 2019)

Since its selection as an indirect operator after rigorous screening and interviews, SNU has continued close consultations with the MCST, Sports Talent Development Foundation and the KSPO on the content and direction of the DTM programme. In this process, SNU actively proposed a better way to develop the curriculum of the programme.

To be honest, I think Korea started a system for educating sport administration to show it off to other countries. I took about 10 years to set up a proper domestic system. I made a proposal to the MCST about the places where the DTM programme could be provided to cultivate domestic sports administration. As a result, the DTM programme has been adjusted to about 5 people for Koreans and about 25 overseas students. (Interviewee Kang, Project director in SNU, 28 March 2019)

In the process of promoting the programme, the SNU also offered various opinions about additional activities.

The government only talked about the curriculum of the master's course. As a result, we suggested various things, and we told them that we should not limit the DTM programme to the master's course but develop it so that it can play a central role in the international sports network. We added a variety of other activities to the plan. In fact, there are the Dream Together Forum, a field trip and special lectures. It is held once a year based on our proposal. (Interviewee Kang, Project director, 28 March 2019)

However, because the DTM programme is a national project and operated by a curriculum, societal actors have a relatively limited involvement in the programme. In response, the KSPO announced it plans to create conditions for collecting and gathering opinions from more diverse social actors in the future.

As it is a programme for a master's degree, education is being provided intensively at the SNU, and it would be difficult for other organisations to engage in the programme. In the long run, however, it appears that the programme will require joint operation by several universities, not one, and links to civil society and domestic and international sport organisations for an effective operation of the programme. (Interviewee Kim, General manager in the KSPO, 4 April 2019)

The initiation and development of the DTM programme was also influenced by the non-material elements and agenda required by an international society. In fact, since joining the OECD DAC in 2010, the Korean government has been actively participating in international development cooperation.

> *Complying with MDGs and SDGs in relation to sport ODA is the basic principle of our government in international development cooperation.* (Interviewee Yoon, Deputy director in the MCST, 2 April 2019)

> *MDGs and SDGs may be seen as major reasons for the government's starting and continuing the programme by the government.* (Interviewee Kang, Project director in SNU, 28 March 2019)

The KSPO referred to SDGs as evaluation indicators of the DTM programme. This clearly shows that the government's policy is to comply with SDGs.

> *As the DTM programme is overseen by the MCST, the International Development Cooperation Committee and the Office of State Coordination, we are making efforts to improve the programme in line with the evaluation indicators of the government. In particular, it has been entrusted to outside agencies since 2017 in order to assess whether it meets the UN's SDGs.* (Interviewee Kim, General manager in the KSPO, 4 April 2019)

Moreover, the SNU or KSPO holds the Dream Together Forum every year as part of the DTM programme. The Forum serves to share the diplomatic, social and cultural values of sports. In particular, prominent figures from international sport organisations, including the IOC and NOC, attend the Forum to spread the value of internationally shared sports and spread relevant campaigns.

> *The Dream Together Forum identifies an important topic in the international sports community and invites renowned sports scholars. In 2018, it was held under the theme of 'Sport and Peace' because there was great interest in peace on the Korean Peninsula. Students of the DTM programme participate in the Forum and have a discussion*

with one another. (Interviewee Kang, Project director in SNU, 28 March 2019)

The 2018 Forum also introduced cases of conflict and civil war resolution through sports in Northern Ireland and Colombia. (quoted in Chosun Newspaper, 2018 – Journalist Jeon, Y. J.)

Moreover, the DTM programme contributes to promoting the role and values of sports to achieve SDGs. In 2019, former UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon gave a lecture at the DTM programme on sports and sustainable development. The media has served to promote the DTM programme, special guest lectures and DTM forums in a favourable manner.

DTM Forum is a dream of sports shared by world sports scholars. (quoted in Sports Chosun Newspaper, 2013 – Journalist Jeon, Y. J.)

DTM to cultivate elite sports administration. (quoted in The Asian Newspaper, 2013 – Journalist Kim, N. J.)

SNU enhanced international cooperation to train sports administrators in developing countries. (quoted in News1 Newspaper, 2015 – Journalist Yang, S. R.)

In conclusion, the DTM programme was created by several parts of the government, especially the MCST. However, in the development process, the opinions and suggestions of societal actors, such as scholars in the field of sport management, SNU and individuals, have been greatly helpful in implementing and developing the programme. After joining the OECD DAC in 2010, the Korean government actively sought to engage in international development cooperation; in particular, most ODA programmes tend to be based on MDGs and SDGs. The DTM programme is no exception, and it has recently conducted a systematic assessment to realise the SDGs. Lastly, the Dream Together Forum serves to help the world share the values for SDP while spreading international agenda, norms and values to Korea.

6.2.3. Role of Government

The MCST, which is in charge of the DTM programme, has basically served to design the purpose and direction of the programme.

> *Basically, the MCST designed the specific purpose and direction of the DTM programme.* (Interviewee Kang, Project director in SNU, 28 March 2019)

In addition, the MCST has been responsible for overseeing and budgeting the programme as the ultimate manager of the programme.

> *We play a role in determining what programmes are needed and how much budget we need. For example, we assess whether a programme plan conforms to the purpose and budget originally intended by the MCST.* (Interviewee Yoon, Deputy director in the MCST, 2 April 2019)

> *Because the MCST has the right to approve the entire programme, it deserves to manage and supervise the programme as a whole. This means that the KSPO draws up a business plan and receives approval from the MCST. The MCST reviews the project plan and budget to assess their feasibility and makes efforts to secure the budget.* (Interviewee Kim, General manager in the KSPO, 4 April 2019)

The MCST has likewise tried to collect the opinions of SNU personnel. It has actively cooperated with the operation of the programme at the governmental level. Also, the MCST has collected various opinions from various fields since 2012 to establish the Sports Vision 2018 announced in 2013.

> *SNU holds meetings about the DTM programme with the MCST twice a year.* (Interviewee Kang, Project director in SNU, 28 March 2019)

> *When SNU asks for cooperation, we usually come forward and help. For example, when SNU recently needed cross-border cooperation for recruiting students, we played the role of a consultant between the countries with the cooperation of the MOFAT and the embassy since the MCST has the authority to ask for assistance on behalf of the*

government. (Interviewee Yoon, Deputy director in the MCST, 2 April 2019)

In particular, many opinions from sports participants, employees in the sport industry and athletes were converged into the Sports Vision 2018, including the DTM programme (quoted in Sport White Paper, 2003)

Meanwhile, since the DTM programme is a national project, the International Development Cooperation Committee, the Office of State Coordination and the MOFAT have been indirectly involved in the programme through the supervision, coordination and consultation of the Korean ODA policy.

The Korean government announced the first and second basic international development cooperation plans in 2010 and 2015, respectively. The ODA support goal for the first basic plan was to facilitate economic growth and sustainable development to resolve poverty issues and achieve the MDGs presented at the G20 meeting and the UN. In the first plan, the government noted that it was important to build friendly economic cooperation between countries by enhancing their fundamental capabilities and promoting private sector activities. The second plan focused on enhancing consistency between SDGs and Korea's ODA policy by developing a mechanism that links each ODA programme to the SDGs (quoted in Internal Report of ODA Korea, 2020b).

Since the MCST has been responsible for the Korean sport ODA, it has tried to meet the direction and purpose of Korea's international development cooperation.

We hope to maintain friendly relations with other countries through projects that fit the situation and ultimately promote the sports diplomacy between countries. (Interviewee Yoon, Deputy director in the MCST, 2 April 2019)

I hope that good relations with developing countries would help us enter the countries' sport market in the future and contribute to our job

creation. I hope that the sport industry, which is the future growth engine under the current low growth trend in Korea, can promote a growth and development through the DTM programme. (Interviewee Kang, Project director in SNU, 28 March 2019)

In particular, the G20 meeting and SDGs emphasise the importance of human resource development and education, which are in line with the purpose of the DTM programme. Therefore, the MCST has been trying to achieve MDGs and SDGs created at the UN and G20 meetings through the DTM programme and further pursuing economic cooperation with developing countries. In the same vein, the DTM programme is strengthening exchanges and cooperation with Southeast Asian countries.

There are 24 ODA-focused countries where the government encourages us to select participants for the programme. Recently, the government is pursuing a New Southern Policy for a wide range of cooperation with Southeast Asian countries. The pursuit is reflected in the recruitment of the programme participants. (Interviewee Yoon, Deputy director in the MCST, 2 April 2019)

In addition, the first International Development Cooperation Plan recommended that Korea's ODA programme should actively participate and comply with international aid norms set forth by the OECD DAC. (quoted in Internal Report of ODA Korea, 2020b).

As mentioned earlier, the MCST and the KSPO are in compliance with SDGs. They conduct evaluations to ensure that they meet the goals. This means that the government actively cooperates and embraces the non-material elements and agenda related to international development cooperation formed in the international community. In conclusion, the MCST has prepared the budget for the DTM programme and reviewed detailed plans established by the KSPO, and has a consultation with the MOFAT, the Office of State Coordination and the Ministry of Economy and Finance (MOEF). The MCST had some procedures to reflect the proposals and opinions of SNU and the general public in its detailed plan for the development of the DTM programme. The Korean government has actively

embraced the aid norms and agendas advocated by the international community, setting them as the main objective of Korea's ODA activities. The goals and directions of the government were also reflected in the DTM programme.

6.2.4. Support

As the DTM programme is representative ODA activity of Korea, it is operated with budget support from the government. The programme is entirely run by the National Sports Promotion Fund as a business for developing sport in developing countries.

> *100% of programme budget is from the KSPO's National Sports Promotion Fund.* (Interviewee Kang, Project director in SNU, 28 March 2019)

> *The programme is a project carried out through the government's National Sports Promotion Fund, so there is no case of funding from other agencies.* (Interviewee Kim, General manager in the KSPO, 4 April 2019)

Specifically, this budget is used to support the DTM programme's curriculum, personnel expenses, extracurricular programme, Dream Together Forum, tuition fees and networking of graduates. As shown in Table 6.4, the DTM programme started with about 1.2 million dollars in 2013, and now about 2.4 million dollars are funded by the National Sports Promotion Fund.

Table 6.4. Total Budget for the DTM Programme   (Criteria: million dollars)

Year	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Total amount	1.2	2.6	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.4

Source: KSPO (2020)

Financial support for the DTM programme comes from the government while SNU provides educational facilities and faculty.

SNU, which operates the curriculum, provides educational facilities for the DTM programme. (Interviewee Kim, General manager in the KSPO, 4 April 2019)

The faculty of the DTM programme is formed by SNU's own human network. (Interviewee Kang, Project director in SNU, 28 March 2019)

Renowned faculty members from around the world, including the US, the UK, Switzerland, Denmark, Australia, Germany and the Netherlands, have been participating in the DTM programme. (quoted in Brochure of the DTM programme, 2018)

The faculty members join the DTM programme and work together to make it an international SfD programme.

The DTM programme is well-organised and designed programme that brings together a truly global audience to address key issues, […] the administration of this programme has been accomplished in an efficient manner. (Ian Henry, Professor of Loughborough University, quoted at the Brochure of 2018 DTM programme)

It emphasised the legitimacy and importance of the DTM programme through the Dream Together Forum and a special lecture by an internationally renowned faculty.

I was particularly impressed by the vision of the faculty, which is to cultivate future sport administrators. […] It is my hope that this Master's programme will be able to cultivate and inspire future leaders in the world of sport. (Wilfried Lemke, Former special adviser to the UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon, quoted at the Brochure of 2018 DTM programme)

As mentioned earlier, ANOC, FISU, UNOSDP and WT have been working together to achieve the common goal of the SfD approach. This means that organisations and individuals in the international community have been backing up the DTM programme thereby supporting Korea's SfD approach. In conclusion, the

government and SNU are in charge of the financial and human resource of the DTM programme, and human support is carried out through the cooperation of the international community and individuals.

6.2.5. Motive

The DTM programme is a government-led ODA project in which the KSPO and SNU play the role of assistant operator and indirect operator, respectively. However, the KSPO is a quasi-governmental organisation that often tries to achieve the policy direction and purpose of the government. In other words, the policy of the KSPO seems the same as that of the MCST with regard to the motivation of the DTM programme. Therefore, the motives of the MCST and SNU must be identified to ascertain why the DTM programme was launched and operated.

The MCST's planning and implementation of the DTM programme had two strong motives. Firstly, the MCST promoted sport ODA, especially the DTM programme, to ultimately strengthen Korea's sports diplomacy. Korea is an elite sports powerhouse that excels in various sports competitions. Ha et al. (2015) described the sports status of Korea as follows:

> *Korea has become one of the six countries in the world that have hosted the top four mega sporting events, namely the Summer and Winter Olympics, the World Athletics Championships and the FIFA World Cup.*

Nevertheless, it is also true that Korea's sports diplomacy has been worse than that of other sports-advanced countries.

> *The reality and problems of Korea's sports diplomacy have been strongly raised through two failed Olympic bids. The government began to push ahead with the DTM programme owing to the need to expand sport ODA projects and finally establish a global sport.* (quoted in Sport White Paper, 2018)

The DTM programme was planned as part of the preparation and support for the PyeongChang Olympics. Through the programme, we wanted to strengthen Korea's sport status and sport network with developing countries. (Interviewee Kim, General manager in the KSPO, 4 April 2019)

The DTM programme is focused on educating people. We thought it was more meaningful to develop humans than to just build facilities or support grant-type aids. If students return to their countries after completing the DTM course, We hoped that they would try to maintain friendly relations with our country, which in turn will help sports diplomacy. (Interviewee Kang, Project director in SNU, 28 March 2019)

In particular, the MCST expected the DTM programme to improve the national brand of Korea and contribute to the establishment of Korea's global network.

Another motivation for the MCST is to achieve the MDGs of the UN, which plays a responsible role in the international community as a member of the OECD DAC. Hence, it would be an important motivation to contribute to the development of developing countries through the SfD programme.

In 2010, Korea joined the OECD through which it gained status as a significant party to international development cooperation, but the priority of the ODA remained at the bottom of the list of DAC members. (quoted in Internal Report of the KSPO, 2020)

Thus, it was necessary to participate actively in the ODA project to implement the UN's MDGs.

The DTM programme was promoted as part of the sport ODA to meet the international trends, such as the MDGs and SDGs declared afterwards. (Interviewee Kim, General manager in the KSPO, 4 April 2019)

> *In my memory, the Vice Minister of the MCST mentioned during the London Olympics that Korea would try this development cooperation programme since we are the only country that has become a donor country from being a recipient country in international society and even became a sport advanced country.* (Interviewee Kang, Project director in SNU, 28 March 2019)

> *One of the biggest motivations of the programme is to contribute to the development of developing countries themselves through sports. While other programmes are weighted towards development through elite sport, the programme is the only one that promotes development by nurturing talent in the sport industry and administrative sectors of developing countries.* (Interviewee Yoon, Deputy director in the MCST, 2 April 2019)

SNU is currently involved in the second project, following the first project of the DTM programme. It also has two main motivations. Firstly, SNU has tried to be involved in valuable projects or activities through sports.

> *I don't know what it means for the nation to win another medal in international competitions these days. I think it would be better to help other countries with sincerity and then gain recognition from them. Basically, we would like to exert good influence and value through sports.* (Interviewee Kang, Project director in SNU, 28 March 2019).

The SNU also considers the programme as a social responsibility because it is a national university that represents Korea.

> *Since SNU has a responsibility to make social contributions, and the DTM programme is a national project with a special purpose, I thought that it would be important to contribute internationally on behalf of the nation.* (Interviewee Kang, Project director in SNU, 28 March 2019).

In addition, SNU was interested in improving the sports system in developing countries and wanted to contribute further to the formation of a friendly sports network between those countries and Korea.

I thought that it would be more effective to improve the sports system of developing countries in the long run than to provide sports supplies and facilities. In the past, when Koreans returned from staying abroad in the US, it naturally served as a pro-American group in the international community. Like that, we believe that if the country's sports sector develops in the future by fostering next generation sports administrators, we can win each other by extending exchanges and forming friendly sports networks in the international sports community.
(Interviewee Kang, Project director in SNU, 28 March 2019)

Consequently, the MCST and SNU both began engaging in the DTM programme with the need to establish a global sports network and cooperation. Lastly, the non-material factors and agenda spreading in the international community based on humanitarianism seem to have an effect on the launching and development of the DTM programme.

6.2.6. Summary

The DTM programme was launched in 2013 as an SfD programme to cultivate next-generation sports administrators in developing countries. To date, more than 100 people from 48 countries, including Africa, Eastern Europe and Latin America, have completed the DTM programme. Given that the DTM programme was initially designed as a government-led sports ODA programme, the MCST is responsible for its overall operation. The MCST designated the KSPO as an auxiliary business operator so that the programme can be operated more professionally. However, as the main task of the KSPO is to manage the state fund, it was constrained to take the initiative in running a master's course. For this reason, the government designated SNU as an indirect operator and entrusted it with the actual operation of the DTM programme. Internationally, SNU has forged partnerships with non-state actors, such as ANOC, FISU, WT and UNOSDP, and has been cooperating with Tsukuba University in Japan and the Ministry of Education in Taiwan when necessary.

With regard to the process of implementation, the government is deeply involved in the initiation and development of the DTM programme. The MCST announced the Sports Vision 2018 in August 2013 after conducting a policy analysis and gathering expert opinions, which included those on the DTM programme. In this process, the MCST went through discussions with the International Development Cooperation Committee and cooperated with the Ministry of Finance and Economy. However, it seems that even before 2013, the MCST already sought its own direction for international sports cooperation. In fact, after two failed attempts to bid for the Olympics, the MCST realised the importance and necessity of sports diplomacy to promote friendship and soft power among countries. At this time, the Vice Minister of the MCST emphasised international sports cooperation that employs human capital to strengthen the global sports network. This support had a decisive impact on the MCST's drive for the DTM programme.

Since the start of the DTM programme, the direction and contents of the programme have been developed through close consultation between the MCST, the KSPO and SNU. In particular, SNU, which actually operates the programme, actively expresses its opinions on the direction of the development to the MCST and the KSPO. Meanwhile, the DTM programme was promoted as part of the government's active international development cooperation activities after it joined the OECD DAC in 2010. The compliance with the MDGs and SDGs is considered to be the ultimate purpose of Korea's sports ODA, which has been a great foundation and justification for the DTM programme to be launched and has been stable until now. The annual evaluation of KSPO reveals whether the DTM programme meets the SDGs of the UN. SNU and the KSPO also hold the Dream Together Forum every year to share the social and cultural values of the DTM programme with the world.

The MCST plays a role in managing the DTM programme. It collects necessary opinions through consultation with SNU once or twice a year, incorporating these into the programme. The first and second basic plans of the government for international development cooperation, announced in 2010 and 2015, respectively, served as guidelines for the direction of the DTM programme. The first plan emphasised that Korea's ODA programmes must conform to the international

norms laid out by the OECD DAC. In addition, the MCST has tried to achieve the development of human resources suggested by G20 as well as the MDGs and SDGs of the UN through the DTM programme. In other words, the MCST has been willing to actively embrace international norms and agendas embedded in the international community and reflect them in Korea's ODA programme.

As the DTM programme is a government-led sports ODA, it has been operated with government funding. SNU provides educational facilities and uses its own human network to recruit internationally renowned faculty members to run the programme. Meanwhile, the launching of the DTM programme was affected by two main motives. Firstly, the MCST promoted the DTM programme because of the need to establish a global sports network to strengthen Korea's sports diplomacy. Secondly, the MCST has pursued playing a responsible role through sports to meet the government's efforts to comply with international norms. Similarly, SNU, as the top national university in Korea, began to engage in the programme to contribute towards building a global sports network friendly to Korea and exert good influence and value in the international community.

6.3. OCA–Incheon Vision 2014 Programme

As a result of the deductive content analysis based on 5 major categories and 10 sub-categories, 30 codes were derived from the OCA–Incheon Vision 2014 Programme. Considering the similarities and differences between each code, this study was able to identify a total of 5 major categories and 11 sub-categories by classifying them into predetermined categories and sub-categories. The final five categories were re-named as 'Actors', 'Development process', 'Role of government', 'Support' and 'Motive' (Table 6.5), reflecting the meaning of document and participant statements.

Table 6.5. Codes and Categories of the Vision 2014 Programme

Category	Sub-Category	Code
Actors	State actors	Involvement of the MCST
	Non-state actors	Cooperation between Incheon and the OCA
		Involvement of Incheon City
		Involvement of the OCA until 2014
		Involvement of Incheon International Cooperation Foundation
		Involvement of the Incheon Athletic Association
Development process	Non-material factors or agenda created in the international community	Expectation of the OCA
	Interaction between non-state actors	Discussion between top policy-making officials in Incheon
		Consultation with the Incheon Athletic Association
		Public–private partnership
		Media cooperation
		Incheon's continuation efforts after the Asian Games
		Proposal for joint operation
		Establishing Task Force and signing MOU
		Joint operation
		Consultation with NOCs
Role of government	Uncooperative attitude before hosting the Asian Games	Checks and indifference in the early days
		Being passive to the Vision 2014 programme
	Indirect management and supervision after hosting the Asian Games	Public–private partnerships
		Pan-governmental support
Support	Support by non-state actors	Financial support by Incheon City
		Financial support by civil society
		Material support by Incheon City

226

		Human support by Incheon and Incheon Athletic Association
		Human support by the cooperation of Incheon and the OCA
		Human support by NOCs
Motive	National interests	Hosting the Asian Games
		Urban development (Incheon City)
	Humanitarianism	Balanced sport development in Asian countries
		Humanitarian cooperation through sport

6.3.1. Actors

Vision 2014 programme was launched in City of Incheon to provide to underdeveloped countries weak in sport for the balanced development of sports in Asia. The programme seems more meaningful because it was jointly carried out by Incheon and the OCA.

> *Incheon and the OCA established the OCA–Incheon Vision 2014 Programme Working Committee for a well-organised programme operation. The committee consisted of three members each from the OCA and Incheon, and each project within the programme was carried out separately by the OCA and Incheon.* (quoted in Vision Programme White Paper [VP White Paper], 2015)

This cooperation between Incheon and the OCA naturally provided an opportunity to work closely with the NOC of each country.

Incheon played a role in planning and promoting the overall Vision 2014 programme. The programme has been conducted in countries with a GDP less than 10,000 dollars. The main activities of the programme include inviting field training, dispatching sports coaches and providing sports equipment and holding inter-Korean sports exchanges.

> *Currently, the Department of Sports Promotion in Incheon Metropolitan City is in charge of the Vision 2014 programme. We play the role of planning and implementing the programme every year. At first, the programme also dispatched sports coaches to foreign*

227

countries and provided equipment in addition to inviting field training.
(Interviewee Jeong, Manager in Incheon City, 29 March 2019)

Since the end of the Asian Games, the city of Incheon has been carrying out the programme by focusing on field training, performance improvement and cultural experience.

In addition, the Incheon International Cooperation Foundation and the Incheon Athletic Association contributed to the start and development of the Vision 2014 programme. Incheon carried out the programme by using an excellent human network through public–private partnership.

The Incheon International Cooperation Foundation is a private foundation, which comprehensively and systematically aims at establishing to manage and operate the international affairs of Incheon. The major tasks include civilian international exchanges, friendly city exchanges and supporting international events. (quoted in Incheon Today Newspaper, 2015 – Journalist Han, M. S.)

The Incheon International Cooperation Foundation is an organisation created to lead Incheon's globalisation apart from the Asian Games. Although the organisation was mainly based on expertise in economic, cultural and social fields, it cooperated with the Asian Games Bid Committee and played an important role in the early stage of the Vision 2014 programme. (Interviewee An, Former mayor of Incheon City, 10 April 2019)

In the beginning of the programme, Incheon International Cooperation Foundation led to hosting the Vision 2014 programme. However, the size of the Foundation was not sufficient to operate and manage the programme, which had a huge budget of about 20 million dollars. So, it transferred the Vision 2014 programme to the Asian Games Support Headquarters in Incheon in February 2008. Meanwhile, the Incheon Athletic Association had been deeply cooperating with the Vision 2014 programme.

It was mainly involved in the process of selecting sports events and participating countries for the programme and served to instruct athletes coming from overseas for training. (quoted in Internal Report of Incheon City, 2019)

We have been actively interacting with Incheon Athletic Association for the operation and development of the programme so far. It is a very important organisation for us. (Interviewee Jeong, Manager in Incheon City, 29 March 2019)

As mentioned earlier, Vision 2014 programme was jointly operated by Incheon and the OCA. The OCA is an Asian sporting body that controls all sports on the Asian continent, including 45 Asian countries.

While Incheon supported field training, dispatched sports coaches and provided sports equipment, the OCA supported various international competitions and events for the development of sports in Asia through the Vision 2014 programme. (quoted in VP White Paper, 2015).

Specifically, the OCA engaged in supporting sports competitions, seminars, Olympic spirit, SfD approach and Olympasia in Asia.

It had carried out Olympasia since 2001 as part of a project to promote the Olympic spirit and principles and noble sports in developing countries (quoted in Website of the OCA, 2020).

Thus, OCA embodies the SfD approach, Olympic spirit and sports and peace through the programme.

After the Asian Games ended in 2014, the cooperation between Incheon and the OCA was completed, and since then Incheon has been running the programme independently.

The OCA did not play a role in the programme anymore since 2015. In 2017, the budget allocated to Incheon was recovered from the joint account among the remaining costs of the programme. (Interviewee Jeong, Manager in Incheon City, 29 March 2019)

Meanwhile, the indifferent government began to provide support at the central government level after bidding the Asian Games.

> *After winning the bid, the MCST established the Asian Games Organising Committee which cooperated with government departments, relevant agencies and international organisations.* (quoted in VP White Paper, 2015)

In conclusion, the Vision 2014 programme was jointly operated with Incheon and the OCA from 2008 to 2014. Since 2015, however, Incheon has independently continued to manage and develop the programme. Domestically, Incheon Athletic Association and Incheon International Cooperation Foundation were involved in the programme while NOCs in Asian countries cooperated in the development of the programme.

6.3.2. Development Process

Incheon's Vision 2014 programme was planned during the bidding process for the 2014 Asian Games. At that time, the possibility of Incheon City hosting the Asian Games was incredulous.

> *As it was only three years since Korea held the 2002 Busan Asian Games, Incheon was a relatively unfavourable choice for hosting the Games. On the contrary, India's Delhi, which was a rival city, had powerful symbolism and influence within the OCA and the Asian sports bodies. In particular, India had not hosted the Asian Games for 30 years since 1982, which meant that it was already at an advantageous position in the bidding process. Incheon's plan to counter such an advantage by India was the Vision 2014 programme, which referred to a plan to support developing countries in Asian areas.* (quoted in VP White Paper, 2015)

On March 13, 2007, top policy-making officials, including the mayor of Incheon, the chairman of the Incheon City Council and the 2014 Incheon Asian

Games Bid Committee, finally discussed strategies and ways to utilise the Vision 2014 programme.

> *The City of Incheon has sought a more practical and sustainable programme to counter the supply offensive in Delhi, India. We tried to appeal to Asian Countries through an activity for balanced sports development in line with the purpose of the Asian Games.* (Interviewee An, Former mayor of Incheon City, 10 April 2019)

However, this programme was not designed and planned independently by the city of Incheon. In recent Asian Games, some sports power nations had a clear competitive landscape rather than embodying the true spirit of sports. To alleviate this problem, the OCA tacitly sought to promote a balanced development of sports through supporting weak countries for sports. In this context, the OCA expected to pledge the programme to support weak countries for sports to cities that wanted to host the Asian Games.

> *From the OCA perspective, it was a great value for Asia to become one and co-prosperity since it thought that the Asian Games are considered one of the three major sports events in Asia, along with the Olympics and the World Cup. Delhi, which competed with us for what the OCA had expected and demanded, was passive and uncooperative. Perhaps at that time, Delhi thought that it was most likely to host the 2014 Asian Games.* (Interviewee An, Former mayor of Incheon City, 10 April 2019)

At that time, the OCA's chairman was also hoping that the Asian Games would serve as a catalyst for balanced sports development.

> *At that time, the chairman of the OCA had a strong desire and vision for the Asian Games. He had high interest in exchanges and revival among Asian countries through sports. Naturally, cities wanting to host the Asian Games became interested in the values, visions and agenda that the OCA pursues.* (Interviewee An, Former mayor of Incheon City, 10 April 2019)

Incheon responded positively to these OCA expectations and thoughts.

We have pushed for the Vision 2014 programme in order to gain positive response from the OCA and other countries to host the Asian Games. (Interviewee An, Former mayor of Incheon City, 10 April 2019)

At the OCA general meeting in April 2007, Incheon formally proposed the Vision 2014 programme jointly conducted with the OCA and received positive responses from Asian countries. At that time, the OCA and Incheon established a Performance Security on the programme. Finally, Incheon won the bid to host the Asian Games, and the majority of the media and the NOCs in Asian countries recognised the Vision 2014 programme as a major factor for its success. Later, Incheon formed a consultative and working body to implement the Vision 2014 programme.

After the bidding decision, we formed a desk force for the Vision 2014 programme with the OCA to begin consultations on detailed plans for the programme. From then on until 2014, we teamed up with the OCA to discuss together about promotion and support matters. (Interviewee An, Former mayor of Incheon City, 10 April 2019)

After hosting the Asian Games, the OCA signed an agreement with the OCA in November 2007 to organise the OCA–Incheon Vision 2014 programme. (Interviewee Jeong, Manager in Incheon City, 29 March 2019)

The co-chairmen of the operating committee were the OCA chairman and the administrative mayor of Incheon, and the members were headed by the OCA secretary general, the head of the support division and the head of the Asian Games bidding committee. (quoted in VP White Paper, 2015)

After that, they continued their substantive meetings, which is described by Kim et al. (2014).

Table 6.6. Process of Promotion for Vision 2014 Programme

Date	Main Process
15.04.2007	Establishing Performance Security
01.11.2007	Signing of a memorandum of understanding
31.01.2008	Executive board meeting: Determining the use of fund
16.06.2012	9th Operating Committee: Discussing about operation after the 2014 Asian Games
01.10.2013	A meeting room of the new OCA building was named Incheon
2007 to 2014	Operating committee annually decided on the scale of the projects

Source: Kim et al. (2014)

In January 2008, the inaugural meeting of the operating committee was held to decide how the fund should be used. Every year Incheon and the OCA decided on detailed projects and budgets for the programme through the operating committee.

The detailed process of the OCA and Incheon is shown in Table 6.6.

To recruit participants, Incheon tries to select countries which fit the purpose of the programme.

Incheon City selected the best target country through a public–private partnership system with the cooperation of experts from Incheon Athletic Association and each sports federation. (quoted in Internal Report of Incheon City, 2019)

We send survey at the beginning of the year to NOCs in each Asian country. The selection criteria are limited to countries with less than 10,000 dollars of GDP. Incheon makes the final decision with the Incheon Athletic Association after reviewing the applying countries and events. Usually, now many from four to five countries a year visit Incheon while events mainly selected are sports, such as archery, boxing, taekwondo and wrestling, where Korea has a relative competitive advantage over other countries. (Interviewee Jeong, Manager in Incheon City, 29 March 2019)

The help of Incheon Athletic Association was critical in implementing the Vision 2014 programme.

233

We work with the Athletic Association on a regular basis since we have to match training events and get cooperation from the training ground. The Athletic Association is very active and cooperative about the programme. The advice of the Athletic Association is of great help, especially since we often have a change in the person in charge, which often cuts off the continuity of our work. (Interviewee Jeong, Manager in Incheon City, 29 March 2019)

Since the programme was launched in 2007, core activities such as field training, dispatching coaches and providing sports equipment have been carried out on the basis of the close cooperation between Incheon, the OCA and NOCs in Asian countries.

Specifically, 37 of NOCs' officials visited Incheon from 2008 to 2014 for the programme. They held meetings on the performance report for the programme, a training ceremony for field training and friendly and cooperative meetings. The Incheon delegation, consisting of Incheon government's officials, Incheon Council members and journalists related to the Vision 2014 programme, likewise visited the NOCs of each country to promote friendly relations. (quoted in VP White Paper, 2015)

In addition, about 200 young volunteers joined the Vision 2014 programme to help athletes visiting Incheon.

The programme could not have been successful without the help of citizens, such as multicultural families, youth volunteers and honorary citizen diplomats residing in Incheon (Kim Bum-Rae, Incheon's official, quoted at Fnnews, newspaper, in 2014)

Incheon, the OCA, NOCs and civil society played their respective roles, contributing to the development of the Vision 2014 programme.

In particular, the Vision 2014 programme provided an opportunity for public–private networks, such as Incheon, Incheon Athletic

Association, youth volunteers, multicultural families and honorary citizen diplomats to cooperate. (quoted in VP White Paper, 2015)

As mentioned earlier, the media acknowledged that the Vision 2014 programme played a crucial role in the success of hosting the Asian Games. Since then, the media has steadily promoted the role, importance and effectiveness of the programme, which is described by Kim et al. (2014).

In fact, media coverage of the programme has been generally favourable, usually highlighting how the programme (1) played a decisive role in hosting the Asian Games, (2) improved the performance of the athletes who participated in the programme, (3) served as sports diplomacy, (4) formed friendly relations through continuous exchanges with the OCA and NOCs, (5) formed the basis of inter-Korean cooperation and (6) laid the foundation for internationalisation in Incheon.

Thanks to the media, many citizens positively evaluate the programme. It is also true that this has been a driving force for us to continue our programme after the Asian Games. (Interviewee Jeong, Manager in Incheon City, 29 March 2019)

Media coverage played an important role in explaining the legitimacy of the programme to Incheon citizens, allowing the programme to continue operating even after the Asian Games.

After the 2014 Asian Games came to an end, the Vision 2014 programme, like the PyeongChang Dream programme, stood at a crossroads. With the closing of the Asian Games, the cooperation with OCA was also concluded. Incheon gathered opinions from the civic community and then decided to continue the programme at the end of sufficient discussions.

Incheon has established a firm legal basis for implementing the programme. In 2017, Incheon proposed an ordinance and expressed its willingness to continue the purpose of the existing programme by

enacting it in the Incheon Council. (Interviewee Jeong, Manager in Incheon City, 29 March 2019)

The ordinance included a plan to utilise private networks in close cooperation with multicultural families, sports clubs and the Athletic Association to revitalise the Vision 2014 programme along with existing projects. (quoted in VP White Paper, 2015).

The Vision 2014 programme was initially designed by the top policy-making group of Incheon City while trying to host the Asian Games. In this process, the values, expectations and thoughts sought by the OCA and its chairman played a crucial role in the birth of the Vision 2014 programme. As a result, Incheon in cooperation with the OCA consulted annually on the detailed projects and budget of the programme. Incheon made efforts as well to develop the programme through NOCs in each country. Lastly, Incheon Athletic Association, civil society and media have also served as facilitators for the development of the programme and recently established an ordinance to secure the sustainability of the Vision 2014 programme.

6.3.3. Role of Government

Unlike the PyeongChang Dream programme and the DTM programme, which are somewhat supported and controlled by the government, the Vision 2014 programme is an SfD activity pushed by Incheon and the OCA without visible help from the central government. In the mid-2000, when Incheon was preparing to host the Asian Games, the central government concentrated on the capacity of the government to host the 2014 PyeongChang Winter Olympics. There was also a lukewarm attitude towards Incheon's bid to host the Asian Games because Busan had already hosted the Asian Games only three years before in 2002.

As far as I know, the government was not interested in the relatively small Asian Games because hosting of the 2014 Asian Games and the 2014 Olympics were carried out simultaneously. The government was concerned that Incheon's move would have a negative impact on

PyeongChang's bid. (Interviewee An, Former mayor of Incheon City, 10 April 2019)

Moreover, Incheon was hardly supported by the government because Korea's president and the mayor of Incheon were politically opposed at that time.

I think the government was a little more passive in supporting me and those on the bidding committee since we were politically opposed to the government at that time. (Interviewee An, Former mayor of Incheon City, 10 April 2019)

However, after its bid to host the Asian Games was confirmed, the organising committee was reorganised as a special corporation of the MCST, which means that central government finally engages in the Asian Games.

The organising committee was composed of public–private partnerships based on the members from the MCST, KSOC, KSPO, sport organisations, political parties, companies and civil society. (quoted in Internal Report of Incheon City, 2019).

After winning the bid, the Asian Games Bidding Committee was renamed the Asian Games Organising Committee, becoming a pan-governmental organisation that can begin close cooperation with each other. The government was in charge of the organising committee, cooperating with the Asian Games preparation and hosting of the Games. (Interviewee An, Former mayor of Incheon City, 10 April 2019)

Although the government was not directly involved in the programme, it shared the various purposes and efforts of the Vision 2014 programme, which is an international cooperation programme through sports.

In the administration of Lee Myung-bak, I knew that Korea is great to have a policy priority of international development cooperation. There was no direct support from the government for the Vision 2014 programme. However, the government seems to have thought that the programme was a good thing for the nation as a result of its humanitarian contribution to the development of Asian sports and

cooperation between cities in Asia. The government tried to substantially reflect the opinions and demands of the organising committee in its support for the Asian Games. I think that the government's pan-national support includes the interest and cooperation in the Vision 2014 programme. (Interviewee An, Former mayor of Incheon City, 10 April 2019)

Thus, although the government was not involved in the beginning stage of the programme, it understood the purpose of the Vision 2014 programme, which was being carried out as part of international development cooperation, and actively participated in the promotion of the programme. Additionally, the MCST was responsible for the Incheon Asian Games Organising Committee, which is composed of public–private organisations. Lastly, the MCST has made efforts to successfully host the Asian Games by incorporating the opinions of Incheon and civil society.

6.3.4. Support

As mentioned earlier, the Vision 2014 programme was jointly operated by Incheon and the OCA.

The financial budget for the programme was supported by the city of Incheon, which was managed by the joint account between Incheon and the OCA. (quoted in VP White Paper, 2015)

Incheon tried to raise a fund of about 20 million dollars through the city budget and corporate sponsorship to implement the programme.

I decide on the amount because I thought the Asian Games would have a much more added value effect more than about 20 million dollars. (Interviewee An, Former mayor of Incheon City, 10 April 2019)

Among them, Incheon secured 15 million dollars from Shin-han Bank, which was chosen as the designated bank of Incheon.

The 20 million dollars includes financial support from Shin-han Bank. Shin-han Bank seems to have applied for the Asian Games in hopes of promoting the bank to Asian countries. (Interviewee An, Former mayor of Incheon City, 10 April 2019)

In fact, Shin-han Bank was selected as an official sponsor for the 2014 Asian Games. (quoted in MK Newspaper, 2013 – Ryu, Y. S.)

Incheon collected the remaining budget from the OCA in 2017 after the Asian Games, and it has been used for the operation of the programme in Incheon every year.

We received the rest of money from the OCA by allocating the project costs in 2017. (Interviewee Jeong, Manager in Incheon City, 29 March 2019)

The budget for the Vision 2014 programme is shown in Table 6.7, and since 2018, the programme has been operating by using the remaining budget. The Vision 2014 programme provided sports equipment and coaching support to weak countries for sports.

Incheon provided 45 pieces of sports equipment and goods to 24 countries from 2007 to 2014. In consultation with the Incheon Athletic Association, Incheon dispatched 11 coaches to 7 developing countries, such as the Maldives, Thailand and Sri Lanka, to cultivate promising athletes. (quoted in VP White Paper, 2015)

Incheon Athletic Association also supported the training centre and sports coaches for the programme. (quoted in Internal Report of Incheon City, 2019)

Table 6.7. Total Budget Used for the Vision 2014 Programme   (Criteria: 1000 dollars)

Year	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
OCA	1,000	2,011	2,391	1,872	1,582	1,582	1,582	789			
Incheon	429	846	466	985	1,275	1,275	1,275	640	131	60	71
% of Incheon	30	29.6	16.3	34.5	44.6	44.6	44.6	44.8	100	100	100

Source: VP White Paper (2015); Incheon (2019)

During the Vision 2014 programme, human network activities between Incheon and other Asian countries were active.

> Incheon and the OCA supported the programme through a jointly run committee to improve the quality of the programme. 37 NOC officials from 17 countries visited Incheon from 2007 to 2014. They sought to promote mutual friendship for the development of the programme through the Performance Reporting Council and the Friendship and Cooperation Conference. (quoted in VP White Paper, 2015)

Accordingly, financial, material and human support for the programme were provided by Incheon city and Incheon Athletic Association. Moreover, Incheon, the OCA and the NOC of each country worked together to improve the programme via human networks.

6.3.5. Motive

To investigate the background of the start and development of the Vision 2014 programme, it would be necessary to understand the motivations of the co-operators Incheon and the OCA. Firstly, Incheon designed the programme to increase the possibility of winning the bid for the 2014 Asian Games.

> *Delhi, a rival city, made a pledge to offer free air tickets and accommodation tickets to all athletes and executives, emphasising the need to host the Asian Games for the first time in 32 years.* (quoted in VP White Paper, 2015)

The Asian Games was also considered to have turned into an event feasible by sports powerhouses, such as China, Korea and Japan, giving other countries a feeling of alienation.

> *I think it was most important to host the Asian Games with our commitment to contribute to the balanced development of Asian sports.* (Interviewee An, Former mayor of Incheon City, 10 April 2019)

The Vision 2014 programme was an optimised programme for achieving satisfactory results for both the OCA and each Asian NOC (VP White Paper, 2015). Incheon tried to achieve a balanced development of Asian sports and a successful hosting of the Asian Games through the Vision 2014 programme.

Secondly, Incheon's Vision 2014 programme was set to lead to the city's urban development. Of course, hosting Asian Games was the top priority at the beginning of the Vision 2014 programme, but at the same time, Incheon wanted to invite many Asians to show them great image of Incheon (VP White Paper, 2015).

> *We expected synergy effects among Asian cities through sports exchange with developing countries and thought that this would contribute to Incheon's economic development and urban marketing.* (Interviewee An, Former mayor of Incheon City, 10 April 2019)

At that time, Incheon was actually making constant efforts to transform Incheon into an international city close to the Incheon International Airport. In this context, Incheon expected the programme to play a key role in the emergence of Incheon as a global hub (VP White Paper, 2015).

> *In particular, Incheon International Airport enabled us to plan large-scale projects to attract athletes and executives from other countries. Also, there are three main free economic zones in Incheon, and the Vision 2014 programme would play a role in promoting Incheon's development into an international city. It seems to have helped our purpose to some extent.* (Interviewee An, Former mayor of Incheon City, 10 April 2019)

241

After the 2014 Asian Games, Incheon's vision seemed to remain as before. Although the important reason of hosting the Asian Games had disappeared, Incheon continued to implement its own Vision 2014 programme. According to Incheon City's report on the 2019 Asian Sports Support Plan, Incheon inherited the philosophy of the Vision 2014 programme for a balanced development of Asian sports and is trying to maintain and develop friendly relations with NOCs in each country (Incheon, 2019). Moreover, Incheon still plans to establish global urban brands and values through international cooperation via sports.

> *Currently, it would be more important for the programme to contribute to promoting Incheon to Asian countries and build a good image.* (Interviewee Jeong, Manager in Incheon City, 29 March 2019)

On the other hand, the OCA recently recognised the growing gap in sports between big and small Asian countries. Looking at the three Asian Games held recently, China, Korea and Japan won 24%, 16% and 14% of the medals, respectively, and the top 10 countries won nearly 80% of all the medals (VP White Paper, 2015). The OCA thought that an unprecedented special programme was necessary to overcome the situation and achieve a balanced development of Asian sports (VP White Paper, 2015). In fact, the OCA and its chairman had a great deal of interest in coming together and coexisting in the sport.

> *They hoped that cities wishing to host the Asian Games would lead the way and play this role.* (Interviewee An, Former mayor of Incheon City, 10 April 2019)

The Vision 2014 programme presented by Korea went beyond the simple pursuit of sports exchanges and improvement of athletic ability by advocating humanitarianism, which provide countries with insufficient capacity with funds to invest in sports (Joo, 2014).

> *The Vision 2014 programme that gives athletes the courage and hope to have new dream will remain the OCA's legacy.* (Sheikh Ahmad Al-Fahad AL-SABAH, OCA chairman, quoted at VP White Paper in 2015)

When we made these pledges, the OCA deeply sympathised with the programme's purpose and expressed its willingness to cooperate if we host the Asian Games. (Interviewee An, Former mayor of Incheon City, 10 April 2019)

As a result, Incheon pushed for the programme to host the Asian Games and maximise city marketing. On the contrary, the OCA tried to realise the value of humanity and peace through the Asian Games on the basis of the balanced development of sports in small Asian countries through the Vision 2014 programme.

6.3.6. Summary

The Vision 2014 programme is an SfD programme in which Incheon City and the OCA jointly support small sports countries for the balanced development of sports in Asia since 2007. Incheon jointly operated Vision 2014 programme with the OCA to host the 2014 Asian Games. It played a role in planning and operating the programme, including inviting off-season training, dispatching coaches, providing sport equipment and promoting inter-Korean sports exchanges. In addition to Incheon City, the Incheon International Cooperation Foundation and Incheon Athletic Association have helped the practical operation of the Vision 2014 programme. The Incheon International Cooperation Foundation has been in charge of supporting private international exchanges, inter-city exchanges and international events for the Vision 2014 programme while Incheon Athletic Association plays an important role in helping Incheon City plan and implement the programme. The OCA is an international Olympic body that oversees sports in the Asian continent, and it has supported various activities for the development of Asian sports within the Vision 2014 programme. Specifically, it has supported sports competitions, seminars, Olympic sports, the SfD approach and the Olympasia held in Asia.

The Vision 2014 programme was planned as part of the bid for the 2014 Asian Games. Incheon pushed for the programme to counter a supply offensive and strategy in Delhi, India, which was at an absolute advantage in hosting the Asian Games. In

March 2007, top policy makers, including the mayor of Incheon, the chairman of the Incheon City Council and the chairman of the 2014 Incheon Asian Games Bid Committee, gathered to pull their opinions and finally adopted the Vision 2014 programme as a pledge. At that moment, Incheon explained the legitimacy and importance of the programme to the OCA and asked for tacit support. Fortunately, the value, visions and agendas pursued by the OCA and its chairman were substantially in line with the direction and role of the programme. Finally, Incheon won the bid to host the 2014 Asian Games, leading to the decision to run the Vision 2014 programme jointly with the OCA. Each year until 2014, Incheon and the OCA decided on detailed projects and budgets for the programme through Joint Working Committee.

Incheon and the OCA carried out separate activities on a joint budget within the programme. Incheon has been carrying out the Vision 2014 programme based on its cooperation with the NOC of each country, Incheon Athletic Association, the affiliated sports federation and civil society. In fact, Incheon held a performance report meeting, off-season training completion ceremony and a friendly cooperation meeting with the NOC officials. Volunteers, including Youth Supporters, multicultural families and honorary citizen diplomats, have also helped to smooth the progress of the programme. Meanwhile, the media in Incheon played a role in promoting the programme favourably to citizens by informing them of the role, importance and effectiveness of the programme. After the 2014 Asian Games, Incheon completed the joint operation of the Vision 2014 programme with the OCA. However, it decided to independently inherit and develop the programme after collecting opinions from civil society and enacting relevant ordinances. In addition, Incheon announced its plan to further strengthen public–private cooperation with multicultural families, sports clubs and the Athletic Association to promote the Vision 2014 programme in the future.

As mentioned earlier, the Vision 2014 programme was jointly run by Incheon and the OCA. However, it was carried out entirely on a budget of about 20 million dollars prepared by Incheon. Specifically, Shin-Han Bank in Korea provided 15 million dollars in exchange for signing a sponsorship for the 2014 Asian Games.

Through this budget, Incheon provided sports equipment and supplies to 24 countries from 2007 to 2014, and Incheon Athletic Association supported training facilities and coaches for the programme. Meanwhile, the OCA carried out various projects of the programme according to its own human and organisational resources.

Incheon and the OCA seem to have similar, but slightly different, motives for the Vision 2014 programme. Incheon started and operated the programme entirely to host the 2014 Asian Games. This was the optimum SfD programme for Incheon, the OCA and NOCs in each country. Incheon had likewise sought to promote urban marketing and economic development through the programme. With the opening of Incheon International Airport in the early 2000s, Incheon had a desire to transform itself into a global city. The city has used the programme as a means of promotion. Meanwhile, the OCA needed specialised programmes for the balanced development of Asian sports due to the recent widening gap in sport performance between the powerful and the weak in Asia. Furthermore, it tried to realise the value of humanity and peace in Asia through the Vision 2014 programme.

6.4. Taekwondo Peace Corps Programme

As a result of deductive content analysis based on 5 main categories and 10 sub-categories, 33 codes were derived from the TPC Programme. Considering the similarities and differences between each code, this study was able to identify a total of 5 main categories and 14 sub-categories by classifying them into predetermined categories and sub-categories. The final five categories were re-named as 'Actors', 'Development process', 'Role of government', 'Support' and 'Motive' (Table 6.8), reflecting the meaning of document and participant statements.

Table 6.8. Codes and Categories of the TPC Programme

Category	Sub-Category	Code
Actors	State actors	Involvement of the WFK
		Involvement of the MCST
	Non-state actors	Cooperation with international organisations
		Involvement of the GCS International
		Involvement of WT
		Involvement of TPC since 2009
		Involvement of domestic Taekwondo-related organisations
Development process	Interaction between state actors and societal actors	Consultation between the MCST and TPC Foundation
		Media cooperation
	Non-material factors or agenda created in the international community	Compliance with the MDGs and SDGs
		Cooperation between the WT and GCS International
		Launch of the TPC programme in the WT
		Establishment of the TPC Foundation of the WT
		Activation of international development cooperation by joining the OECD DAC
		International spread of the TPC programme of the WT
	Interaction between state actors	Development through relevant policies and laws
		Expansion of programme support by changing the department in charge
		Joining the WFK
	Interaction between non-state actors	Cooperation between the TPC Foundation, Taekwondo-related organisations and Korea-related organisations overseas
		Collecting opinions of civil society
Role of government	Reflecting the preferences of societal actors	Collecting and reflecting opinions of the TPC Foundation

	Reflecting non-material factors or agenda in the international community	Systematic international development cooperation
	Comprehensive management and supervision	Management and supervision
		Coordinating Taekwondo-related projects
		Proposing the direction of development
Support	Support by state actors	
	Support by non-state actors	Financial support by the KSPO
		Financial support by companies
		Human support by the TPC Foundation
		Support by local cities
Motive	National interests	Strengthening sports diplomacy
	Humanitarianism	Contribution to the peace and prosperity of mankind
	Taekwondo development	Promotion of Taekwondo
		Expansion of the base of Taekwondo

6.4.1. Actors

Since 2008, the TPC programme has been active in contributing to the development of Taekwondo and world peace. When the TPC programme first started in 2008, it was hosted and supervised by the WT and GCS International, respectively. Established in 1973, the WT developed steadily with the support of the Korean government, which finally contributed greatly to the adoption of the official Olympic sport in Taekwondo. Since Taekwondo originated in Korea, the headquarters is located in Korea, which is rare for international sport organisations. Thus, the TPC programme can be regarded as an SfD programme led by Korea.

> *GCS International was established in 1975 and was officially registered as an NGO at the UN in 1992. It is an organisation that encompasses both national and international levels, working to overcome the Cold War and promote world peace. GCS International was also recognised as an international NGO for gaining the status of a special advisory private organisation of the UN ECOSOC for the second time in Korea. It can be inferred that the close cooperation between the WT and GCS International was possible because the same person was the governor of the two organisations.* (quoted in Website of GCS International, 2020)

Cho Jung-won took office as governor of the WT in 2005 and was soon elected the president of GCS International in 2006. In fact, the governor emphasised volunteer work through Taekwondo at the inauguration ceremony of the GCS International.

> *Taekwondo is the origin of the Korean Wave, which was spread by Korean masters dispatched to remote areas in the 1960s and 1970s.*
> *I will help countries that practice Taekwondo without uniforms and protective gear.* (Cho Jung-won, WT governor, quoted at Dong-A Newspaper in 2006)

As a result, the WT founded the TPC programme with the help of GCS International, which has been active internationally in 40 countries.

Thanks to the successful activities and promotion of the TPC programme, the number of countries hoping for a dispatcher, leading to the need for efficient and professional operation. Finally, the governor of the WT established World Taekwondo Peace Corps Foundation (TPC Foundation) in 2009 to help concentrate exclusively on the TPC programme. As a result, the TPC programme operated by the WT and GCS International was transferred to the TPC Foundation to unify its work.

> *TPC Foundation is a private foundation that practices sharing and service through Taekwondo and Korean culture as well as contributes to the peace movement by fostering friendship, humanity and peace.* (quoted in Website of the TPC, 2020)

> *Since 2010, the TPC Foundation has joined the WFK as a formal organisation for the Korean government's overseas volunteer group.* (quoted in Thesis written by Won, 2018)

> *WFK is an integrated brand incorporating overseas volunteer groups that had been dispatched in each government's ministry in 2009.* (quoted in Website of the WFK, 2020)

Specifically, TPC Foundation aims to provide volunteering services, enhance national brands and expand the base of Taekwondo.

To carry out the programme, the TPC Foundation is responsible for dispatching short- and medium-term volunteer groups. (quoted in Website of the TPC, 2020)

At first, the TPC Foundation operated the Cultural Performance Group and the Taekwondo Demonstration Team, but now it is focusing on dispatching the TPC. […] A total of 1,831 short-term volunteers had been dispatched twice a year for about two months to help expand the base of Taekwondo and volunteerism, and in one year, 100 mid-term volunteers had been dispatched for six months. (quoted in thesis written by Won, 2018)

At present, we think that our main role is to safely and effectively dispatch the Taekwondo Peace Corps overseas. For this reason, we conduct workshops to help Corp members so that they can quickly understand and adapt to the local cultures. (Interviewee Won, Team manager in the TPC Foundation, 28 March 2019)

The TPC Foundation is also in charge of supporting the activities of the TPC in the dispatched countries.

The TPC Foundation selects countries to dispatch the TPC. Also, they are in charge of managing and supporting the TPC activities overseas in the field. (Interviewee Jeong, Manager in the MCST, 2 April 2019)

Meanwhile, the TPC programme regularly reports the budget execution to the MCST because it is operated through the National Sports Promotion Fund of the KSPO.

At the end of each programme, the TPC Foundation reports the budget details to the MCST (Interviewee Jeong, Manager in the MCST, 2 April 2019)

The TPC Foundation received financial support from the government as a corporation aggregate under the supervision of the MCST.

The government is in charge of managing and supervising the TPC Foundation. However, it is not be deeply involved in the details of the subsidised private organisation. (Interviewee Won, Team manager in the TPC Foundation, 28 March 2019)

In other words, the TPC Foundation is in charge of most of the practical aspects of the programme, and the MCST consults with the TPC Foundation on matters in which it inevitably needs to be involved.

The practical part is handled by the TPC Foundation, and if any changes are made in the execution process of the programme, it is approved by the MCST. (Interviewee Jeong, Manager in the MCST, 2 April 2019).

Meanwhile, the TPC Foundation domestically cooperates with Taekwondo and volunteer organisations if necessary.

Domestically, Kukkiwon, the Taekwondo Promotion Foundation and KOICA are our service organisations. Also, currently, Lee Joong-keun, chairman of Booyoung Construction, a construction company, is the president of the foundation, so Booyoung Construction is providing overall support for the foundation. (Interviewee Won, Team manager in the TPC Foundation, 28 March 2019)

Internationally, the TPC Foundation works with actors related to Taekwondo to dispatch TPC. The TPC Foundation determines the dispatch country based on requests from Taekwondo-related associations around the world.

For a demand survey for the dispatch of TPC, the TPC Foundation consults with the WT, each government and the Taekwondo association of each country. (Interviewee Jeong, Manager in the MCST, 2 April 2019)

The main actors of the TPC programme in the past were the WT and GCS International, but it has changed to the TPC Foundation since 2009. In the Korean government, the MCST is in charge of the programme, and Taekwondo-related

organisations and government agency have been cooperating with the TPC Foundation. Internationally, each government, Taekwondo associations and the WT have been cooperating with the TPC Foundation for the development of the programme.

6.4.2. Development Process

As mentioned earlier, the TPC programme was initially Korea's international cooperation programme launched by the WT. The WT was implementing various international volunteer programmes at that time.

> *The WT has long been providing support for refugees and dispatching Taekwondo masters to developing countries.* (Interviewee Won, Team manager in the TPC Foundation, 28 March 2019)

It is no exaggeration to say that the TPC programme, which has been held at the WF since 2008, stemmed from the will and effort of the WT, especially its director Cho Jung-won.

> *It was one of the election campaigns of Cho Jung-won, who took office in the WT in 2005. Like the Peace Corps in the US, he suggested that we should contribute to world peace through Taekwondo.* (Interviewee Won, Team manager in the TPC Foundation, 28 March 2019.

Later, the governor was elected president of GCS International, an international NGO, and he emphasised the cooperation between the TPC programme and GCS International.

> *We will expand the number of GCS International members from the current 40 countries to all countries where Taekwondo has been spread. Taekwondo volunteering will be an opportunity for young people not only to deliver the Korean culture to the world but also to grow into local experts on their own.* (Cho Jung-won, WT governor, quoted at Dong-A Newspaper in 2006)

In 2007 and 2008, the governor stressed the need for the TPC programme at workshops and forums on sports diplomacy and peace, such as the Sports Peace International Workshop and the International Peace Sports Forum.

He emphasised the necessity of the Sports Peace Volunteer Corps participating in all events of the Olympics along with the idea of operating the TPC programme. (quoted in Sports Chosun Newspaper, 2015 – Journalist Park, C. J.)

His effort to spread this agenda continued thereafter. Since the 2010 UN-IOC Forum and until recently, the governor has urged the IOC and the UN to participate in the creation of Sports Peace Volunteer Corps beyond Taekwondo activities. […] In April 2008, the governor and the WT announced a practical roadmap for the dispatch of the TPC (quoted in Thesis written by Won, 2018).

Finally, the activities of the TPC began in the summer of 2008 under the cooperation of the WT and GCS International.

After starting the activities of the TPC, the member countries of the WT continued to ask the WT to dispatch the TPC to their countries, resulting in a great increase in demand for the TPC. (quoted in Thesis written by Won, 2018)

In 2009, the TPC Foundation was established with the approval of the Korean government for efficient and professional programme operation.

The TPC programme was created by the WT in 2008, and the response was good overseas. So the governor thought of creating a foundation that would be specialised and focused only on the TPC programme. The TPC Foundation, which specialises in Taekwondo volunteering, was established on September 17, 2009. (Interviewee Won, Team manager in the TPC Foundation, 28 March 2019)

Around that time, the Korean government made well-organised preparations for the promotion of Taekwondo.

It announced its basic plan for promoting Taekwondo at the first Taekwondo Day ceremony in September 2008. Later, the National Brand Committee, which was established under the direct control of the president, made the Taekwondo Luxury Project. (quoted in Government Report written by Cho, 2017)

In 2010, the Korean government began to be involved directly in the TPC programme.

Under the government's policy of unifying various Taekwondo projects, the competent ministry of the TPC Foundation was changed from the MOFAT to the MCST. Since then, the government has decided to support the government budget for the Foundation. (quoted in Thesis written by Won, 2018)

In this context, the TPC Foundation joined the WFK, an official overseas volunteer integration brand of the government.

At that time, various government ministries were running overseas Volunteer Corps. However, since it was operated individually, efficiency was reduced, and budgets were often duplicated. The government created an integrate brand called WFK to integrate these Volunteer Corps, and in 2010, the TPC finally joined the WFK. (Interviewee Won, Team manager in the TPC Foundation, 28 March 2019)

Naturally, the TPC Foundation and the programme were assisted by the government, which strengthened the identity of the organisation and the internal stability of the programme.

Under the current administration, Taekwondo promotion is one of the top 100 national tasks, and the globalisation of Taekwondo is actively encouraged in accordance with the 10 cultural content development plans. (quoted in Sport White Paper, 2018)

Such involvement and support of the government for the TPC programme seemed to stem from the ODA policy goals of the government at that time.

In 2008, Lee Myung-bak's government decided to increase the ODA and extend grant-type aid in order to contribute to the international community and strengthen diplomacy. (quoted in Website of KCOC, 2008)

In particular, prior to 2010 and after the entry into the OECD DAC, ODA emerged as one of the major foreign policies of Lee's administration.

President Lee was very interested in the activation of overseas service activities that contribute to the international community, and he announced it as an election pledge (Interviewee Won, Team manager in the TPC Foundation, 28 March 2019)

President Lee likewise emphasised the world's cooperative development at the 2010 WFK inauguration ceremony.

Our young and middle-aged people's overseas services are opening a new life to help humanity and is a big step towards a mature world. Helping countries overcome poverty is a duty and privilege that Korea can and should do best. (Lee Myung-bak, Korean President, quoted at Asiae Newspaper in 2010)

The policy support of the government is aimed at actively implementing norms and agendas formed in the international community.

The dispatch goal of WFK is to actively support the implementation of the MDGs established by the UN in 2000. (In quoted in Website of WFK, 2020)

Since joining the WFK, the TPC programme has come under the supervision of the MCST, unlike the other Volunteer Corps managed by the MOFAT. The TPC Foundation was responsible for most of the practical tasks.

We mainly interact with Korean cultural centres and international schools in each country as well as Taekwondo associations that have joined the WT. (Interviewee Won, Team manager in the TPC Foundation, 28 March 2019)

In addition, the TPC Foundation holds meetings to gather various opinions to improve the programme.

> *It was a place where I heard about the difficulties and suggestions of the TPC programme by past participants. Some parts have been reflected in the programme.* (Interviewee Won, Team manager in the TPC Foundation, 28 March 2019)

However, the roadmap for the programme's direction was developed through consultation with the MCST.

> *The TPC Foundation basically operates an international cooperation programme on behalf of the government. We consult with the TPC Foundation so that the programme can develop in the direction of the Korean government.* (Interviewee Jeong, Manager in the MCST, 2 April 2019)

In the development of the programme, the media looked favourably at the activities of the TPC.

> *The TPC members. […] proud private diplomats.* (Lee Song-won, quoted at Cho-sun Newspaper in 2016)

> *The TPC Foundation spread the Korean Wave in 16 countries.* (Yoo Jung-woo, quoted at Korea Economy Newspaper in 2016)

> *Although the media does not often mention the TPC Foundation, it seems to promote it every time it is launched or disassembled. I don't know if it helps us directly, but I thank the researcher for promoting the necessity and effectiveness of our foundation's presence.* (Interviewee Won, Team manager in the TPC Foundation, 28 March 2019)

As a result, the TPC programme was launched in cooperation between the WT and an international NGO based on the strong will of the WT governor. Since then, the TPC Foundation has been established for professional operation and transformed into the programme of the private organisation that receives financial support from the government due to its interests in ODA policies. At that time, the

government tried to increase international development cooperation quickly by complying with and accepting the expectations and norm of the international community upon joining the OECD DAC. The TPC Foundation and the MCST are developing the TPC programme through cooperation, and internationally they interact with Taekwondo associations and the WT for the dispatch of the TPC.

6.4.3. Role of Government

The competent department of the TPC Foundation, which was established in 2009, was integrated to the MCST in 2010 in accordance with the policy of the government to unify the Taekwondo projects in Korea.

> *We are managed and supervised by the MCST as we are funded by the KSPO's National Sports Promotion Fund.* (Interviewee Won, Team manager in the TPC Foundation, 28 March 2019)

> *The TPC Foundation reports to us on how it executed the budget when it completes the TPC programme every year.* (Interviewee Jeong, Manager in the MCST, 2 April 2019)

The MCST, along with the TPC Foundation, plays a role in determining whether the purpose and direction of the TPC programme are in line with the ODA policy direction of the government.

> *In general, we hold annual meetings with the MCST. Since the main goal of the TPC programme is public interest, we and the government participants discuss whether the direction of the programme is appropriate for the government's goal of dispatching overseas.* (Interviewee Won, Team manager in the TPC Foundation, 28 March 2019)

The MCST also serves to review the redundancy of diverse projects being implemented among various organisations that engage in international cooperation through Taekwondo.

When selecting countries to dispatch the TPC, the TPC Foundation consults with us. There are several Taekwondo-related organisations in Korea, and since Kukkiwon mainly dispatches Taekwondo instructors and the Taekwondo Promotion Foundation provides overseas support projects for Taekwondo supplies, we determine the country to dispatch the TPC by judging whether the TPC programme overlaps with other projects. (Interviewee Won, Team manager in the TPC Foundation, 28 March 2019)

In addition, the MCST established a plan for promoting the programme through consultation with the TPC Foundation, which is described by the TPC (2020).

The first phase (2009–2011) focused on joining the WFK of the programme and creating a substantial and efficient programme by strengthening the preparatory workshop of the TPC. The second phase (2011–2012) concentrated on expanding the number of programmes, including the dispatch of the TPC and the cultivation of human resources. The third phase (2013–2014) focused on establishing a systematic network and cultivating Taekwondo instructors. The fourth phase (2015–2016) focused on establishing a national brand through the development of the programme. Since 2016, the TPC Foundation has concentrated only on the dispatch of the TPC and sought to contribute to the expansion of Taekwondo's base and world peace.

Meanwhile, the government drew up a government budget for the TPC Foundation, which included it in the WFK.

The TPC Foundation cooperated with the operation policy of the Presidential Committee on National Branding. (quoted in Thesis written by Won, 2018).

Such government efforts stemmed from its willingness to make international cooperation more integrated and professional.

In January 2010, the Framework Act on International Development Cooperation was enacted, laying the institutional foundation for the

implementation of the systematic ODA. Moreover, the government took the first step towards becoming an advanced country in ODA with the entry of the OECD DAC in 2010. (quoted in Website of WFK, 2020)

The government efforts stemmed from its willingness to make international cooperation.

Although I don't know how much the MDGs and SDGs affected the start and development of the TPC programme, all governments in Korea have recently shown great interest in international development cooperation. As a responsible member of the international community, our governments seem to be trying to faithfully implement the programme since we pursue actions consistent with the international movement. (Interviewee Jeong, Manager in the MCST, 2 April 2019)

In conclusion, the MCST plans and develops the programme through consultation with the TPC Foundation. The MCST is also compiling the budget and reviewing the feasibility of the programme. However, as the TPC Foundation is a corporation aggregate, the government seeks to minimise direct involvement in the programme. Lastly, as the dispatch target of WFK includes the implementation of the MDGs and SDGs, and the transfer of knowledge, technology and experience for sustainable development, the government has been striving to realise the various norms and agendas expected from the international community through the TPC programme.

6.4.4. Support

As mentioned earlier, the TPC programme operated with a budget of government funding because it was under the jurisdiction of the MCST in 2010.

About 2 million dollars for the TPC programme is funded by the government. Therefore, the TPC Foundation asks us to approve the plan of the programme every year, and it applies for budget funding

by the KSPO in accordance with the approved plan of the programme.
(Interviewee Jeong, Manager in the MCST, 2 April 2019).

As Table 6.9 shows, the TPC Foundation annually receives a budget of about 2 million dollars from the government every year.

Table 6.9. Total Budget for the TPC Programme   (Criteria: 1000 dollars)

Year	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Budget	2000	1800	2000	2000	2000	2000	2000

Source: TPC (2020); KSPO (2020)

Although few donations have been recently made, in the past, the TPC Foundation sometimes received labour subsidies from the KOICA and donations from companies.

Korea Economic Daily Newspaper, S-Oil Company, Hyundai Motor and Daewoo International in 2014; S-Oil Company and Boo-young Construction Company in 2015; and Champ-view Korea in 2016 donated to the TPC Foundation. (quoted in Website of TPC, 2020)

However, such donations were only used for the operation of the TPC Foundation, and only the government budget was used for the TPC programme.

Although there are donations for the operation of the Foundation, the budget for the programme is provided only by the government. (Interviewee Won, Team manager in the TPC Foundation, 28 March 2019)

In addition, all TPC and support staff for the programme are recruited and selected by the TPC Foundation.

The final successful candidates are announced after screening document, practical skills and interviews, and the selection is made in two areas: TPC and translator. (quoted in Website of TPC, 2020)

Meanwhile, countries where TPC have visited entered provide accommodation and transportation for the TPC.

Members of the TPC programme are provided accommodation and transportation by the dispatch countries while carrying out the programme. (Interviewee Won, Team manager in the TPC Foundation, 28 March 2019)

Therefore, the TPC programme has been carried out through financial support from the MCST, human support from the TPC Foundation and accommodation and transportation support from dispatch countries.

6.4.5. Motive

The TPC programme is regarded as Korea's leading SfD programme that practices sharing and volunteering through Taekwondo. Initially, the programme began with the efforts and will of the WF and its governor, Cho Jung-won, who is now directly involved in the TPC Foundation and the MCST. Since the WT established the TPC Foundation, it would be easy to figure out why the TPC Programme firstly started and how it has been operated by identifying the motivations of the TPC Foundation and the MCST.

The TPC Foundation has operated the programme with three main motivations. Firstly, it started the programme to expand the base of Taekwondo and globalise it through the development of Taekwondo.

The background of the TPC programme stems from Taekwondo development. In particular, the globalisation of Taekwondo was the biggest motive. The history of Taekwondo spreading around the world is much shorter than that of other sports. That's why it is still important to spread and disseminate Taekwondo. (Interviewee Won, Team manager in the TPC Foundation, 28 March 2019)

Recently, Taekwondo has actually been competing with other martial art sports to be included in the official Olympic Games.

As Taekwondo competes with Karate and Kung fu to be selected as an official Olympics sport, the programme helps promote Taekwondo.

260

If Taekwondo develops in many countries and wins in more diverse countries than now, it would prove that the base of Taekwondo has expanded around the world. (Interviewee Won, Team manager in the TPC Foundation, 28 March 2019)

Secondly, the TPC Foundation has sought to spread representative Korean cultural contents around the world by utilising Taekwondo, which is a traditional Korean sport.

Taekwondo contributed to the establishment of a global network among countries and to strengthening national brand and status through Taekwondo. This was one of the reasons why we pushed ahead with the programme. (Interviewee Won, Team manager in the TPC Foundation, 28 March 2019)

Another motivation for the TPC Foundation is to practice sharing and to provide helpful services through the TPC programme, contributing to peace and harmony for mankind.

The TPC Foundation sought to strengthen world peace and community with 210 Taekwondo members around the world. (quoted in Website of TPC, 2020)

From the ODA point of view, the background of the programme is to practice sharing and provide services through Taekwondo. (Interviewee Won, Team manager in the TPC Foundation, 28 March 2019).

Since the late 2000s, the government has made efforts to promote Taekwondo.

The MCST has begun to engage in the TPC programme in order to globalise Taekwondo, enhance sports diplomacy and promote international sports exchanges. (quoted in Sport White Paper writMCST, 2018).

It has focused on international cooperation activities through Taekwondo in line with the international development cooperation policy of the central government.

In particular, similar to the TPC Foundation, the MCST seems to have placed the greatest emphasis on expanding the Taekwondo base.

> *Although the number of Taekwondo practically countries in the WT has increased due to the growing population of Taekwondo practitioner around the world, many countries are still inactive in Taekwondo. Since we are the birthplace of Taekwondo, we have been supporting this programme to promote Taekwondo to underdeveloped countries. So, I think the WT would have pushed for it in the beginning.* (Interviewee Jeong, Manager in the MCST, 2 April 2019)

In addition, the MCST has secretly expected to achieve the economic goals in international development cooperation through the TPC programme.

> *I hope this programme would help build a global network and national brand through Taekwondo. Also, some of the Corps members are employed in the dispatch countries. I think it is also helpful for young Korean people to advance into overseas markets, which is in line with the purpose of the government's international development cooperation policy.* (Interviewee Jeong, Manager in the MCST, 2 April 2019)

The TPC Foundation and the MCST began to engage in the programme mainly due to the need to expand the base of Taekwondo and globalise it. Lastly, the humanitarianism of the TPC Foundation and the economic goal of the MCST affected the beginning and the development of the TPC programme.

6.4.6. Summary

The TPC programme is an SfD programme that practices humanity and peace around the world based on volunteer work related to Taekwondo. The programme was first established in 2008 by the WT, and its work was transferred to the TPC Foundation in 2009. Initially, along with the WT, GCS International was deeply involved in the TPC programme as an international NGO that seeks to overcome the Cold War and

promote world peace. Cho Jung-won, a governor of the WT, founded the TPC Foundation in 2009 for the operation of the professional and unified TPC programme. The TPC Foundation serves to select the countries to dispatch the Corps and to create conditions for Corps to engage in activities safely and effectively.

In 2010, the TPC programme officially joined the WFK, which refers to an aggregated brand of government-sponsored overseas volunteer programmes. The MCST plays a role in supervising the TPC Foundation, but it is not involved with the details because the Foundation is a private organisation. Meanwhile, the TPC Foundation domestically and internationally cooperates with each country and relevant organisations related to Taekwondo, such as Taekwondo organisations and the WT.

As mentioned earlier, the TPC programme was launched by the WT. It is no exaggeration to say that the programme was initiated from the will of the governor, Cho Jung-won, because it was part of his election campaign. Since the governor also took the position of president of GCS International, the TPC programme began with the cooperation of the two organisations. In 2009, the TPC Foundation joined the WFK, which meant that the government began to get involved in the programme in earnest. The Korean government announced a basic plan for promoting Taekwondo and a project to make it a prestigious brand in order to systematically support the internationalisation of Taekwondo in 2008. The TPC Foundation, in consultation with the MCST, annually establishes a roadmap for the programme, taking on the direction of Korea's international development cooperation.

Meanwhile, since President Lee Myung-bak took office in 2008, the government has strengthened the ODA policy as part of its foreign policy to establish itself as a global country. In particular, before and after joining the OECD DAC in 2010, the ODA policy emerged as an important foreign policy for the government, and the WFK was established to support it. The main goal of the WFK is to actively support the MDGs and SDGs established at the UN in 2000 through the Volunteer Corps in various fields. Therefore, the accession of the Corps to the WFK stems from

the commitment of the government to the international norms required by the international community.

The ministry in charge of the TPC programme was changed from the MOFAT to the MCST in 2010 in accordance with the policy of the government to unify Taekwondo projects. The MCST mainly serves to determine whether the purpose and direction of the programme conforms to the ODA policy direction of the government. It establishes an annual implementation plan for the programme with the TPC Foundation. At the beginning of the programme, for example, it focused on designing substantial and efficient programmes and later sought to establish a systematic network, train coaches and expand the base of Taekwondo. Since 2010, the government has allocated the budget for the TPC Foundation and included the programme in the WFK, reflecting the government's determination to make international development cooperation more integrated and professional. In particular, with the enactment of the Framework Act on International Development Cooperation in 2010 and the joining of the OECD DAC, the government sought to realise international development cooperation activities expected by the international community through such programmes.

The TPC programme has operated through the government's financial support since it was placed under the MCST's supervision in 2010. The programme is supported by donations from the KOICA and companies, but the operating costs of the programme are only executed with the government's budget. The TPC Foundation selects the member of the Corps and supports personnel while accommodation and transportation are provided by host countries. Meanwhile, the TPC Foundation developed the programme with three main motivations. Firstly, it pursued the expansion and globalisation of Taekwondo through its development. Secondly, it aspired to make Taekwondo a representative cultural content within the Korean Wave. Thirdly, it intended to contribute to world peace and harmony by practicing sharing and service through the TPC programme. Lastly, the MCST has supported the programme by considering the globalisation of Taekwondo and strengthening of sports diplomacy in addition to volunteering through Taekwondo.

6.5. WFK–KOV Programme

As a result of deductive content analysis based on 5 main categories and 10 sub-categories, 30 codes were derived from the WFK–KOV programme. Considering the similarities and differences between each code, this study was able to identify a total of 5 categories and 11 sub-categories by classifying them into predetermined categories and sub-categories. The final five categories were re-named as 'Actors', 'Development process', 'Role of government', 'Support' and 'Motive' (Table 6.10), reflecting the meaning of document and participant statements.

Table 6.10. Codes and Categories of the WFK–KOV Programme

Category	Sub-Category	Code
Actors	State actors	Involvement of the WFK
		Involvement of the KOICA
		Involvement of the MOFAT
	Non-state actors	Involvement of the IVCO
Development process	Interaction between state actors and societal actors	Hosting forums and conferences
		Cooperation with civil society
		Media cooperation
	Non-material factors or agenda created in the international community	Compliance with the MDGs and SDGs since the 2000s
		Cooperation with the IVCO since 2005
		Expectations and demands of the international community in the beginning of Korea's international development cooperation
		International development cooperation as an international issue
		Activation of international development cooperation by joining the OECD DAC and hosting international conferences
	Interaction between state actors	Development through relevant policies and laws
		Establishment of the KOICA through consultation between government departments
		Coordination of the International Development Cooperation Committee
Role of government	Reflecting the preferences of societal actors	Cooperation with civil society since the 2000s
		Strengthening public–private cooperation
	Reflecting non-material factors or agenda in the international community	Reflecting the MDGs and SDGs
		Reflecting international demands
		Cooperation with international organisations
		Management and supervision

	Comprehensive management and supervision	Proposing the direction of development through announcing relevant policies
Support	Support by state actors	Financial support by the MOEF
		Material support by the KOICA
		Human support by the KOICA
Motive	National interests	Maximisation of national interests
		Social and economic development
		Geopolitical interests
	Humanitarianism	Constructing a well-off human society, people-centred peace and prosperity
		Feeling responsible for international development cooperation as a donor country

6.5.1. Actors

In 2009, the Korean government aggregated various overseas volunteer service projects that had been dispersed. These projects were collectively called WFK. The WFK programme includes various Volunteer Corps, and KOICA was selected as their general implementation agency.

> *The WFK is the new name for volunteers dispatched overseas by the Korean government. Until then, many government ministries carried out projects that resulted in many side effects, so the government consolidated the budgets of each Corps and made it a brand. The KOICA serves as the general implementation agency.* (Interviewee Kim, Deputy director in the MOFAT, 25 March 2019)

> *Various overseas volunteer programmes are included within the WFK programme. There are the Korea Overseas Volunteer programme, NGO Volunteer programme, KOICA–UNV Volunteer programme, Science-Technology Support programme and International Development Professional programme. The KOICA became the general implementation agency that operates the budget as it was integrated into the WFK programme. We play a role in establishing the project plan of the WFK programme and supporting the budget. Also, we provide various guidelines related to the smooth operation of the programme.* (Interviewee Yoon, Team manager in the KOICA, 12 April 2019)

The KOV programme, which was run by the KOICA, also became the WFK–KOV programme.

> *The WFK–KOV programme is part of a grant aid project for developing countries and is run by the KOICA under the authority of the MOFAT.* (quoted in ODA White Paper, 2017)

> *The KOICA has been dispatching volunteers in the field of physical education since 1991.* (quoted in Report written by Institute for Global Economics and Social Affairs, 2013)

In the past, it also carried out a government-led project to dispatch Taekwondo instructors, but it was transferred to the MCST in 2009. For this reason, most sports volunteers are sent abroad via the WFK–KOV programme.

> *The WFK–KOV programme includes physical education, Taekwondo and physical education for those disabled within the education sector. They are mainly responsible for sports activities and education but sometimes responsible for renovating sports facilities.* (Interviewee Yoon, Team manager in the KOICA, 12 April 2019)

Volunteer workers dispatched to the local area carry out various activities related to sports, including physical education classes.

> *I am making the future by adding volunteering and international development to physical education, my major. I am in charge of regular physical education classes and afterschool sports activities in Rwanda. Since my major is badminton, I have established a badminton club that plays four times a week for an hour and have sometimes participated in the school volleyball tournament together to provide medical support. Recently, I built a gym for students and built a storage room for sporting goods.* (Cho Hye-in, a member of the WFK–KOV, quoted at the KOICA in 2019)

> *The WFK–KOV has been using sport as a tool for international development cooperation and volunteering in the field of education.* (quoted in Sports ODA of the KOICA written by Hwang, 2015)

The KOICA is a quasi-governmental organisation in charge of the free cooperation projects in Korea.

It aims to contribute to international cooperation by promoting friendly cooperation and mutual exchanges with developing countries and supporting their economic and social development. (quoted in Website of ODA Korea, 2020c)

The KOICA carries out international development cooperation, dispatch of overseas volunteer groups and professionals and cooperation with civil society and international organisations, focusing on key areas such as health, education, public administration, agriculture and fisheries and technology, environment and energy. Recently, the KOICA aimed to serve as a platform for development cooperation centred on pan-national participation by establishing partnerships with various actors, including government ministries, public institutions, civil society, companies and academia participating in development cooperation. (quoted in Report written by ODA Korea, 2020b)

The MOFAT functions as an organiser of Korea's grant aid programmes.

The MOFAT is the general ministry of Korea's free cooperation projects while the KOICA is the general implementation agency. A government department that implements each international development cooperation programme is considered an implementing agency. (Interviewee Yoon, Team manager in the KOICA, 12 April 2019)

The MOFAT draws up a basic plan and annual implementation plan for the grant aid projects.

We make a comprehensive plan for the WFK–KOV programme. The first basic plan for international development cooperation, which was established shortly after the launch of the WFK, focused on securing the budget and managing the organisation efficiently. The second

basic plan, which began in 2016, focused on follow-up management of projects and strengthening safety management of the problems that may arise while volunteering abroad. (Interviewee Kim, Deputy director in the MOFAT, 25 March 2019)

The MOFAT is conducting the grant aid projects through discussions and coordination with the KOICA and relevant government ministries.

If the nature and content of the project overlap, we intervene and coordinate the project properly. (Interviewee Kim, Deputy director in the MOFAT, 25 March 2019)

Meanwhile, to make an agreement for the dispatch of Volunteer Corps between governments, the local offices and coordinators of KOICA conduct previews.

They carry out feasibility checks on conditions of activities in the region, conditions of activities by Volunteer Corps in other countries, security conditions and cooperation with Korea. (quoted in Thesis written by Hong, 2010)

The KOICA's local offices and coordinators play a role in conducting feasibility procedures for dispatching Volunteer Corps. (Interviewee Yoon, Team manager in the KOICA, 12 April 2019)

The KOICA plays a role in activity support and safety management for the dispatched members. (quoted in Website of KOICA, 2020a)

The KOICA also joined the Forum organised by the International Volunteer Cooperation Organisation (IVCO) in 2013 as a full-time member.

The International Forum for Volunteering in Development is the most important global network of the IVCO. The Forum is a place where the organisations can share information, develop practice and enhance cooperation on international development cooperation. (quoted in Website of Forum, 2020)

We know that it is not easy for the volunteer activities in each country to show direct effect. Through the Forum, they agreed to make efforts to measure the actual contribution of the Volunteer Corps. We also submitted our activity report to the UN. (Interviewee Yoon, Team manager in the KOICA, 12 April 2019)

The IVCO discusses various topics, such as the direction of the Volunteer Corps, problem solving and the formation of a global network, all of which affect the policy direction of KOICA for the WFK–KOV programme. In conclusion, the main actor of the WFK–KOV programme is the KOICA, and the MOFAT is directly involved as a competent ministry of the government. Internationally, the governments of the dispatched countries, the local offices and coordinators of KOICA are involved in the programme while the IVCO's Forum influences the KOICA's activities.

6.5.2. Development Process

Currently, the WFK–KOV programme is one of the most representative volunteer programmes in Korea. Physical education, Taekwondo and physical education for the disabled are mainly taught abroad through the WFK–KOV programme. Since the programme began its activities with the establishment of the KOICA in 1991, it is necessary to understand the establishment process of KOICA. In addition, the KOV programme was reorganised into the WFK–KOV programme by aggregating it with various volunteer programmes from each government ministry. Therefore, investigating the process of promotion for the WFK–KOV programme within the government at that time is also essential.

Foreign aid activities of Korea began in the 1960s.

The foreign aid activities of Korea began in 1963 with the USAID funding for trainees of developing countries. Since then, Korea has continued its international development cooperation activities using funds from the UN and other international organisations. In the late

1970s, along with rapid economic growth, Korea faced a time when the demand for ODA expanded in developing countries. In 1977, the MOFAT began its own grant aid with an overseas aid budget of 900,000 dollars and continued to expand its scale. (quoted in ODA White Paper, 2017)

Our country, which had developed a lot with the help of others in the past, has fulfilled its responsibility and role to meet the expectations of the international community as the number of requests for economic and technical cooperation from many developing countries has increased day by day. (Introduction of the KOICA, quoted at the KOICA in 1991)

Internationally, the development of media at this time led to the rapid spread of news of massive disasters and poverty around the world, leading to a significant increase in public awareness of emergency disaster relief. The expertise and function of international-development-oriented NGOs were likewise strengthened gradually.

With the end of the Cold War regime in the early 1990s, donor countries faced a time where they could focus on development and poverty beyond ideology. Thanks to the rapid progress of globalisation, major issues of development cooperation also diversified into environment, women, migration, labour, poverty and health along with existing economic cooperation. (quoted in ODA White Paper, 2017)

In other words, since the 1990s, the international community has come to strategically approach various areas of international development cooperation.

At that time, the Korean government sought to efficiently and systematically carry out international development cooperation activities for a grant aid, and these were conducted individually by each ministry.

The MOFAT promoted the establishment of the KOICA in September 1990 to take charge of cooperation projects with developing countries. (quoted in ODA White Paper, 2017)

The Korean government positively considered the establishment of an organisation exclusively responsible for Korea's international cooperation projects in order to strengthen efficiency by comprehensively managing projects and budgets.

> *A bill on the establishment of the KOICA was passed by the National Assembly on December 15, 1990.* (quoted in ODA White Paper, 2017)

In April 1991, the government finally approved the establishment of the KOICA under the MOFAT. Meanwhile, Korea first dispatched 44 persons to four Asian countries under the name of the Korean Youth Overseas Volunteer Corps by the UNESCO Korea Committee in 1990.

> *With the launch of the KOICA in 1991, the Volunteer Corps project was transferred to the KOICA, by which sports activities began to be introduced. The name was changed to the KOV because the age limit standard was expanded in 1995.* (quoted in Sport White Paper, 2018)

In 2009, the KOICA became the general implementing agency of the WFK. In addition, along with the launch of the International Development Cooperation Committee in 2006, the announcement of ODA mid-term strategies in 2007 and the establishment of the Framework Act on International Development Cooperation.

> *In 2010, Korea began to develop various policies and strategies to strengthen the internal stability of international development cooperation.* (quoted in ODA White Paper, 2017)

> *Since then, the MOFAT and the KOICA have become a general implementation ministry and a general implementation agency, respectively. Also, within each programme, there are separate implementation ministries and agencies. The KOICA acts as a kind of general manager who manages all programmes.* (Interviewee Kim, Deputy director in the MOFAT, 25 March 2019)

The International Development Cooperation Committee is Korea's top policy body in the field of development cooperation.

It serves to deliberate and coordinate key matters so that Korea's policies on international development cooperation can be implemented comprehensively and systematically. (quoted in Report written by ODA Korea, 2020b)

The International Development Committee is the general review body of Korea's international development cooperation activities, and it coordinates the size and ratio of grant aid and credit assistance. (Interviewee Kim, Deputy director in the MOFAT, 25 March 2019)

In particular, the International Development Cooperation Committee establishes an institutional framework for creating synergy effects by coordinating and linking the projects of each ministry.

The MOFAT, which is the organiser of the grant aid, not only prepares a five-year basic plan and an annual implementation plan for each sector, but it also checks its implementation. (quoted in Report written by ODA Korea, 2020b)

Once each ministry submits a plan of the projects to be implemented next year, the MOFAT will coordinate and review them, and the Council of the Grant Aid Agencies will consult and coordinate them. (Interviewee Yoon, Team manager in the KOICA, 12 April 2019)

Moreover, Korea emphasises cooperation with civil society in its first and second basic plans for international development cooperation.

The first basic plan in 2010 suggested expanding programmes involving civic groups, academia and companies in the international development cooperation of Korea. In the second plan announced in 2015, the government emphasised strengthening cooperation with the private sector and pan-national understanding and participation. (quoted in Report written by MOFAT, 2019)

In fact, the International Development Cooperation Committee and working committee include civilian members representing civil society,

along with the prime minister and ministers of related ministries.
(quoted in Report written by ODA Korea, 2020b)

Civil members do not directly engage in specific volunteering programmes but contribute to deliberating and coordinating key points of Korea's international development cooperation.

Korea's status in the international community has recently risen noticeably. Since KOICA was founded in 1991, each country around the world and international organisations, such as the UN and the OECD, are working to promote the co-prosperity of the global community by addressing the imbalance between developed and developing countries.

> *Since 2000, Korea has taken the initiative in various international discussions, including MDGs and SDGs, thereby strengthening its status in the international community. In 2010, Korea became the 24th member of the OECD DAC, and in 2011, it hosted the Busan World Development Assistance Conference (HLF-4) to play a leading role in effective development cooperation.* (quoted in Report written by ODA Korea, 2017)

These were efforts to keep and lead international issues in step with the international society.

The direction of activities of the WFK programme, including the KOV, is greatly influenced by the programme's cooperation with international organisations and norms.

> *As international organisations like the UN hope to make joint efforts with MDGs and SDGs, I think we should naturally comply with the movement as Korea's official international cooperation agency.* (Interviewee Yoon, Team manager in the KOICA, 12 April 2019)

The KOICA usually sets the overall direction of the KOV in accordance with international norms declared by the UN.

During the MDGs period, which ended in 2015, we designed our programme with a focus on health and education. Soon after, during the SDGs period, we focused on gender equality, environment and governance. In fact, SDGs are composed of 17 areas, but there are many detailed fields, so we selected areas in 2017 that we could focus on and created a programme and programme performance index. (Interviewee Yoon, Team manager in the KOICA, 12 April 2019)

Importantly, the KOICA has been cooperating with foreign volunteer agencies representing each country on a regular basis.

Korea started participating in the IVCO Forum in 2005, enhancing the positive development of volunteer organisations around the world through various topics, such as global citizenship, measures of effectiveness for volunteer work, and the value of volunteering. (quoted in Website of WFK, 2017)

In particular, the IVCO Forum was held in Seoul in 2017 under the theme of implementing SDGs through transformative partnerships in volunteer work.

There is a forum in an international organisation called IVCO that represents overseas volunteer agencies in each country, including Japan and Australia. We meet every year to discuss how to develop Volunteer Corps in each country. For example, they agree on whether to run Volunteer Corps on ODA or set goals for the development and growth of their own people. At the IVCO Forum held in Korea two years ago, we agreed that the role of Volunteer Corps was significant in the SDGs era and then we shared common values to achieve SDGs. (Interviewee Yoon, Team manager in the KOICA, 12 April 2019)

Thus, the KOICA discusses practical measures to implement volunteer work partnerships among SDGs through the IVCO Forum. It also hosts forums and conferences on its own to explore the direction of the WFK–KOV programme.

We set up an agenda every quarter to hold forums and conferences. The forum's theme is in line with the government's foreign policy

stance. For example, we hosted the Forum on the New Southern Policy and Peace that has been emphasised by the government. (Interviewee Yoon, Team manager in the KOICA, 12 April 2019)

The media plays a role in promoting the dispatch of the WFK–KOV programme and cooperative activities around the world.

Laotian girl falls into the 'Unknown World' baseball game (Lim, Jae-hoon, quoted at Sports W in 2020)

In conclusion, with its rapid economic and social development, Korea began with the establishment of the KOICA in 1991 not only to respond to expectations for international development cooperation in the international community but also to carry out efficient overseas aid activities domestically. The KOV was transformed into the WFK–KOV programme in 2009. In this process, the systematic management of the government was strengthened, and the opinions of civil society began to be reflected in the Korean grant aid policy. In addition, international norms and international organisations have had a great impact on the role and direction of the WFK–KOV programme.

6.5.3. Role of Government

The Korean government established the KOICA, which is an agency dedicated to foreign free cooperation projects under the MOFAT.

Basically, the MOFAT is in charge of the KOICA, which oversees the grant aid programme, and conducts working-level consultations with related ministries. (quoted in Report written by ODA Korea, 2020b)

The MOFAT plays a role in managing and supervising the KOICA.

The MOFAT gives us annual guidelines in January, and based on that, we formulate annual plans. (Interviewee Yoon, Team manager in the KOICA, 12 April 2019)

In the early 1990s, when the KOICA was established, the Korean government, including the MOFAT, was not actively engaged in communication with civil society for carrying out the WFK–KOV programme. This means that decision making regarding the programme was made only between the MOFAT and the KOICA.

> *At that time, it was not an environment to cooperate with civil society, and such a system was not in place.* (Interviewee Yoon, Team manager in the KOICA, 12 April 2019)

However, in the 2000s, the government began to strengthen cooperation and participation with civil society, along with the establishment of a systematic ODA policy.

> *The International Development Cooperation Committee, which is the highest body of Korea's international development cooperation, includes private experts in the decision-making process, along with ministers of the related ministries and heads of public institutions.* (quoted in Report written by ODA Korea, 2017)

Unlike in the past, the government establishes a system for collecting opinions from civil society and reflects these in Korea's ODA policy.

The government also emphasised strengthening public–private cooperation in its annual comprehensive implementation plan for international development cooperation.

> *The Second Basic Plan for International Development Cooperation in 2015 planned to expand partnerships for development cooperation involving civic groups, academics and businesses in government-led development cooperation. The government has decided to try various institutional measures to institutionalise public–private partnerships between government, civic groups, academia and business.* (quoted in Website of MOFAT, 2015)

Establishing the policy through partnerships would also affect the WFK–KOV programme, which carries out the grant aid activities.

> *The KOICA serves as a platform for the entire nation to participate through partnerships with various actors in Korea, including government agencies, public institutions, civic society, businesses and academia participating in international development cooperation.*
> (quoted in Report written by ODA Korea, 2017)

Meanwhile, the Korean government is actively joining international development cooperation led by the international community. It may be evident in the need to establish the KOICA.

The MOFAT mentioned increasing requests for cooperation from developing countries and responding to international requests for sharing responsibilities as the background for establishing the KOICA.

> *After Korea's successful hosting of the 1988 Seoul Olympics, the international community further emphasised the role of Korea in international development cooperation.* (In quoted in Thesis written by Park, 2016)

Even after the establishment of the KOICA, Korea signed a cooperative loan agreement with the World Bank and the Asian Development Bank in the 1990s and joined the OECD in 1996 to actively carry out international development cooperation within the international community. This can be seen as a practical move by the Korean government to meet the expectations of the international community and the trend of the times.

In the 2000s, Korea's ODA policy focused on accepting and practicing international norms and agendas. Korea has a comprehensive ODA policy established by the International Development Cooperation Committee in accordance with the basic plan for national development cooperation.

> *In the early 2000s, Korea established and implemented ODA policies with the aim of practicing MDGs set by the UN.* (quoted in Website of MOFAT, 2015)

According to the Second Basic Plan for National Development Cooperation, the goal of the future development cooperation policy of the Korean government was to contribute to the achievement of the SDGs replacing MDGs. (quoted in Report written by ODA Korea, 2017)

Moreover, since joining the OECD DAC in 2010, Korea has been required to reform relevant policies to meet international standards for the implementation and evaluation of ODA activities.

Non-material factors created in the international community, such as MDGs and SDGs, are largely reflected in government policies. The field of international cooperation itself will bring together the opinions of the international community and spread to each country. When our government designs our ODA policy, we consult the agendas and norms pursued by the UN or the OECD. We also use a lot of statistics or indicators related to international development cooperation issued by such international organisation. (Interviewee Kim, Deputy director in the MOFAT, 25 March 2019)

Recently, Korea has sought to support the implementation of SDGs in developing countries through the G20 and OECD in areas of comparative advantage based on development experience.

As a result, the government is strengthening cooperation and sharing experiences and know-how with international organisations and other donor countries. This will and attitude of the government greatly affect the planning process and resulting roadmap of the WFK–KOV programme.

The basic direction for the basic international development plan is to comply with international norms. We play a role in setting the direction of the programme according to it. (Interviewee Yoon, Team manager in the KOICA, 12 April 2019)

In fact, the KOICA signed an MOU with USAID in 2014, strengthening various cooperation activities in development cooperation. Such cooperation with international organisations is contributing to

enhancing the influence of Korea in the international community by establishing a global network. (quoted in Report written by ODA Korea, 2017)

In conclusion, in the 2000s, the government established an international development cooperation system that could reflect the opinions of civil society, leading to changes in the WFK–KOV programme. In particular, the Korean government recently followed the agendas and norms advocated by the international community, which affects the direction and roadmap of the WFK–KOV programme.

6.5.4. Support

The KOICA is a quasi-government agency under the MOFAT. Naturally, the WFK–KOV programme has been run with the government's financial support.

The MOEF reviews the details of the programme and allocates the budget to the MOFAT. The MOFAT arranges the budget for the KOICA. (Interviewee Yoon, Team manager in the KOICA, 12 April 2019)

The budget for the last six years of the WFK programmes, including the WFK–KOV programme, is shown in Table 6.11.

Table 6.11. Total Budget for the WFK–KOV Programme   (Criteria: million dollars)

Year	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
Budget	115.391	119.503	132.636	129.186	155.649	156.759

Source: KOICA (2020b)

As the table shows, the budget for the WFK programme accounting for about 17% of the total budget for the KOICA has steadily increased except in 2018.

Service members receive various supports through the government's financial support.

> *Specifically, the members receive round-trip airfare, local living expenses, housing costs and domestic settlement support. In addition, after returning home, the members will be eligible to engage in the Overseas Volunteer Service Network and may apply for WFK scholarship.* (quoted in Website of the KOICA, 2020b)

Meanwhile, those who take part in the WFK–KOV programme are dispatched abroad after rigorous screening and training by the KOICA.

> *Usually, applicants will be verified for their expertise in the first round, and in the second round they will be evaluated for their service quality and suitability for overseas service through interviews and personality tests. Afterwards, domestic education and local adaptation education will be provided to selected applicants for eight weeks.* (quoted in Website of the KOICA, 2020b)

In conclusion, the WFK–KOV programme is domestically operated with government's financial support and the KOICA's own support system.

6.5.5. Motive

The WFK–KOV programme is Korea's leading volunteer programme with a history of 30 years. Given that the KOICA is a quasi-government agency that replaces the government's special purpose mission, the MOFAT's and the KOICA's main motives for the programme are believed to be consistent. The WFK–KOV programme was largely initiated by two motives, and it has maintained its purpose and direction until now.

Firstly, the programme pursued win-win development cooperation for the construction of a well-off human society and prosperity. At the time of the KOICA's establishment, Korea was no longer a country supported by other countries. Instead Korea became a practically supportive country.

The MOFAT sought to efficiently carry out international development cooperation required by the international community through the establishment of the KOICA. (quoted in Thesis written by Park, 2016)

The WFK–KOV programme seems to have a strong goal of contributing to the international community. It is meaningful to return and reciprocate what we received from the international society in the 1960s and 1970s. Since we are members of the OECD, we cannot passively cooperate in development cooperation programmes. (Interviewee Kim, Deputy director in the MOFAT, 25 March 2019)

The Framework Act on International Development Cooperation, which serves as the legal basis for the KOICA's activities, clearly presents the motivation for the WFK–KOV programme.

This Act addresses poverty reduction in developing countries; improvement of human rights of women, children and the disabled; realisation of gender equality and their sustainable development; and realisation of humanitarianism as the basic spirit of international development cooperation. Specifically, the detailed goals of international development cooperation are to reduce poverty, improve quality of life, foster development and improve systems, promote friendly and cooperative relations and mutual exchanges and resolve global issues in developing countries. (quoted in Website of Ministry of Government Legislation, 2020b)

Secondly, the KOICA was established to maximise national interests through efficient international development cooperation.

Korea used its international development cooperation policy as a catalyst for economic and social development. Korea's basic spirit of ODA and the Framework Act on International Development Cooperation also include a specific motive to enhance economic cooperation with developing countries. (quoted in Report written by ODA Korea, 2017)

In particular, the MOFAT selected 24 ODA-focused partner countries by considering economic and diplomatic relations.

> *We are sending Volunteer Corps mainly to 24 of ODA-focused partners selected by the government. In particular, these days, the government is emphasising the New Southern Policy which increases the level of cooperation with Southern Asian countries. We intend to reflect the foreign policy of each government into our plan of the programme.* (Interviewee Yoon, Team manager in the KOICA, 12 April 2019)

Moreover, the KOICA collects opinions from a diplomatic office in foreign country and recipient countries and selects key areas of cooperation for each country through an analysis of Korea's competitiveness in several industries.

> *We cannot conduct international development cooperation with all countries. So we make plans with some considerations of the economic aspect.* (Interviewee Kim, Deputy director in the MOFAT, 25 March 2019)

This can be regarded by the government to consider political, diplomatic and economic incentives in international development cooperation. In other words, Korea has been carrying out international development cooperation in line with global values and national strategies. Thus, the MOFAT and KOICA have mainly started and ran the WFK–KOV programme in consideration of both national interests and humanitarian motives.

6.5.6. Summary

The WFK–KOV programme is one of Korea's leading grant-type aid projects targeting developing countries. The KOICA, which is a quasi-government agency under the MOFAT, has a responsibility in Korea's international development cooperation in many ways. Volunteers related to physical education, Taekwondo and sports for the disabled are mainly responsible for sports activities and physical education of local people and the renovation of sports facilities. The MOFAT along

with the KOICA designs basic plans and annual implementation plans related to the grant-type aid. In other words, the MOFAT is the general department of the WFK while the KOICA is the general implementation agency. Overseas coordinators dispatched from the KOICA check the feasibility of local projects and take charge of supporting the activities and safety management of the members.

In the 1990s, the world took a strategic approach to various international development cooperation activities, including environment, women, labour, poverty and health and economic development. At that time, along with rapid economic growth, Korea was relied on many developing countries for economic and technological cooperation. In response, the government decided to establish an agency dedicated to international cooperation projects in order to systematically and efficiently carry out grant-type aid activities distributed among ministries. Finally, in April 1991, the KOICA was established under the MOFAT, and the KOV programme, including sport related Volunteer Corps, began. In 2009, the KOV programme was incorporated into the WFK.

The detailed plan of the WFK–KOV programme has been operated in consultation among the International Development Cooperation Committee, the MOFAT and the KOICA. However, the MOFAT recently emphasised the cooperation with civil society in the first and second basic plans for international development cooperation announced in 2010 and 2015, respectively. The basic plan proposed expanding programmes involving civil society, academia and companies as well as stressed pan-national understanding and increased participation by the private sector. Meanwhile, since the KOICA was founded in 1991, the status of Korea in the international community has risen noticeably. In the 2000s, Korea set international norms or agendas as the goal of the government's international development cooperation, emphasising solidarity and cooperation with the international community. For example, the KOICA focused on health and education during the MDGs and on gender equality, environment and governance during the SDGs. These days, the KOICA evaluates the WFK–KOV programme according to the performance indicators of SDGs to realise the SDGs. It also sets the direction and

role of the programme to match the SDG era through the IVCO Forum, an international consultative body of overseas volunteer organisations around the world.

Regarding the role of the government, the MOFAT is responsible for overseeing the WFK–KOV programme. Traditionally, because grant-type aid projects have been led by the government, especially the cooperation between the MOFAT, the KOICA and related ministries, it is difficult to reflect the opinions of civil society. However, the government has recently tried to reflect private opinions in its ODA policy by emphasising the expansion of partnerships in development cooperation involving civic groups, academia and companies through the first and second round of international development cooperation plans. The government, including the MOFAT, is actively participating in international development cooperation led by the international community. Already in 1990, the MOFAT referred to increasing demand for cooperation from developing countries and increasing demand for sharing international responsibilities as as the basis for the establishment of the KOICA. Since the 2000s, the Korean government has reflected international norms and agendas as the main goal of Korea's ODA policy. Such efforts from the government have had a significant impact on the detailed plans and roadmaps of the WFK–KOV programme.

As the KOICA is a quasi-government organisation, the WFK–KOV programme has been funded by the government. The government provides local living expenses, transportation costs, housing costs and domestic settlement subsidies. Members of the programme have been dispatched after self-organised screening and education by the KOICA. Lastly, the KOICA has developed programmes with two main motivations. Firstly, the WFK–KOV programme was launched to pursue cooperation for peace and prosperity in human society. Taking advantage of its past experience of becoming a donor country with support from the international community, Korea aims to solve various international issues, such as poverty, health and education, from a humanitarian perspective. Secondly, the KOICA has tried to pursue various national interests through the programme. Indeed, it is using a strategy of choice and concentration by taking into account its economic and diplomatic relations with local countries.

6.6. KPC Youth Para Sports Camp Programme

As a result of deductive content analysis based on 5 categories and 10 sub-categories, referring to SfD programmes in major countries and the two main theories applied to analyse the phenomena of this study, 29 codes were derived from the KPC YPSC programme. Considering the similarities and differences between each code, this study was able to identify a total of 5 categories and 12 sub-categories by classifying them into predetermined categories and sub-categories. The final five categories were re-named as 'Actors', 'Development process', 'Role of government', 'Support' and 'Motive' (Table 6.12), reflecting the meaning of document and participant statements.

Table 6.12 Codes and Categories of the KPC YPSC Programme

Category	Sub-Category	Code
Actors	State actors	Involvement of the MCST
	Non-state actors	Involvement of the KPC
		Involvement of sport organisations
		Involvement of universities
		Involvement of international organisations
Development process	Interaction between state actors and societal actors	Consultation between the MCST and the KPC
		Establishment of Icheon Training Centre
		Media cooperation
	Non-material factors or agenda created in the international community	Compliance with the MDGs and SDGs
		Expectations and demands of the international community and other countries
		Cooperation with international organisations
	Interaction between state actors	Development through relevant policies and laws
		Government's indifference to disabled sports until the end of the 2000s
Role of government	Reflecting the preferences of societal actors	Collecting and incorporating opinions of the KPC
	Reflecting non-material factors or agenda in the international community	Compliance with international norms
		Creation of a favourable atmosphere for accepting international norms
		Cooperation with international organisations
	Comprehensive management and supervision	Guarantee of the KPC's autonomy
		Proposing the direction of development through announcing relevant policies
Support	Support by state actors	
	Support by non-state actors	Financial support by the KSPO
		Material support by universities
		Financial and material support by civil society

		Material support by the KPC
		Human support by the KPC
Motive	National interests	Strengthening sports diplomacy
	Humanitarianism	Spread of the Paralympic Movement
		International development cooperation as a donor country

6.6.1. Actors

The KPC YPSC programme is an SfD programme that has been carried out by the KPC since 2015. It aims to contribute to the spread of the Paralympic Movement by fostering and developing youth athletes with disabilities through sports in developing countries. As a public institution under the MCST, the KPC promotes the health of people with disabilities, develops sports for people with disabilities, and contributes to international sports exchanges for the disabled.

> *The KPC is not an organisation that carries out its own profit-making activities since it is a public institution. We are entrusted with some works related to sports for the disabled by the government.* (Interviewee Sin, Director in the KPC, 29 March 2019)

> *Specifically, the KPC plays five main roles: (1) supporting the projects and activities of each federation for the disabled; (2) holding sports competitions for the disabled and enhancing international exchanges; (3) conducting projects to train athletes with disabilities and improving their performance; (4) fostering and spreading sports for the disabled; and (5) supporting the welfare of athletes with disabilities and coaches. The KPC is actively involved in international activities through sports.* (quoted in Website of KPC, 2020a)

In addition to the KPC YPSC programme, the KPC has engaged in the PyeongChang Dream programme, the Coaching School Programme with the Agitos Foundation and Overseas ODA programmes. However, the KPC YPSC programme is a representative SfD programme that has only been carried out stably every year under the instigation of the KPC.

The KPC is in charge of planning and promoting the KPC YPSC programme.

The International Sports Department of the KPC plays a role in carrying out the programme, and the annual planning and implementation of the programme are all led by the KPC. (Interviewee Sin, Director in the KPC, 29 March 2019)

Within the KPC YPSC programme, the KPC operates Sports Academy, Korean Culture Experience Workshop and Fellowship Programme.

We have held the programme four times in a row until 2018, and we will continue to hold it once a year. Usually, programmes invite youth from 12 to 15 countries. A coach and several athletes from each country visit. (Interviewee Sin, Director in the KPC, 29 March 2019)

The Sports Academy within the KPC YPSC programme is the most important part because it focuses on athletics and swimming and adds sports that Korea has advantages in.

The sports of the Sports Academy are chosen in a simple way. The sports that participating countries want to learn the most are swimming and athletics. Perhaps this is because they cost less in the early stages and it is easier to cultivate athletes. We often add archery, which is a strong sport in Korea. Usually, the KPC YPSC programme is carried out with three to four sports. (Interviewee Sin, Director in the KPC, 29 March 2019)

For the operation of Sports Academy, the KPC is supported by the coaches of each affiliated sports federation.

Professional coaches, such as former national team coaches, are selected through recommendations from relevant sports federations, such as athletics and swimming. The Sports Academy consists of training on performance improvement training, coaching theory, athlete management and equipment management. (quoted in Internal Report written by KPC, 2018)

> *In 2016, the KPC co-hosted the KPC YPSC programme along with Daegu Sports Association for the Disabled and Daegu National University.* (quoted in Website of Daegu University, 2016)

> *In 2016, Daegu City was selected through the public contest screening process. At that time, Daegu Sports Association for the Disabled and Daegu National University jointly organised the programme.* (Interviewee Sin, Director in the KPC, 29 March 2019)

With the exception of 2016, the KPC has implemented both the hosting and supervision of the KPC YPSC programme. Meanwhile, the Disabled Sport Division of the MCST is the government department in charge of the KPC.

> *The MCST establishes development plans for the promotion of sports for people with disabilities and creates and improves sports environment for the disabled* (quoted in Sport White Paper, 2018)

It makes an overall and macroscopic policy for disabled sports but does little to engage in specific plans and programmes of the KPC.

> *The MCST reviews the feasibility and direction of the programmes planned by the KPC every year but rarely engages in detailed planning and activities of the programme.* (Interviewee Sin, Director in the KPC, 29 March 2019)

The KPC cooperates with international organisations related to sports for the disabled for its own international cooperation programmes, including the KPC YPSC programme.

> *We work with the International Paralympic Committee (IPC), Agitos Foundation, Asian Paralympic Committee (APC) and International Federations (IF) whenever necessary to proceed with the programme. However, with the exception of the Coaching School jointly conducted with the IPC, there aren't any organisations that cooperate with the KPC YPSC programme.* (Interviewee Sin, Director in the KPC, 29 March 2019)

In November 2019, after the interview, the KPC signed a business agreement with the Asian Paralympic Committee (APC) to share Korea's know-how and infrastructure with other Asian countries, contributing to the expansion of the Paralympic Movement. (quoted in Website of YNA, 2019)

The agreement with the APC states that various projects, including the KPC YPSC programme, the Academy of Professional Coaching Training, the International Seminar on Sports Science and the publication of international journals, will be jointly cooperated from 2020. In conclusion, the KPC YPSC programme has been carried out for five years mainly by the KPC and its affiliated Sports Federations, with little direct involvement from the government and other actors.

6.6.2. Development Process

Basically, SfD programmes operated by the KPC are promoted through a consultation process with the MCST.

Since we are a public institution operated with the government's budget, we should consult with the MCST on the feasibility and direction of the programme on international development cooperation programmes requiring a large amount of budget (Interviewee Sin, Director in the KPC, 29 March 2019).

Among these cooperation programmes, the KPC YPSC programme is a planned SfD programme that celebrates the 10th anniversary of the founding of the KPC. (quoted in MK Economic Newspaper, 2019 – Journalist Jeong, D. W.)

Under the slogan 'Now Dream, Tomorrow Paralympians', the KPC sought to promote the development of disabled sports in developing countries.

We have participated in the PyeongChang Dream programme since 2011 and are also involved with the KOICA Volunteer Corps. However,

on the occasion of the 10th anniversary of the founding of the KPC, we had a desire to lead the international development cooperation programme for disabled sports. So, we proposed the plan to the MCST, and it was accepted. (Interviewee Sin, Director in the KPC, 29 March 2019)

The KPC was actually less interested in pursuing such an SfD programme until 2010. That is, international development cooperation through disabled sports was not a priority for the MCST and the KPC at that time.

Until 2010, we received enough budget from the government, but we were not interested in international cooperation. Rather, we focused on building a foundation for sports for the disabled in Korea. It is true that we don't feel much need for these kinds of programmes. (Interviewee Sin, Director in the KPC, 29 March 2019)

Sports for the disabled were considered part of the welfare policy for the disabled, as evidenced by the fact such sports were under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Health and Welfare in the early 2000s.

Meanwhile, according to the National Sports Promotion Act revised in July 2005, sports for the disabled were transferred from the Ministry of Health and Welfare to the MCST, and the Disabled Sport Division within MCST was newly established. (quoted in Website of KPC, 2020b)

With the establishment of the KPC in 2006 and the development system built for sports for the disabled, this Division emerged as one of the essential areas of national sport policy. (quoted in Website of KPC, 2020a)

At first, the KPC basically concentrated on promoting elite sport and SFA for the disabled and on the welfare of improving the disabled athletes.

The opening of the Icheon Training Centre for the development of elite sport and SFA for the disabled in 2010 unintentionally served as a catalyst for international development cooperation through sports for the disabled.

In fact, hosting the International Youth Camp jointly with the IPC in 2011 at the Icheon Training Centre was the start of the KPC's ODA activity. (Interviewee Sin, Director in the KPC, 29 March 2019)

The Icheon Training Centre had infrastructure and specialised training grounds to carry out international development cooperation.

The Icheon Training Centre opened in 2010, and we had enough facilities, vehicles and accommodations for the disabled. Dormitories could accommodate nearly 300 people at the same time. Also, the Training Centre allowed us to perform many events and activities. (Interviewee Sin, Director in the KPC, 29 March 2019)

Although the KPC YPSC programme was launched in commemoration of the 10th anniversary of the opening of the KPC, the Training Centre played a crucial role in planning and starting the programme.

Without the Training Centre, we wouldn't even have planned this programme. (Interviewee Sin, Director in the KPC, 29 March 2019)

The MCST likewise got involved in the beginning of the KPC's YPSC programme for the development of sports for the disabled.

In the Second Medium- and Long-Term Plan for the Development of Sports for the Disabled announced in 2013, the government firstly suggested the diversification of international exchanges as one of its major policies. In the Third Medium and Long-Term Plan for the Disabled announced in 2018, the government presented its goal of becoming a sports powerhouse for the disabled by providing sports programmes and expanding the exchange and cooperation to developing countries. (quoted in Sport White Paper, 2018)

In this context, the MCST took a favourable attitude and actively cooperated with the KPC in the beginning stage of the KPC YPSC programme.

Because we should comply with the direction and vision of the government's MDGs and subsequent SDGs as a public institution of the government, we usually take the government's relevant policy into consideration when we plan the SfD programme. Thanks to the government's interest and support, we were able to start the programme easily. Currently, about 55 people from 10 countries visit each year, and we provide all the airfare, accommodation and lodging expenses. Frankly speaking, there are few countries in the world that can do this. (Interviewee Sin, Director in the KPC, 29 March 2019)

In addition to the cooperation between the KPC and the MCST, the KPC YPSC programme was also influenced by cooperation and exchanges among the international disabled sport organisations, the KPC and other countries. Other countries also had demands and expectations for the programmes related to disabled sports based on the newest Training Centre dedicated to disabled sports.

With the creation of the Training Centre, there have been many inquiries from other countries about the operation of the programmes, such as sports camps for the disabled or joint trainings. The international community's expectations and demands were also reflected when planning and preparing these programmes. (Interviewee Sin, Director in the KPC, 29 March 2019)

In 2010, Korea actively entered international organisations for disabled sports and played responsible roles and activities. In particular, after being selected as an executive member of the IPC and APC, Korea has made efforts to meet the expectations and demands of the international community.

Since 2010, when we started ODA, our role in international organisations has become more active. In doing so, we think that we should do more programmes to spread the movement of the Paralympics and cultivate disabled athletes. Also, international

organisations acknowledge that Korea practices what it has promised.
(Interviewee Sin, Director in the KPC, 29 March 2019)

Meanwhile, the KPC plans to develop the KPC YPSC programme with the APC from 2020.

The KPC will continue to share and spread the legacy of the 1988 Seoul Paralympics and the 2018 Winter Paralympics. Also, we will serve as a sports hub for the disabled in Asia through joint projects with the APC. (Jeong Jin-wan, Director of Icheon Training Centre, quoted at YNA in 2019)

Thus, the KPC YPSC programme has been initiated and developed as a product of Korea's vigorous activities in the international community.

Lastly, the role and involvement of civil society in the beginning and during the development process of the programme were weak. Since the base and environment of sports for the disabled are insufficient, there is no organisation in the civil society that represents sports for the disabled. In addition, the KPC is a public institution established with financial support from the government, which means that it is impossible to make important decisions through exchanges and cooperation with civil society.

We are a sport organisation for the disabled, but we are not linked to civic groups or organisations related to the disabled since we focus only on sport itself. (Interviewee Sin, Director in the KPC, 29 March 2019)

In this context, the programme is being run by the KPC and its affiliated federations under the auspices of the MCST. Meanwhile, the media serves to promote the purpose and content of the annual KPC YPSC Programme.

For the KPC YPSC Programme, 56 participants from 15 countries […] time of harmony beyond borders. (Unknown reporter, quoted at Sports-Seoul in 2019)

> *The KPC, Agreement with APC […] 'Performs as the hub of sports for*
> *the disabled in Asia'.* (Bae Jin-nam, quoted at YNA in 2019)

In conclusion, the KPC YPSC programme started and proceeded with the cooperation of the KPC and the MCST. Specifically, the opening of the KPC Training Centre, the government's support and interest and the entry of Korea into international organisations had a significant impact on the implementation process of the programme.

6.6.3. Role of Government

The MCST is the government department in charge of the KPC, which carries out the KPC YPSC programme. As mentioned above, the KPC is designated as one of the other public institutions of the government.

> *Unlike public corporations and quasi-government agencies, other*
> *public institutions are not subject to management evaluation, and*
> *autonomy is ensured in important matters, such as board operation,*
> *executive appointment and budget accounting.* (quoted in New Daily
> Newspaper, 2016 – Journalist Yang, W. J.)

Owing to the specificity of sport itself, the government tends to minimise intervention in managing sports-related organisations.

> *The MCST respects our roles and authority and guarantees*
> *autonomy in running the programme.* (Interviewee Sin, Director in the
> KPC, 29 March 2019)

In this context, the role and involvement of the government in the KPC YPSC programme run by the KPC are clearly far less than those of other SfD programmes in Korea. Instead, the MCST presented the direction and vision of sport policies for the disabled through three mid- to long-term plans for the development of sports for the disabled.

> *The recently announced third plan emphasised international sports exchanges using sports facilities and manpower for the Winter Paralympics.* (quoted in Sport White Paper, 2018)

Based on these macroscopic plans, the MCST plans SfD programmes with the KPC.

> *The MCST serves to offer us suggestions and directions for future projects. In this process, the MCST could reflect our opinions into the annual plans or mid- to long-term plans.* (Interviewee Sin, Director in the KPC, 29 March 2019)

> *With regard to the KPC YPSC programme, the KPC firstly establishes a master plan and designs a detailed operation plan through consultation with the MCST.* (quoted in Sport White Paper, 2018)

Meanwhile, the Korean government, including the MCST, has created conditions for the KPC to carry out international development cooperation programmes related to sports for the disabled.

> *Although it is not directly encouraged by the Korean government, Korea has already signed vital international agreements related to our programmes, such as human rights, physical education and diplomacy. This leads to engaging in international exchanges. Therefore, when we plan these kinds of international projects, the government is not against them if it is feasible.* (Interviewee Sin, Director in the KPC, 29 March 2019)

For example, the Korean government joined the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) in 2009. The CRPD is described by Kim (2013) as follow:

> *The CRPD is the UN Convention on Human Rights aimed at guaranteeing the dignity and rights of those with all disabilities, including physical, mental and intellectual disabilities.*

It also specifies the right of people with disabilities to participate in leisure activities.

The main contents shall be as follows: (1) Disabled people shall be supported with regard sports participation; (2) Persons with disabilities shall be able to participate in sports or leisure activities; (3) Sports or leisure activities shall be accessible to person with disabilities ; and (4) Children with disabilities shall be equally accessible. (quoted in Website of the UN, 2020)

The Korean government is trying to effectively comply with the CRPD.

The UN CRPD includes information on sports for people with disabilities. If we plan or carry out the disabled sports ODA programmes, the government prefers it since it can be seen as implementing agreements made by the UN. Because we are the public institution, we intend to follow the direction and intention of the government. (Interviewee Sin, Director in the KPC, 29 March 2019)

In fact, the government shows a favourable attitude towards the KPC YPSC programme.

Since the MCST and MOEF are favourable to international sports programmes for the disabled with developing countries, such as the KPC YPSC programme, related budgets are rarely cut or scrapped (Interviewee Sin, Director in the KPC, 29 March 2019)

In conclusion, the MCST plays a minimal role in the operation and development of the KPC and the KPC YPSC programme. It also reflects the opinions of the KPC in sport policies for the disabled. Lastly, the Korean government has been favourably supporting the KPC YPSC programme to comply with and implement international conventions and norms.

6.6.4. Support

The KPC YPSC programme has been entirely run with the government's financial support because KPC is a public institution under the MCST. The KPC receives an annual budget from the KSPO and allocates part of the budget for the programme.

If we discuss the budget with the MCST and request that we need some budget this year, the budget is supported by the KSPO. (Interviewee Sin, Director in the KPC, 29 March 2019)

The KPC spent about 170,000 dollars in 2016 and 180,000 dollars in 2018 in the name of sports support and international sports exchange for the disabled. (quoted in Sport White Paper, 2018)

We support all the airfare, transportation and accommodation costs of the participants to run the programme. Few countries can support everything like this. Because the budget is steadily increasing and fully supported by the government, we can proceed with this kind of SfD programme every year. (Interviewee Sin, Director in the KPC, 29 March 2019)

The KPC YPSC programme also includes theoretical and practical training at the Icheon Training Centre operated by the KPC.

Professional coaches recommended by affiliated sports federations are selected, and operators and interpreters are selected mainly by the KPC. (quoted in Internal Report written by the KPC, 2018)

For the KPC YPSC programme, the KPC has sometimes received support in the form of scholarship, goods and facilities from private sectors.

Yonsei University delivered goods worth 20,000 dollars in 2015, and Daegu University provided a training ground for athletes with disabilities in 2016. (quoted in Kyunghyang Newspaper, 2015 – Journalist Cho, J. H.; in Website of Daegu University, 2016)

In 2017, the Korean Paralympics Club, which consists of national athletes with disabilities and retired athletes, delivered scholarships and goods to youth of participating countries. (in quoted in HKD Newspaper, 2017 – Journalist Ko, O. N.)

The KPC YPSC programme is entirely operated with the support of domestic actors, including the government and the KPC.

6.6.5. Motive

Marking the 10th anniversary of the founding of the KPC in 2015, the KPC YPSC programme was launched with the aim of improving the performance of youth athletes with disabilities in developing countries and promoting sports exchanges between countries for the disabled. The KPC plays a public role on behalf of the government with financial support. At that time, two main motivations seemed to set the background of the programme's launch.

Firstly, the KPC sought to participate in the spread of the Paralympic Movement through the KPC YPSC programme.

> *The Paralympic Movement is an international campaign to create an inclusive society through disabled sports.* (quoted in Website of Tokyo 2020, 2020)

> *The IPC and Agitos Foundation seek to increase opportunities for people with disabilities to participate in sports, contributing to peace through sports activities around the world.* (quoted in Website of the KPC, 2020b)

> *Korea made efforts to spread its Paralympic Movement by participating in about 13 international conferences and workshops in 2018.* (quoted in Sport White Paper, 2018)

In the same vein, the YPSC programme has pursued to take the lead in supporting developing countries on the basis of its historical experience of receiving sports equipment for the disabled from developed countries in the past.

> *In fact, other countries may not feel the need to carry out the KPC YPSC programme. However, we introduced sports for the disabled from Japan in the 1970s and also used second-hand equipment thanks to the help of Japan. In this context, the first generation of disabled sports seems to have a strong desire to contribute to the development of disabled sports by supporting developing countries. So, I think we planned this meaningful programme for the 10th*

anniversary of the foundation of the KPC, and we have been doing it
every year so far. (Interviewee Sin, Director in the KPC, 29 March 2019)

Secondly, the KPC YPSC programme was launched in an attempt to strengthen the status of Korea's sports for the disabled through sports exchanges among countries. In other words, this programme was launched to enhance the diplomatic power of the KPC and Korea's disabled sports.

Korea firstly participated in the IPC executive committee in 1989, and
currently, more than 10 executive committee members are working at
the IPC and APC. They contributes to enhancing Korea's sports status.
(quoted in Sport White Paper, 2018)

This entry into international organisations has driven the KPC to push for various SfD programmes.

Since Hyang-suk Jang president of the KPC, was selected as the IPC
executive committee member in 2009, Korea has produced its
executive committee members for the third consecutive time. This is
not an easy case. The production of executive members is thought to
have a significant impact on launching these kinds of programmes.
We were able to make the pertinent countries our strong support base
by implementing the pledges we made while running for a position in
the executive committee. (Interviewee Sin, Director in the KPC, 29
March 2019)

The KPC has actually built a good reputation on the international disabled sports stage through various SfD programmes, and furthermore, Korea's status is being strengthened.

Sports exchanges, such as the KPC YPSC programme, and sports
diplomacy among countries seem inseparable. Fortunately, other
countries and the IPC believe that if we make pledges, we will practice
them. The strengthening of disabled sports through these
programmes can be felt to some extent by the fact that many

> *executives have entered international organisations.* (Interviewee Sin, Director in the KPC, 29th March 2019)

In conclusion, the KPC YPSC programme was started and developed to promote the spread of the Paralympic Movement and strengthen sports for the disabled in Korea.

6.6.6. Summary

The KPC YPSC programme is an SfD programme that contributes to developing the performance of disabled youth and the leadership of coaches in developing countries since 2016. The KPC is a public institution under the MCST, and it is responsible for planning and promoting the YPSC programme. The KPC holds a sports academy, the Korean cultural experience and social programme for the disabled in about 12 to 15 countries once a year. The KPC has been working together with the IPC, Agitos Foundation, the APC and IF for its own SfD programmes. In particular, it agreed with the APC to jointly carry out various projects, such as the YPSC programme, the Academy of Professional Training and the International Seminar on Sports Science.

The KPC has been involved in the PyeongChang Dream programme and the WFK–KOV programme but had a desire to run its own disabled sports centred SfD programme. Several factors influenced the beginning and development process of the YPSC programme. First, in the mid- to long-term plan for the development of sports for disabled announced in 2013 and 2018, the MCST suggested the development of sports for the disabled through sports exchanges with developing countries as its main policy direction and priority. Although the KPC programme is a self-planned SfD activity to commemorate the 10th anniversary of the KPC's foundation, the KPC is actively promoting programmes that naturally support the policies of the government as a public institution. The opening of the Icheon Sports Training Centre for the Disabled in 2010 served as a catalyst for international development cooperation, enabling large-scale professional training at once.

Moreover, as Korea became active in the International Sport Organisation for the Disabled, the international community is looking forward to Korea's responsible role and activities. Since Korea was selected as an executive member of the IPC and the APC, it has become more interested in the Paralympic Movement and the disabled sports development programme pursued by the international community. On the other hand, the KPC has had little exchange and cooperation with the civil society in relation to the SfD programme. This is because the base for disabled sports seems too weak, and there is no civil society to represent it.

The government is not deeply involved in the YPSC programme compared to other Korean SfD programmes. Unlike quasi-government agencies, other public institutions are guaranteed autonomy in budget accounting, board operation and management evaluation. In this context, the MCST, which is in charge of the programme, mainly plays a role in suggesting the direction of sports for the disabled through mid- to long-term plans. In addition to the plans, the MCST creates favourable conditions for the KPC to carry out international development cooperation activities. For example, SfD programmes, such as the YPSC programme in the KPC, are fully supported by the government, thanks to the commitment and adherence of the government to the CRPD.

The KPC is operating the YPSC programme with government financial support. Furthermore, the Icheon Training Centre managed by the KPC provides a place for practical and professional training, and the KPC selects personnel who is proficient in conducting events and interpreting. The KPC sometimes receives scholarships, supplies and facility support from the private sector to help run the programme. Basically, it launched the YPSC programme in 2016 to celebrate its 10th anniversary. There are two main motivations for promoting the programme. Firstly, the KPC promoted the programme with the aim of creating an inclusive society for disabled sports by contributing to the spread of the Paralympic Movement. Secondly, the KPC sought to strengthen the status of Korea's disabled sports diplomacy through the YPSC programme. The government and the KPC have steadily secured executive positions in the International Sport Organisation for the Disabled, which strengthens Korea's status.

7. Analysis and Discussion

This chapter consists of analysis and implications to the results in this study. First, it integrates and analyses the empirical studies in each category. Next, it presents theoretical implications based on the results of this study. In the end of this chapter, based on the results, similarities, differences and implications for the SfD approach between Korea and other major countries are implicitly described.

7.1. Analysis of the Six Case Studies

7.1.1. Actors

From the perspective of the national preference formation theory and constructivism, the hypotheses of this study regarding the actors of the SfD programme in Korea are as follows. Firstly, state actors have played an important role in the formation and development of the SfD programme in Korea. Secondly, aside from state actors, non-state actors have likewise played a decisive role in the formation and development of Korea's SfD programme. As shown in Table 7.1, Korea's SfD programme was found to have been initiated and operated through the involvement and promotion of both state and non-state actors.

Firstly, in relation to state actors, all SfD programmes have been operated under the involvement, management or supervision of the central government. Basically, liberal intergovernmentalism, including national preference formation theory, is liberal in that it takes into account domestic political aspects and is based on realistic assumptions on the international stage, which emphasise the power and capabilities of each government. In this regard, Moravcsik and Schimmelfenig (2009) argued that the state is still a crucial and unitary actor in international politics. The state has been considered a major political tool in international politics (Moravcsik, 1998). Similarly, it has been shown that the Korean government has been playing a major role in leading the SfD approach on behalf of the state in the international community.

Table 7.1. Codes and Sub-Categories of the Actors in Each Programme

Programme	Sub-Category: State Actors	Sub-Category: Non-State Actors
	Code	Code
PyeongChang Dream Programme	Involvement of the MCST	Involvement of the PyeongChang Legacy Foundation
		Involvement of the KSPO
	Involvement of the MOFAT	Involvement of international organisations
	Involvement of the public office	Involvement of the International Sport Committee
		Involvement of Gangwon Province
		Involvement of Seoul City
DTM Programme	Involvement of the MCST	Cooperation with the domestic mega sporting organising committee
		Involvement of international organisations
		Involvement of the KSPO and KSOC
	Involvement of the government departments	Involvement of SNU
OCA–Incheon Vision 2014 Programme	Involvement of the MCST	Cooperation between Incheon and the OCA
		Involvement of Incheon City
		Involvement of the OCA until 2014
		Involvement of Incheon International Cooperation Foundation
		Involvement of Incheon Athletic Association
TPC Programme	Involvement of the WFK	Cooperation with international organisations
	Involvement of the MCST	Involvement of the GCS International
		Involvement of WT
		Involvement of TPC since 2009
		Involvement of domestic Taekwondo-related organisations
WFK–KOV Programme	Involvement of the WFK	Involvement of the IVCO
	Involvement of the KOICA	
	Involvement of the MOFAT	
KPC YPSC Programme	Involvement of the MCST	Involvement of sport organisations
		Involvement of the KPC
		Involvement of universities
		Involvement of international organisations

Such active involvement, management or supervision of the government can be attributed to SfD programmes' reliance on the central government for most of its finances. Most of the budget either from the government or from the KSPO's National Sports Promotion Fund, in which the government is directly involved, areallocated to the Dream, DTM, TPC, WFK–KOV and YPSC programmes. Except for the Vision 2014 programme funded by Incheon City and a private bank, the MOEF and the MCST have been comprehensively involved in the compilation, execution and management of each programme. Along with budget support, they are working together with other actors to formulate an annual or mid- to long-term implementation plan of the programme so that the policy of the government are reflected. The government naturally plays an important role in Korea's SfD approach through the role of financial support.

Moreover, Korea's international development cooperation has developed through the government-led ODA, and the SfD programme seems to be no exception. ODA means financial support or cooperation provided by government and other public institutions with the goal of helping developing countries' economic development and social welfare promotion (ODA Korea, 2017). Government-led ODA is used as a somewhat limited concept compared to International Development Cooperation, which is commonly used. As mentioned in Chapter 3, Korea steadily expanded its ODA scale with the joining of the OECD DAC and the implementation of the Framework Act on International Development Cooperation in 2010 (Son, Lee & Yeo, 2014). The MOFAT, KOICA, the MOEF, the EDCF and Bank of Korea are the major agencies in the government that directly execute and manage Korea's ODA. Recently, there have been more than 30 government departments that have carried out ODA programmes (ODA Korea, 2017). Similarly, the Dream, DTM, TPC and WFK–KOV programmes, all of which the government is deeply involved in, can be regarded as government-led ODA programmes. Thus, the ODA-oriented international development cooperation of the government has enabled the direct and indirect involvement of government ministries in Korea's SfD approach.

However, the results of this study showed that the role and involvement of government ministries vary slightly depending on each programme. In the case of

the Dream programme, the MCST was relatively deeply involved in its planning and direction. Although Gangwon Province leads the programme, the MCST seems to have been more active than other programmes in ensuring the successful hosting of the PyeongChang Olympics, a mega sporting event representing Korea. On the other hand, the MCST played a minimal role in planning and implementing the TPC programme. This seems to be because it should not be deeply involved in the work of private organisations. In general, the MCST seeks to provide financial support to private organisations but minimise intervention and ensure maximum organisational autonomy. The government also had little involvement in the Vision 2014 programme, which did not receive any financial support from the government. To sum up, Korea's SfD approach has been influenced by government-related financial support and the ODA system, receiving direct and indirect involvement from state actors. Additionally, government involvement has been somewhat different depending on the nature and main actors of the programmes.

In addition to state actors, various non-state actors have been found to be deeply involved in Korea's SfD programme, in line with the hypothesis of this study that both state and non-state actors play a crucial role in Korea's SfD programmes. Non-state actors have mainly been playing a practical role in the Korean SfD approach. Constructivists attach great significance to the role of non-state actors in leading the formation of various norms, ideas and values, such as democracy, human rights, environmental protection, humanitarian and gender equality, all of which emerged with the end of the Cold War in the early 1990s (Baylis, Smith & Owens, 2011).

Therefore, an international order had been formed around relations between sovereign states in the past, whereas the international community has recently seen non-state actors play an important role. In this regard, Finnemore (1993) noted that transnational actors have become the most influential entities in the policy ideas of the state. As the interdependence between actors of the international community increases, non-state actors exert as much influence as, even more than, the state in non-political and non-military matters. Similarly, various non-state actors contribute greatly to the spread of the SfD approach around the world, and this likewise study

306

confirmed that they exert decisive influence on the formation of the SfD policy idea and the operation of programmes in Korea.

The main non-state actors affecting Korea's SfD programme are sport-related organisations, such as the KSPO, the KPC and the TPC Foundation, local governments, university and the IVCO. Local governments can be regarded as both state and non-state actor depending on the classification criteria. In fact, according to Statistics Korea (2020), local governments along with the state, public enterprises, quasi-government agencies and other public institutions, could belong to the public sector because they are included in the institutional areas related to government activities. However, local governments are gradually moving away from the exclusive domain of the state or central government, independently promoting various international development cooperation activities to attract investment and promote trade (Arts, Nortmann & Reinalda, 2001). According to a study on the relationship between traditional and public diplomacy by Moon (2018), local governments are classified as non-state actors along with international organisations and private organisations.

Furthermore, globalisation and decentralisation have gradually obscured the distinction between the realm of nations, such as intranational, sub-national, local, and international sphere, including supranational, transnational and multinational (Papisca, 2008). Globalisation and decentralisation involve localisation, which increases the independent role and importance of local governments. In other words, local governments have become non-state actors important in expanding international solidarity and the base of civil society in the 21st century. In the same vein, Gangwon Province and Incheon City have been leading the SfD programmes to host mega sporting events and help young people from developing countries participate in sports activities.

The KSPO, KPC and TPC Foundation as sport organisations have been shown to operate the DTM programme, YPSC programme and TPC programme, respectively. In contrast to the TPC Foundation, which is a private organisation, the KSPO and KPC are a quasi-government agency and other public institution,

respectively, designated by the MOEF. The two organisations have the characteristics and system of public sectors, but along with the KSOC, they are classified as non-state actors because sport organisations should be guaranteed maximum autonomy and independence. SNU has been designated as an indirect operator of the KSPO, running the DTM programme to foster global sports administrators. Meanwhile, the IVCO has an important impact on the policy direction of the WFK–KOV programme by sharing common identities and interests via regular interactions with volunteer organisations representing each country. To sum up, Korea's SfD programmes have been developing through the practical operation of non-state actors and the involvement, management or supervision of state actors.

Considering the characteristic of the Korean SfD programmes' actors, most of them are domestic actors, which is a unique feature of Korea's SfD approach. In general, the SfD programme solves the various problems faced by diverse classes through cooperation with related organisations in the recipient country (Ha et al., 2015). For instance, Germany has been carrying out 'Exchange, Education and Conflict Management through SfD programme' with Jordan Football Association, Jordan Olympic Committee, Asian Football Development Project, Right to Play and University of Jordan in Jordan (GIZ, 2020). In the Netherlands, the SfD 2016–2020 programme has been carried out in cooperation with the MFA, the ISA, Right to Play and the KNVB (Sportfordevelopment.NL, 2020). Except for the WFK–KOV programme and the TPC programme, however, Korea's SfD programmes are held in Korea in a short period of time with only limited countries and their participants. For instance, Gangwon Province signed an MOU with the UNOSDP for the Dream programme, but this did not actually lead to any tangible results. Moreover, Incheon operated the Vision 2014 programme jointly with the OCA, but in reality, they shared their roles to carry out detailed projects independently. For this reason, the roles of recipient countries and international non-state actors in Korea's SfD programmes do not appear to be very prominent.

In addition, except for the KPC, sport organisations, such as the KSPO, and professional sports clubs have been found to have little influence as major actors in Korea's SfD approach. The KSPO is involved as an assistant operator of the DTM

programme, but its original role is mainly to provide financial support to elite sports, SFA, school sports and international sports exchanges through the National Sports Promotion Fund. Put differently, the practical role and power of the KSPO within the programme are bound to be limited. The KSOC is an organisation representing Korean sports, including elite sports and SFA. It has been working together for the success of the DTM and Dream programmes but has failed to play a leading role in Korea's SfD approach. In Norway, the NIF is working with the NORAD to carry out the SfD programme. In Australia, the ASC is deeply involved in the SfD programmes and offers specific strategies and visions for an effective SfD approach. On the other hand, most of Korea's SfD programmes are developing with the MCST exercising strong influence based on financial support. Therefore, the role of sport organisations, including the KSPO and KSOC, is likely to be relatively limited.

In the same vein, Korea has numerous professional sports leagues, including baseball and football, but no league or team has been found to be involved in Korea's SfD programme. In the case of the Netherlands, the KNVB is working with the MFA, ISA and Right to Play on SfD programmes in Africa, South America and the Middle East, and the DFB is working on SfD projects with the GIZ, the UN and Right Play. This difference can mainly be inferred from the fact that the main activities of Korea's SfD programmes do not match the major professional sports in Korea. With the exception of the DTM programme for cultivating sports administrators and the WFK–KOV programme for physical education, the four SfD programmes are carried out with relatively unpopular sports in Korea. This situation appears to have created an environment unsuitable for Korea's SfD approach, even though professional sports leagues or clubs have sufficient resources and capabilities. They also seem to have found no grounds for involvement in the relatively less-known SfD programme in Korea because they are already carrying out various events for CSR and PR at home and abroad.

7.1.2. Development Process

The hypotheses of this study regarding the development process of the Korean SfD programmes are as follows. Firstly, Korea's SfD programmes have been formed and

developed by interactions between state actors and societal actors. Secondly, Korea's SfD programmes have been formed and developed through non-material factors or agendas related to the SfD approach made in the international community. As shown in Table 7.2, the SfD programmes in Korea were commonly found to have been initiated and developed by internal interactions and external non-material factors and agendas.

Table 7.2. Codes and Sub-Categories of the Development Process in Each Programme

Programme	Sub-Category: Process	Code: Important activities
PyeongChang Dream Programme	Interaction between state actors and societal actors	Effort of the Winter Olympic Bid Committee
		Cooperation with the KPC
		President's critical support
		Cooperation with the MOFAT
	Non-material factors or agenda created in the international community	Compliance with the MDGs and SDGs
		Spread of world peace
		Compliments and expectation of international sports and media
	Interaction between non-state actors	Support of the Governor of Gangwon Province
		Effort of Gangwon Province
		Cooperation with Gangwon Athletic Association
		Operation of programme of the International Sports Committee
		Transfer of the programme to the PyeongChang Legacy Foundation
		Development through PyeongChang Forum
DTM Programme	Interaction between state actors and societal actors	Cooperation between the MCST and civil society
		Cooperation between the MCST and SNU
		Plan to further interact with civil society in the future
	Non-material factors or agenda created in the international community	Compliance with the MDGs and SDGs
		Development of the programme through international forum
	Interaction between state actors	Development through relevant policies and laws
		Government's indifference to SfD at first
		Active promotion of sport ODA after two consecutive failed Olympic bids
OCA–Incheon Vision 2014 Programme	Non-material factors or agenda created in the international community	Expectation of the OCA

	Interaction between non-state actors	Discussion between top policy-making officials in Incheon
		Consultation with the Incheon Athletic Association
		Public–private partnership
		Media cooperation
		Incheon's continuation efforts after the Asian Games
		Proposal for joint operation
		Establishing a Task Force and signing an MOU
		Joint operation
		Consultation with NOCs in Asian countries
TPC Programme	Interaction between state actors and societal actors	Consultation between the MCST and TPC Foundation
		Media cooperation
	Non-material factors or agenda created in the international community	Compliance with the MDGs and SDGs
		Cooperation between the WT and GCS International
		Launch of the TPC programme in the WT
		Establishment of the TPC Foundation of the WT
		Activation of international development cooperation by joining the OECD DAC
		Internationally spreading the TPC programme of the WT
	Interaction between state actors	Development through relevant policies and laws
		Extension of programme support by changing the department in charge
		Joining the WFK
	Interaction between non-state actors	Cooperation between TPC Foundation, Taekwondo-related organisations and Korea-related organisations overseas
		Collection of opinions of civil society
WFK–KOV Programme	Interaction between state actors and societal actors	Hosting forums and conferences
		Cooperation with civil society
		Media cooperation
	Non-material factors or agenda created in the international community	Compliance with the MDGs and SDGs since the 2000s
		Cooperation with the IVCO since 2005
		Expectations and demands of the international community in the beginning of Korea's international development cooperation
		International development cooperation as an international issue

		Activation of international development cooperation by joining the OECD DAC and hosting international conferences
	Interaction between state actors	Development through relevant policies and laws
		Establishment of the KOICA through consultation between government departments
		Coordination of the International Development Cooperation Committee
KPC YPSC Programme	Interaction between state actors and societal actors	Consultation between the MCST and the KPC
		Establishing Icheon Training Centre
		Media cooperation
	Non-material factors or agenda created in the international community	Compliance with the MDGs and SDGs
		Expectations and demands of the international community and other countries
		Cooperation with international organisations
	Interaction between state actors	Development through relevant policies and laws
		Government's indifference to disabled sports until the end of the 2000s

First, except for the Vision 2014 programme, five SfD programmes were found to have been initiated and developed by the interaction between state actors and societal actors. In this regard, Kim (2016) argued that national preference mean the preferences of the government which are decisive factors affecting state behaviour in the international stage. These national preferences are formed by the interaction between the state and society through domestic politics (Moravcsik, 1998). However, aside from the interaction between state and non-state actors, the cooperation among state actors and interaction among non-state actors have also wielded had an important impact on the promotion and development of Korea's SfD approach. Therefore, the result of the development process is partly consistent with Hypothesis 2-1.

Specifically, in the Dream programme, the 2010 Winter Olympics Bid Committee included figures from the government, the IOC, the KOSC, academia and media at the pan-government level. After an internal consultation between state actors and societal actors, the Committee first proposed the Dream programme to the

IOC. Since the start of the Dream programme in 2004, Gangwon Province, the International Sports Committee and the MCST have developed the representative SfD programme of Korea through close interaction. In the DTM programme, the MCST established Sports Vision 2018 as a reflection of the opinions of societal actors, including plans for the DTM programme. In particular, a prominent professor at SNU suggested a programme to train global sports administrators to the MCST, which also affected the launch of the DTM programme. Even after the DTM programme was launched, the MCST has been closely interacting with SNU and the KSPO to improve the quality of the programme.

For the TPC programme, the TPC Foundation has been consulting with the MCST on the direction and detailed plan of the programme. The WFK–KOV programme has been mainly run by state actors, such as the MOFAT and the KOICA, but every quarter they collect various opinions from societal actors through their own forums and conferences. On the other hand, as the Vision 2014 programme was created under the initiative of Incheon City and the OCA without the government's cooperation, there was no specific interaction between state actors and societal actors. With the exception of the Vision 2014 programme, each programme's interaction between state actors and societal actors has affected the initiation and development of the programmes. The main interaction could be identified mainly between departments in charge and the actors who actually run the programme.

Rather, in the DTM, TPC, WFK–KOV and YPSC programmes, interaction among state actors was shown to have had a great impact on the initiation and development of each programme. For instance, consultations between the MCST, the International Development Cooperation Committee and the MOEF, which aimed at cultural diversity through international exchanges, have had a decisive impact on the start of the DTM programme. The WFK–KOV programme was initiated through coordination and consultation among related ministries, and the interaction between the International Development Cooperation Committee, the MOFAT and the KOICA is now considered important for the development of the programme.

On the other hand, compared to other programmes, the Dream programme and the Vision 2014 programme showed that the close interaction between non-state actors has had a significant impact on the development of the programmes. In the case of the Dream programme, apart from interacting with the MCST, Gangwon Province has actually operated the programme through cooperation with the International Sports Committee, Gangwon Athletic Association, the KPC, Seoul City and the NOC of each country. Likewise, in the Vision 2014 programme, Incheon City has promoted the development of the programme in cooperation with the Incheon Athletic Association, the NOC of Asian countries, volunteer groups and the media.

In this regard, Moravcsik (1993) noted that government policy may vary in response to changes in the pressures of societal actors. He argued that when social pressure is ambiguous, the government obtains discretion in policy. In other words, when the relative influence and strength of the policy proposals of societal actors is weak, the government can be seen as strengthening independent authority and functions on certain policies. Thus, the active interaction between state actors is assumed to be the result of their relatively high involvement in the programme compared to societal actors as well as their support of the programme through relevant policies and laws. Indeed, as mentioned earlier, the MCST was deeply involved in the programme by announcing a government-level mid- and long-term plan for cultivating sports administrators in developing countries, promoting Taekwondo and developing sports for the disabled.

Conversely, the Dream programme and Vision 2014 programme were initiated and developed by the local government, not by the central government. This means that the influence and involvement of the central government would inevitably be relatively low compared to those of other programmes. The two programmes have been practically run by the two cities and various domestic and foreign non-state actors. As a result, this study confirmed that the launch and development of the Korean SfD approach have been influenced not only by the interaction between state and societal actors as claimed by national preference formation theory but also by the interaction among state or non-state actors.

Secondly, all SfD programmes have begun and developed under direct or indirect influence on non-material factors or agendas formed in the international community. The results support Hypothesis 2-2 of this study, which state that Korea's SfD programme has been formed and developed through non-material factors or agendas related to the SfD approach embedded in the international society. In general, constructivism provides significant implications for international development cooperation. It emphasises the importance of non-material factors, such as norms, values and notions, rather than the material forces of actors, and argues that the identity and benefits that form in mutual interactions can define relationships between states (Wendt, 1999). At this time, the identity and interests of the actors of the state are shaped by non-material factors, which in turn can determine the state behaviours (Katzenstein, 1996).

Similarly, Finnemore (1996) argued that state behaviours are defined by international forces by norms embedded in the international community. That is to say, non-material factors can naturally lead to international development cooperation by strengthening the common identity and interests between a recipient country and a donor country. This study found that international norms, expectations, demands and agendas related to SfD approach have been formed as a common interest among actors, playing an important role in the beginning and development process of SfD programmes in Korea.

Gangwon Province first proposed the Dream programme at the 2003 IOC General Assembly as part of its strategy to host the Winter Olympics, drawing great international expectations and support for its value. The joint identity and interests of the IOC and Gangwon Province to spread of the Olympic Movement likewise provided an opportunity for the Dream programme to continue without interruption, even though Gangwon Province failed to host the Olympics twice in a row. Since then, the Dream programme has been striving to spread the MDGs and SDGs and share values in the Olympic Movement. Moreover, President Park's administration in 2013 promoted international development cooperation in each field with the aim of achieving the MDGs, and the DTM programme was one of them. Currently, the

DTM programme uses the SDGs an evaluation indicator of the programme and strives to systematically practice international norms.

The Vision 2014 programme was promoted on the basis of the joint interests between the OCA's balanced development of Asian sports and Incheon City's bid to host the Asian Games. Meanwhile, when the TPC programme was first launched by the WT, the latter tried to spread the value of the programme through international academic conferences and international sports forums. Later, the TPC Foundation was established separately for professional operation, and the Korean government recognised the importance of co-prosperity and world peace as well as the practice of the MDGs and SDGs. These include the KOV programme in the WFK–KOV programme, an integrated brand of the government's official overseas service.

Along with Korea's rapid economic growth in the 1980s, the WFK–KOV programme began in 1991 amid international expectations and demands for international cooperation in poverty, health, women and the environment. In the 2000s, the interaction between actors through joining the OECD DAC in 2010 and hosting the Busan World Development Assistance Conference in 2011, as well as the MDGs and the SDGs, helped international norms and agendas become embedded in the WFK–KOV programme. In addition, the KOICA shares the common identity and interests related to international development cooperation through exchanges with various actors at the IVCO Forum, reflecting them in the planning and direction of the WFK–KOV programme. Finally, the YPSC programme was internally planned to commemorate the 10th anniversary of the opening of the KPC, but the influence of the international community and organisations also affected the beginning of the programme. As the number of Korean executives entering the international sport organisations for the disabled increased in the 2000s, there was a growing demand for Korea's SfD practice for the development of sports for the disabled in the international community. The KPC shared the common value of spreading the Paralympic Movement and developing disabled sports in close interaction with international organisations, which affected the details of the YPSC programme.

Therefore, Korea's SfD programme has been initiated and developed under the influence of international norms and agendas related to international development cooperation. In particular, the MDGs and SDGs of the UN, which began in 2000, have had an important impact on setting the goals and directions of Korea's SfD programme. In this regard, Finnemore and Sikkink (1998) argued that broad and vague norms are difficult for actors to practice. Indeed, discussions on global poverty eradication before the MDGs have only been conducted at a broad and macro level of discourse. However, the MDGs provide specific goals and detailed indicators for poverty reduction, which is considered an efficient means for each actor to implement (Higgins, 2013). Similarly, the Korean SfD programmes, which began in earnest after the 2000s, seem to have made the MDGs and SDGs a major policy direction and goal from which concrete and tangible results can be expected.

Expectations, demands and support from the international community and organisations also provide justification for the development process of Korea's SfD programmes. Sharing non-material factors embedded in the international community brings the need for international development cooperation. Bjorkdahl (2002) argued that norms serve to provide the purpose of behaviours by motivating them. International norms serve as justification and an example of how a certain task should be accomplished (Kratochwil, 1989). In the current study, the international community and organisations have actively tried to influence Korean actors to have awareness and interest in SfD-related issues.

For instance, in the case of the Dream and Vision 2014 programmes, Gangwon Province and Incheon City continue to carry out the programme according to the expectations and support of the IOC and the OCA, respectively, in order to expand their participation in sports in developing countries. The expectations and demands for international development cooperation and development sports for the disabled within the international community and organisations have had an important impact on the development process of the WFK–KOV and YPSC programmes.

Thus, Korean actors used the expectations, demands and support of the international community and organisations as a means of securing political justification and legitimacy in the process of developing the SfD programmes. In conclusion, international norms, expectations, demands and support have provided justification and driving force for the start and development of programmes amid the interaction between various actors.

7.1.3. Role of Government

The hypotheses of this study on the role of government in consideration of the national preference formation theory and constructivism are as follows. Firstly, the Korean government has reflected the preferences of various societal actors in the Korean SfD programmes. Secondly, the Korean government has reflected the non-material factors or agendas on SfD approach embedded in the international society in the Korean SfD programmes. As shown in Table 7.3, except for the Vision 2014 programme, the Korean government has collected and reflected the opinions of societal actors in the DTM, TPC, WFK-KOV and KPC YPSC programmes and, furthermore, serves as a comprehensive management and supervision of the programmes.

Moravcsik (1998) argued that government policies can change in response to pressures from various domestic societal actors through the domestic political system. Frieden (1991) stated that the government is empowered and constrained by important societal groups in a certain policy. In other words, the preferences and pressures of domestic societal actors can directly affect the government's behaviour regarding certain polities. Furthermore, Moravcsik (1993) noted that the relationship between society and government is a principal–agent relationship. This means that the government exercises its authority on behalf of societal actors to achieve a specific or general purpose. Hadvabova (2006) likewise argued that government function is enhanced when the power of social groups and their policies are relatively weak.

Table 7.3. Codes and Sub-Categories of the Role of Government in Each Programme

Programme	Sub-Category	Code
PyeongChang Dream Programme	Reflecting the preferences of societal actors	Collecting and reflecting the opinions of Gangwon Province
	Reflecting non-material factors or agenda in the international community	Following and reflecting international norms
	Comprehensive management and supervision	Management and supervision
		Providing practical assistance
		Proposing the direction of development
DTM Programme	Reflecting the preferences of societal actors	Collection and reflecting opinions of SNU
		Collection and reflecting opinions of civil society groups
	Reflecting non-material factors or agenda in the international community	Following and reflecting international agenda
		Following and reflecting international norms
	Comprehensive management and supervision	Management and supervision
		Providing practical assistance
		Proposing the direction of development through announcing relevant policies
OCA–Incheon Vision 2014 Programme	Uncooperative attitude before hosting the Asian Games	Indifference in the early days
		Being passive to the Vision 2014 programme
	Indirect management and supervision after hosting the Asian Games	Public–private partnerships
		Pan-governmental support
TPC Programme	Reflecting the preferences of societal actors	Collection and incorporation opinions of the TPC Foundation
	Reflecting non-material factors or agenda in the international community	Systematic international development cooperation
	Comprehensive management and supervision	Management and supervision
		Coordinating Taekwondo-related projects
		Proposing the direction of development
WFK–KOV Programme	Reflecting the preferences of societal actors	Cooperation with civil society since the 2000s
		Strengthening public–private cooperation
	Reflecting non-material factors or agenda in the international community	Reflecting the MDGs and SDGs
		Reflecting international demands
		Cooperation with international organisations
	Comprehensive management and supervision	Management and supervision
		Proposing the direction of development through announcing relevant policies
KPC YPSC Programme	Reflecting the preferences of societal actors	Collecting and reflecting opinions of the KPC
		Compliance with international norms

Reflecting non-material factors or agenda in the international community	Creation of a favourable atmosphere for accepting international norms
	Cooperation with international organisations
Comprehensive management and supervision	Guarantee of the KPC's autonomy
	Proposing the direction of development through announcing relevant policies

As mentioned earlier, the government is deeply involved in the SfD programmes, whereas the involvement and influence of societal actors other than the main actors are relatively insignificant. This situation means that the limited role and involvement of societal actors in Korea's SfD approach has led to the strengthening of the government's authority. The Korean government has been reflecting the opinions of societal actors in its policies and acting as the final administrator and architect of the programme. Therefore, the result of this study shows that the role of government was wider than that suggested in Hypothesis 3-1.

Specifically, the MCST has collected and reflected the opinions of Gangwon Province and the International Sports Committee in the Dream programme. The MCST has reviewed not only the appropriateness of the implementation plan but also actively promoted the advice and development directions for improving the quality of the programme. In the DTM programme, the MCST has mainly reflected the opinions of SNU, especially in Sports Vision 2018. Next, through close consultation with the TPC Foundation, the MCST established a four-step of the development roadmap of the TPC programme. The MCST is responsible for determining whether the plan of the TPC Foundation conforms to the government's ODA policy direction and for coordinating the redundancy of international cooperation projects of various domestic Taekwondo activities.

Meanwhile, the WFK–KOV programme is managed and supervised by the MOFAT, unlike other programmes related to the MCST. The International Development Cooperation Committee created a system in which private experts participate in the decision-making process to fully reflect the opinions of societal actors. Lastly, through consultation with the KPC, the MCST is trying to gather

opinions on the development of sports for the disabled, including the YPSC programme, and reflect them in its policies. In addition, the MCST announced mid- to long-term plans for the development of sports for the disabled three times in order to establish the direction of international development cooperation for the KPC.

On the contrary, the Korean government was not involved in the Vision 2014 programme at all and was even passive in supporting Incheon City to host the 2014 Asian Games. After Incheon's successful bid, the government established the Asian Games Organising Committee at the government level, but unlike its support for the Dream programme, it was not involved in any Vision 2014 programme. This may be attributed to Korea's hosting already 2002 Busan Asian Games just five years prior and the government's all of its efforts into hosting the Winter Olympics. Cooperation between two political parties was also not easy because the administration and Incheon City were dominated by different political forces at that time.

With the exception of the Vision 2014 programme, the government reflects the opinions of societal actors through its interaction with them. Most interactions can be seen as being primarily between the government and a small number of key actors within each programme. In this regard, Kim (2016) noted that government preferences are formed by the preferences of societal actors, leading to state preferences. In light of this, the Korean government collects preferences from major societal actors and reflects these in state behaviour. In particular, since the government is directly involved in the budget of the programme through the KSPO, it is naturally associated with the feasibility and direction of the programme.

The Dream, DTM, TPC and YPSC programmes use the KSPO's National Sports Promotion Fund while the WFK–KOV programme is executed with the government's budget. Although it is the KSPO's fund, it is stated that the programme's plan in which the fund is used must be approved and supervised by the Minister of the MCST (Ministry of Government Legislation, 2020a). In addition, when it is intended to change the plan and budget of the programme, it shall obtain approval from the Minister, and after the completion of the programme, a report on the performance shall be submitted and approved to the Minister (Ministry of

Government Legislation, 2020a). Thus, the involvement of the government in the financial sector would lead to the management and supervision of programmes.

Such a broad role of government contributes to enhancing the consistency and effectiveness of each SfD programme. Traditionally, Korea regarded sports as a symbol of national development and unity, leading the development of elite sports and SFA under the initiative of the government in the 1970s and 1980s. However, after a serious economic crisis in 1998, President Kim's administration pushed for decentralisation and private initiative in the sports sector to ensure efficient policy implementation (MCST, 2013). Even, the government emphasised strengthening the autonomy of sport organisations by decentralisation. Nevertheless, each government presents a macro policy direction with a five-year plan on sports at the beginning of its inauguration.

The government provided guidelines for each SfD programme through mid- to long-term policies related to international development cooperation through sports, Taekwondo and promotion of sports for people with a disability. For instance, President Roh's administration (2003–2007) stressed the need for systematic international sports exchanges and sports diplomacy for the first time. President Lee's administration (2008–2012) highlighted the globalisation of Taekwondo, hosting of mega sport events and enhancement of international sports exchanges. At that time, the TPC programme and the WFK–KOV programme were included in the government-led WFK Volunteer Corps, and the Dream programme began to be given financial support by the KSPO. Next, President Park's administration (2013–2017) focused on expanding sport ODA programmes, such as the DTM programme. This role of government serves as a guide to the basic direction of each programme and contributes to their stable implementation. In sum, it seems that the Korean government has been playing a much broader and more important role in the SfD approach than the role of government mentioned in national preference formation theory.

Secondly, with the exception of the Vision 2014 programme, it has been shown that the Korean government has been affected by non-material factors or

agendas, such as international norms, expectations or demands of the international community, reflecting these in each SfD programme. In this regard, Klotz (1995) referred to the decision maker of the state and government officials as political agents affected by international norms. In particular, the government can be directly affected by the non-material factors or agendas of the international community. An international community or international organisations may have a decisive impact on national policy by forcing international norms to be adopted in the policies of each country (Finnemore, 1993). The government may react bluntly or shrewdly to these non-material factors or agendas depending on various domestic situations and IR. The Korean government officially aims to achieve the MDGs and SDGs declared by the UN as the ultimate goal of international development cooperation (ODA Korea, 2020b).

Recently, the government has expanded and developed development cooperation to contribute to world peace and prosperity through the achievement of global development-related tasks, such as the SDGs (ODA Korea, 2020b). Similarly, the MCST and the MOFAT were found to be making an effort to actively embrace non-material factors or agenda items of the international community related to the SfD approach. Therefore, Hypothesis 3-2 related to the role of government seems to correspond with the findings in this study.

With regard to the specific role of the government, in the case of the Dream programme, the MCST has been working to ensure that international norms, such as the MDGs and SDGs, are reflected in step with the keynote and direction of the government. In the DTM programme, the MCST has been developing the programme in consideration of the human resources development selected by the G20 and the education sector within the SDGs. In the TPC programme, the MCST has been working with the TPC Foundation for responsible behaviour as a donor country for international development cooperation since joining the OECD DAC in 2010.

In the case of the WFK–KOV programme, the government established the KOICA in 1991 to meet the demands and expectations of the international

community for international development cooperation, and now the achievement of the SDGs is set as the main goal of the programme pursued by the government. In the YPSC programme, the government has been favourably supporting the implementation of the programmes related to disabled sports since joining the CRPD of the UN in 2009. In other words, the MCST and the MOFAT are actively supporting non-material factors or agenda to be substantially internalised through interactions with major actors in each programme and thus reflect the keynote and commitment of the central government to international development cooperation.

Such stance by the government can be seen not only in the sports sector but also in Korea's roadmap for international development cooperation. The government has set the Framework Act on International Development Cooperation as the basic spirit and goal of the ODA policy (ODA Korea, 2017). The Framework Act seeks international peace and prosperity by reducing poverty in developing countries; improving human rights and gender equality in women, children and the disabled; realising sustainable development and humanitarianism; and promoting economic cooperation with partner countries (ODA Korea, 2017). Based on this, the Korean government is aiming to achieve the global joint goal of implementing the 2030 sustainable agenda (SDGs) as its ultimate goal. Thus, the government is pursuing development cooperation to effectively achieve international norms, such as the SDGs within the framework of the basic spirit and goals of the Korean ODA (ODA Korea, 2017).

Consequently, the internalisation of international norms related to the Korean SfD approach seems to take place amid active support and advocacy from the government. However, there are several factors that facilitate the domestic introduction of non-material factors or agenda by the international community. Firstly, Risse-Kappen (1995) emphasised the importance of policy networks linking state and society in internalising international norms. Specifically, intermediate organisations, such as the National Policy Advisory Group, Committee and Think Tank, which can connect countries with societies, are considered an important factor in internalising international norms because they serve to converge and reflect social needs (Risse-Kappen, 1995).

In Korea, the International Development Cooperation Committee is a policy body that reviews and coordinates major policies on international development cooperation (ODA Korea, 2020b). The Committee collects opinions from various stakeholders and contributes to the efficient establishment and implementation of national plans that conform to international norms. It likewise serves to create common norms for the procedures of cooperation among governments and ensure consistent harmonisation of international development cooperation policies of various departments. Thus, the Committee exerts leadership and influence to quickly internalise non-material factors or agendas.

In addition, Keohane (1989) argued that countries that support international norms and are active in the activities of international organisations for specific implementation take a convergent attitude towards international norms or agendas. Since joining the DAC in 2010, the Korean government has been actively participating in the sustainable development of the international community, especially the implementation of the MDGs and SDGs by the UN. As the chair country of the UN's Economic and Social Council and Human Rights Council, Korea has the responsibility of implementing the SDGs more exemplary than any other country in line with the universal values and principles of the international community, including human rights, gender equality and peace (Lee, 2017). In other words, the active attitude of the Korean government towards international efforts and the creation and compliance of norms can be seen as one of the important factors that has facilitated the internalisation of non-material factors or agendas.

Furthermore, Son and Moon (2012) argued that countries with a government form of a cabinet responsibility system, in which the legislature and the administration form a close relationship, are more likely to internalise international norms. In fact, Korea is a country in which the president has very strong authority where every important policy faces extreme conflicts and confrontations between camps. However, there are no differences between the ruling and opposition parties in the field of international development cooperation, and so the government has secured a high level of policy consistency even if the administration changes. This may be because the Korean government views international development

cooperation from the perspective of humanitarianism and national interest, not as a means of political strife.

Korea was also the beneficiary of poverty eradication and economic development through massive international aid. According to the National Recognition Survey on the ODA in 2016, more than 80% of the respondents in Korea were in favour of the government's provision of foreign aid (World Research, 2016). The Korean people usually mentioned the experience of receiving foreign aid benefits in the past as well as contributing to poverty and disease eradication in developing countries and enhancing national image and status (Kwon, Park & Lee, 2011). In other words, international development cooperation can be assessed as having mature social consensus in the minds of politicians and the people. Thus, the favourable environment for international development cooperation could have facilitated the internalisation of non-material factors or agendas related to the SfD approach, enhancing the consistency of the government's policies.

7.1.4. Support

The hypotheses related to the support of Korea's SfD programme in consideration of the national preference formation theory and constructivism are as follows.

Table 7.4. Codes and Sub-Categories of the Support in Each Programme

Programme	Sub-Category: Support by State Actors	Sub-Category: Support by Non-State Actors
	Code	Code
PyeongChang Dream Programme		Financial support by companies
		Financial support by Seoul City
		Financial support by the KSPO
		Human support by the Athletic Association
		Human support by Gangwon Province
		Material support by companies
		Sponsorship of international organisations
DTM Programme		Human support by SNU
		Material support by SNU
		Financial support by the KSPO

		Sponsorship of international organisations
OCA–Incheon Vision 2014 Programme		Financial support by Incheon City
		Financial support by companies
		Material support by Incheon City
		Human support by Incheon and Incheon Athletic Association
		Human support via the cooperation of Incheon and the OCA
		Human support by NOCs
TPC Programme		Financial support by the KSPO
		Human support by the TPC Foundation
		Financial support by companies
		Support by local cities
WFK–KOV Programme	Financial support by the MOEF	
	Material support by the KOICA	
	Human support by the KOICA	
KPC YPSC Programme		Material support by universities
		Material support by the KPC
		Human support by the KPC
		Financial support by the KSPO

Firstly, Korea's SfD programmes have been carried out with the support of state actors. Secondly, Korea's SfD programmes have been carried out with the support of both non-state actors and state actors. As shown in Table 7.4, Korea's SfD programmes, excluding the WFK–KOV programme, have been mainly conducted with the financial, physical or human support of non-state actors.

Since the 1990s, studies have been active in discussing the influence of transnational actors in policy development at the national level (Jacoby, 2008). Cooper and Frechette (2008) mentioned not only the state but also the sub-national actors, international organisations, civil society and multinational corporations as the main actors of the new diplomacy. Beland and Orenstein (2009) argued that transnational actors provide technical and financial support and policy advice. In particular, transnational actors also provide ideational and material resources, such as personnel, funding, policy models or research reports that may help the activities of domestic partners (Beland & Orenstein, 2009). This means that non-state actors, such as local governments, civil society, international organisations and multinational corporations, as well as state actors, are influencing policies on specific

issues and state behaviours through financial, physical or human support in the face of changes in the international environment of globalisation. Similarly, this study confirmed that non-state actors contribute to Korea's SfD programmes based on their expertise and resources.

The Dream, DTM, TPC and KPC programmes receive about 50%–100% of financial support through the KSPO's National Sports Promotion Fund. The KSPO provided financial support of 700,000 dollars to the Dream programme in 2017, 2.4 million dollars for the DTM programme in 2019, 2 million dollars for the TPC programme in 2019 and 180,000 dollars for the YPSC programme in 2018 (MCST, 2018). As mentioned earlier in the part of Actors, the KSPO is a fund-managed quasi-government agency that manages funds under the Act of National Finance. The KSPO's Fund refers to specific funds raised separately from the government's budget to raise stable financing for sports projects. However, the KSPO should consult with the MCST in advance when it organises funds to support sports projects, such as SfD programmes. In other words, the KSPO is in charge of fund management and allocation, but the government can be greatly involved in the utilisation of funds by exercising its authority over policies and presenting direction.

In fact, since joining the OECD DAC in 2010, the Korean government has continued to increase its ODA scale to enhance policy consistency and aid effectiveness (ODA Korea, 2020b). Korea saw its ODA size increase more than 10-fold from 2.1 billion dollars in 2000 to 23.5 billion dollars in 2018, and its government budget for ODA increased about 2.5 times compared to 2010 (ODA Korea, 2020a). Similarly, various programmes related to international development cooperation by the MCST and other ministries of government are stably supported. The KPC's interviewee stated that the budget for the YPSC programme is steadily increasing year by year, and few countries in the world might provide such stable financial support. That is, financial support in Korea's SfD approach is provided by the KSPO, but the consistent and favourable policy stance and support of the state actors should not be overlooked.

The intensive financial support of the KSPO for the SfD programmes seems quite different from Korea's elite sports approach. In the past, it is no exaggeration to say that the elite sports in Korea were developed by corporate involvement under pressure from the central government. Korea recognised sports as the basis for national development and sought to foster elite sports with the support of the government and business organisations. Since the 1980s, unpopular elite sports have often been directly or indirectly run or supported by business organisations. With companies deeply involved in each sports association, which lacked sufficient financial support from the government or was unable to be financially independent, companies naturally drove the development of elite sports in Korea. For example, Samsung and Hyundai have given full support to track and field, wrestling, ice and archery. In particular, Hyundai has contributed greatly to Korean archery's maintaining the strongest position in the world through financial support of about 40 million dollars over the last 30 years.

However, Korea's SfD approach basically stems from the willingness of the government to become a true sports powerhouse through international development cooperation in the wake of the MDGs in the UN in 2000 and by joining the OECD DAC in 2010 (Ha et al., 2015). On the other hand, as in the past, the practice of explicitly forcing companies financial support has disappeared, and so the role of businesses where the government is taking the initiative can be seen as relatively free. In addition, thanks to the stability of the KSPO or the government's budget, it seems that main actors did not feel the need to attract support from outside. Given that most SfD programmes are carried out domestically in a short period of time, companies would not have felt the need to actively engage with and support them. Therefore, Korea's international development cooperation through sports is assumed to have developed in the 2000s in the form of government-led sports ODA, and so it has been financially supported by the fund of the KSPO involving the government.

Meanwhile, Korea's SfD programmes have received little support from international non-state actors. This result seems to be contrary to those of previous studies (Beland & Orenstein, 2009) which showed that international organisations and transnational actors provide the states technical and financial support. Jacoby

(2008) argued that transnational actors support domestic issue minorities who share specific policies to help them form a majority of public opinion. However, the result of this study means that the main actors in Korea's SfD programmes do not have enough systematic interaction with international organisations. Typically, the Vision 2014 programme was carried out jointly by Incheon City and the OCA, but they carried out detailed projects separately and Incheon City paid 100% of the. SNU is inviting world-renowned lecturers for the DTM programme, but this is being done by its own personal network of professors within the university. Likewise, the financial, physical and human support of international non-state actors has not been noticeable in other programmes. Thus, the limited role and influence of international non-state actors in Korea's SfD approach have had little impact on the support for operating the programme.

Lastly, the Vision 2014 programme has been entirely operated by non-state actors without the KSPO or the government's financial support. The financial, material and human support of the Vision 2014 programme is provided by Incheon City, Shinhan Bank, Incheon Athletic Association, and civil society. While the Dream programme and the DTM programme receive stable finance support from the KSPO even after the end of the 2018 Olympics, the Vision 2014 programme is being scaled down because it is financially poor after the Asian Games. This means that the KSPO or the government's financial support has a significant impact on the stable development of Korea's SfD programmes. In conclusion, except for the WFK–KOV programme, Korea's SfD programmes are mainly operated by financial, material and human support of domestic non-state actors. However, it should be remembered that the strong will and direction of the government for international development cooperation have played a big part in the state development of each programme. Also, the KSPO's financial support is considered entirely to be the government's budget. Therefore, Hypothesis 4-2, which emphasised the role and expertise of both non-state and state actors, was supported.

7.1.5. Motive

The hypotheses of this study regarding the motive of Korea's SfD programme based on national preference formation theory and constructivism are as follows. Firstly, Korea's SfD programmes have been promoted to pursue national interests. Secondly, Korea's SfD programmes have been promoted to practice humanitarianism. Indeed, as shown in Table 7.5, the SfD programme in Korea was mainly designed from the perspectives of national interests and humanitarianism, indicating that it conforms respectively to Hypotheses 5-1 and 5-2 of this study. However, the TPC programme was found to have been launched not only for national interests and humanitarian perspectives but also for the development of Taekwondo itself.

Table 7.5. Codes and Sub-Categories of the Motive in Each Programme

Programme	Sub-Category: National Interests	Sub-Category: Humanitarianism	Sub-Category: Taekwondo Development
	Code	**Code**	**Code**
PyeongChang Dream Programme	Hosting the Olympic Games	Practicing Olympic legacy and movement	
	Strengthening sports diplomacy	Providing international human exchanges and friendship	
		Providing experiences and chances for developing countries	
		Feeling responsible for international development cooperation as a donor country	
DTM Programme	Hosting the Olympic Games	Practicing the MDGs and SDGs	
	Establishing global network for sports diplomacy	Contributing to the development of developing countries through sports	
		Feeling responsible for international development cooperation as a donor country	
	Hosting the Asian Games	Balanced sport development in Asian countries	

OCA–Incheon Vision 2014 Programme	Urban development (Incheon City)	Humanitarian cooperation through sport	
TPC Programme	Strengthening sports diplomacy	Contributing to the peace and prosperity of mankind	Promoting Taekwondo
			Expanding the base of Taekwondo
WFK–KOV Programme	Maximising national interests	Construction of a well-off human society, people-centred peace and prosperity	
	Social and economic development	Feeling responsible for international development cooperation as a donor country	
	Geopolitical interests		
KPC YPSC Programme	Strengthening sports diplomacy	Spreading the Paralympic Movement	
		Feeling responsible for international development cooperation as a donor country	

Firstly, it turned out that all Korea's SfD programmes in this study were pushed forward in terms of strengthening national interests, especially sports diplomacy and a global sports network. Most countries seek to promote national development by maximising their national interests, which are the ultimate goal and reason for the existence of all countries (Kim, 2019). In this regard, many scholars argued that national preferences largely reflect national economic interests or those of the chief decision maker (Aspinwall, 2007; Krasner, 1978).

Moravcsik (1998) noted that while national preferences could be determined by economic or geopolitical interests, economic interests are relatively more important. In particular, Moravcsik (1993) referred to the gains and losses of economic interdependence as the most important determinants of national preferences. However, the ultimate goal or preference of the state can vary depending on specific issues and timing within the state (Moravcsik, 2008). State behaviour could vary depending on national interests pursued by various factors, such as a

specific issue, timing or political situation. In other words, each country would have different timeframes and backgrounds for pursuing the SfD approach.

As mentioned earlier, among the various national interests, the strengthening of Korea's sports diplomacy and establishing of a global sports network have had a decisive impact on the promotion and development of the SfD programme. In the 2000s, Korea recognised the importance of these programmes for two main reasons. Traditionally, Korea has repeatedly experienced unfair judgement on mega sport events, and its immature handling has constantly raised the issue of its lack of sports diplomacy (Lee, 2014). For example, at the 2004 Athens Olympics, gymnast Yang Tae-young missed the gold medal due to the misjudgement of a judge, whereas the Russian athlete, who suffered the same problem, immediately raised objections and regained his score (Choi, 2004).

Similarly, Shin A-ram, a fencer at the 2012 London Olympics, failed to advance to the finals due to the poor performance and bad calls of a judge. The association and the Korean government were criticised by the public for failing to deal with it properly. Thus, the repeated and immature responses to the dubious refereeing decision at the Olympics clearly demonstrated the state's lack of sports diplomacy. Furthermore, in the 2000s, Korea failed to host the Winter Olympics twice in a row, emphasising the importance of sports diplomacy and global sports networks. Thus, Korea has recognised sports as a useful means of diplomacy as part of its efforts to strengthen its soft power.

In this context, various Korean actors have employed international sports cooperation, especially the SfD programme, as a tool to offset the lack of sports diplomacy and the global sports network. Launched in 2003, President Roh's administration initially stressed the importance of international sports exchanges and began to focus on hosting international competitions and strengthening sports diplomacy and cooperation. To host the 2010 Winter Olympics, Gangwon Province launched the Dream programme in 2004 to win the hearts of the IOC members and make up for its low profile compared to other competing cities (MCST, 2013).

In addition, the MCST promoted the DTM programme as a government-backed sports ODA programme to make up for the lack of sports diplomacy caused by two failed Winter Olympics. Similarly, Incheon City launched the Vision 2014 programme to beat Delhi City in its bid to host the 2014 Asian Games. It is no exaggeration to say that the three programmes above aimed at strengthening sports diplomacy to host mega sporting events. The Winter Olympics and Asian Games have ended and the decisive motive for the programmes has naturally disappeared, but it is still carrying on to commemorate and maintain the sports network within Asia and around the world as well as inherit its Olympic heritage.

The TPC Foundation also started the TPC programme as the home country of Taekwondo to build a global network through Taekwondo and enhance the national brand. Next, strengthening diplomacy in the disabled sports field through international sports exchanges led to the implementation of the YPSC programme. The KPC steadily produced executives to the international sport organisation for the disabled and has increased its status, thereby realising the need to enhance sports diplomacy. Meanwhile, the WFK–KOV programme has worked with various areas of cooperation, including sports. In the early 1990s, the KOV programme was launched to maximise national interests, and it has since pursued various interests, including economic and geopolitical interests. Each SfD programme was ultimately promoted to strengthen sports diplomacy and to establish a global sports network.

Moreover, the SfD programme in Korea was found to have pursued not only national interests but also humanitarian motivations. This result is in line with the emphasis on humanitarian values to illustrate the policy actions of international development cooperation in constructivism. Humanitarian assistance, apart from policy interests, means humanitarian aid to manifest the spirit of philanthropy for the realisation of human coexistence and welfare (ODA Korea, 2020b). To be precise, it means a variety of activities that ensure human dignity from natural disasters as well as artificial and chronic disasters, such as conflict and civil war in developing countries. Constructivism is thought to be capable of addressing new issues by emphasising shared identities and interests through the interaction between actors, moving away from existing state-actor-oriented IR (Wendt, 1987).

The collapse of the Cold War regime in the late 1980s brought about a major change in international development cooperation, leading to emerging constructivism (Jeong, 2012). Ko et al. (2010) noted that liquidity and interdependence due to economic globalisation and information revolution are universal features of the international community, and international exchange and cooperation are increasing. At this time, various norms, ideologies and values, such as humanitarianism, human rights, gender equality and democracy, have emerged as major issues from a constructivist perspective, which emphasises various values and identities (Baylis et al., 2011). Sports practice various values, including human rights, peace, and financial support (Barrena, 2009). In particular, the SfD programmes provide a platform for using sports as a tool for positive outcomes in various areas (Sherry, Schulenkorf & Chalip, 2015). In other words, it is one of the tools that can address the various international development cooperation issues and agendas emphasised by constructivism.

Specifically, Korea's SfD programmes were promoted to pursue humanitarian values in addition to national interests. The Dream programme was designed to provide young people in developing countries the opportunity to experience winter sports and practice the Olympic movement. The DTM programme was promoted internationally to cultivate sports administrators in developing countries and contribute to the MDGs and SDGs of the UN, especially the educational aspects. The Vision 2014 programme was promoted to practice the spread of the Paralympic Movement. Unlike other programmes, the TPC and WFK–KOV programmes conducted overseas have been pursuing peace and prosperity in the international community from a more macro and international perspective. Hence, the realisation of humanitarian values, such as the MDGs and SDGs, the spread of the Olympic movement, and the support of peace and prosperity of the international community were considered to be its driving forces.

Although the majority of SfD programmes around the world are oriented towards humanitarian values, it would be easier to understand the phenomenon through the historical values and goals of international development cooperation pursued by Korea. This may be related to the nature of constructivism, which stresses

335

historical values and identity in comparison to neorealism based on objective rationalism (Jeong, 2012). Historically, Korea switched from a recipient country to a donor country in the mid-1990s and was excluded from the DAC's list of sources in 2000 (ODA Korea, 2020b). Internationally, Korea's successful experience of overcoming poverty and realising economic development through international aid is considered suitable for application to developing countries. In this context, the Korean government has a sense of debt and moral responsibility for international aid.

Likewise, Korea's SfD approach reflects its extraordinary responsibility for international development cooperation. Interviewees from the Dream, DTM and WFK–KOV programmes commonly referred to humanitarian practice through a responsible role as a donor country as one of the motives of the SfD programmes. As constructivism emphasises, Korea has naturally understood common expectations, values and norms through the interaction between various actors of the international community over a long period of time, which seems to have affected the promotion of the SfD programmes based on the realisation of humanitarian values.

Korea likewise emphasises the practice of the SDGs as a major goal of international development cooperation (ODA Korea, 2020b). In fact, since joining the OECD DAC, Korea has seen an 11.9% increase in the size of the ODA among DAC members over the past decade, far higher than the 2.4% increase in the average growth rate of the member countries (ODA Korea, 2020b). Furthermore, in 2019, Korea was appointed vice-chairman of the OECD DAC amid international expectations. This series of processes means that Korea is actively contributing to the sustainable development of the international community. Similarly, Korea's SfD programmes aim to realise the norms or values pursued by the international community in order to practice the government's keynote. As mentioned earlier, each programme recognises humanitarian aspects, such as humanity, Olympic movement and co-prosperity, as one of its important motives. As a result, Korea's historical experience and goals for international development cooperation seem to have played an important role in promoting humanitarian-oriented SfD programmes.

The motive of Korean SfD programmes seems to be similar to the recent case in Japan. Japan has carried out an SFT plan as part of its efforts to successfully host the 2020 Summer Olympics. The SFT programme is a government-led international contribution programme aimed at disseminating the value of sports to more than 10 million people in 100 countries by 2020 in order to promote the Olympic and Paralympic campaigns (SFT, 2020). Japan has a history of contributing to sports participation and social development in developing countries and of connecting with the world through sports as a medium (SFT, 2020). Japan's SfD approach has both national interests and humanitarian motives, not only to strengthen its global sports network but also spread its Olympic movement ahead of the Olympics. As the cases of Korea and Japan show, the SfD approach can be driven not by one thing but by multiple motives.

Meanwhile, Australia began its SfD approach after the 2000s thanks to government's efforts to contribute to the MDGs of the UN while the Netherlands was firstly involved in the SfD programme through political motives protesting racism (Van Eekken et al., 2013). Canada began international sports development cooperation in 1991 when it emphasised the protection of basic human rights and democracy through the Harare Declaration of the Commonwealth Conference (Van Eekeren et al., 2013). These cases mean that while the motives of each country's SfD may vary, the pursuit of humanitarianism values was essentially accompanied.

Lastly, Korea's state actors, such as the MCST, MOFAT and KOICA, promoted and developed the SfD programme from a relatively national interest perspective. The MOFAT plans and implements about 80% of the ODA projects as Korea's official agency for free assistance while the MCST executes the projects using the government's allocated ODA project budget (ODA Korea, 2020b). In particular, they participate in the council of related agencies for free assistance and then conduct policy consultations between related ministries and agencies for strategic and effective international development cooperation. Through this system, the MCST and the MOFAT strive to produce tangible results of key programmes and represent the policies and directions for international development cooperation of the government. In this context, the state actors are believed to have sought national

interest-oriented motives first, such as strengthening sports diplomacy, building a global sports network and promoting economic development. In conclusion, while Korea's SfD programmes tend to be promoted for the benefit of national interests, humanitarian value was also considered important.

7.1.6. Conclusion

This study tries to understand the phenomenon of the Korean SfD approach through national preference formation theory and constructivism and establish the applicability of the theories. The main research questions of this study are as follows. Firstly, how far have national preferences played a role in the Korean SfD approach? Secondly, how far have non-material factors or agendas played a role in the Korean SfD approach? Korea's SfD phenomenon, which appeared through six SfD programmes, generally conformed to the two IR theories, but there were some parts that were not sufficiently explained by the theories.

In terms of actors, except for the Vision 2014 programme, both state and non-state actors have played an important role in the SfD programmes. In other words, Hypotheses 1-1 and 1-2 were found to conform to the results of the study. Traditionally, Korea carried out a government-oriented ODA, and similarly the government was directly and indirectly involved in the budget, which led to a high level of involvement with the SfD approach. On the other hand, non-state actors, including local governments, sport organisations and universities, have mainly played a role in actually running programmes. Most of these non-state actors appeared to be domestic actors. This is particularly noticeable in Korea among the SfD approaches of major countries, which can be seen as a result of the SfD programmes being carried out domestically for countries limited in the short term. Furthermore, the role of sport organisations, such as the KSPO, KSOC and professional sports clubs, was found to be limited due to the high authority and influence of the MCST.

With regard to the development process, except for the Vision 2014 programme, Korea's SfD programmes began and developed around the interaction between state actors and societal actors as well as non-material factors and agendas of the international community. The interaction among state actors and cooperation among non-state actors have affected national preferences as well, leading to the development of the SfD programmes. Thus, Hypothesis 2-2 seems consistent with the result of the study, whereas Hypothesis 2-1 is partially consistent. The result of Hypothesis 2-1 may be because of the influence of societal actors in Korea and the weak policy proposals, resulting in a relatively greater governmental authority. On the other hand, the local government-led Dream and Vision 2014 programmes, where the involvement of the central government is relatively low, have shown active interaction between non-state actors.

Moreover, non-material factors and agendas embedded in the international society have directly and indirectly influenced the development of Korea's SfD programmes. They shape the common interests and identities of the actor, and in turn influence the direction and action of Korea's SfD approach. The expectations, demands and support of the international community or organisations have also provided justification for the implementation of the Korean SfD programmes. In particular, international norms, such as the MDGs and SDGs, served to present tangible goals and specific visions of Korea's SfD approach.

Regarding the role of the government in SfD programmes, the Korean government has collected opinions from societal actors and reflected them in policies, except for the Vision 2014 programme, and actively internalised non-material factors or agendas. In particular, the government, with its substantial authority in budget allocation and execution, has naturally performed comprehensive management supervision of the programmes. Thus, Hypothesis 3-2 are consistent with the result of the study, but the role of the government is broader than that proposed in Hypothesis 3-1. The government not only acts as an agent for societal actors but also enhances the effectiveness and consistency of programmes. Moreover, the government has shown an active acceptance and practice of the MDGs, SDGs and the CRPD and G20's agenda. Currently, the Korean government officially aims to

implement the SDGs as the main goal of international development cooperation. Its favourable attitude towards international norms and agenda largely resulted from three factors, including the existence of policy networks linking state and society, the government's cooperation in international norms and organisation and public support for international development cooperation.

In terms of support for the operation of the SfD programme, non-state actors based on expertise and resources have mainly been responsible for the financial, material and human support. Although state actors have been exclusively responsible for supporting the WFK–KOV programme, the government has been directly and indirectly involved in the KSPO in charge of financial support of most SfD programmes. Thus, Hypothesis 4-2 is consistent with the result of the study, but Hypothesis 4-1 is not. In particular, the consistent policy and direction of the government for international development cooperation has led to the stable development of Korea's SfD programmes. These results are different from the phenomenon that emerged in the development of elite sports in Korea. While Korea's elite sports have traditionally been developed and maintained based on the full backing of companies, and financial support of central government, the SfD programmes have been mostly operated with the support of the KSPO, which provides funding on behalf of the central government. Meanwhile, international non-state actors have little influence on the support for SfD programmes. This may be because they lack close interaction with domestic actors, which does not lead to various exchanges and specific support for the programmes.

Lastly, Korea's SfD programmes have been found to be carried out by motivations for national interests and humanitarian values. Thus, Hypotheses 5-1 and 5-2 were found to conform to the results of the study. Most SfD programmes commonly pursued national interests to strengthen sports diplomacy and global sports networking. This goal would be deeply related to hosting mega sporting events and enhancing the influence within international sports. Korea's SfD programmes have also been carried out to realise humanitarian values, such as the MDGs, SDGs, Olympic Movement and international peace and prosperity. They are used as a

platform for health, education, socialisation, sports participation and coexistence and prosperity of mankind.

7.2. Theoretical Implications

To comprehensively grasp Korea's SfD approach, this study adopted national preference formation theory and constructivism as shown in Chapter 4. Domestically, the national preference formation process of Korea has changed with the changes in political, economic and social conditions. In general, in the 1970s and 1980s, the military elite and business elite exerted considerable influence on the process of forming Korea's preference. At that time, Kim and Bell (1985) argued that the political system of Korea worked through the integration and regulation of elite groups, not by pluralistic interest groups.

Even after democratisation in 1987, Korea was under a presidential system where excessive power was concentrated on the president and the administration. In the Korean sports context, Hong (2010) argued that the policy-making process of Korea's elite sports and SFA policy can be best explained by elitism. For instance, she argued that a small number of elites in politics and business circles take the initiative in hosting mega sporting events, launching professional sports and improving SFA policy, especially the system for the treatment of sport athletes. This situation means that Korea has been determined to have policy preferences on sports development centred on a small number of powerful groups.

However, Park (2011) argued that both elitism and neopluralism are needed to ideally explain Korea's elite sports. As mentioned in Chapter 3, the role and competence of civil society began to grow after the democratisation movement in the 1980s. The participation and development of civil society and interest groups in policy processes led to the development of pluralism through competition, conflict and cooperation. Neopluralism shares the basic elements of pluralism but acknowledges which influence among various social groups can inevitably differ (Dryzek & Dunleavy, 2009). It acknowledges that in a capitalist system, the government can grant privileges to companies and bias their demands.

To explain Korea's sports background, Park (2011) came to the conclusion that a theoretical lens was needed capable of reflecting the influence of not only certain minority groups but also various members of society. Given that national governing bodies and the government have relied on support from large domestic companies for elite sports development, he thus argued that neopluralism could be applied as a theoretical lens to explain the sport policy process of Korea. Therefore, the two Korean studies mentioned above differ from the present study, but they are useful in understanding the overall mechanisms of sports approaches in Korea.

In this study, national preference formation theory is one of three elements of liberal intergovernmentalism based on liberal domestic politics and realistic international politics. National preference formation theory is the core of the analysis of national preference formation through the interaction of national and social actors. The theory liberally determines national preferences and takes the aspect of thoroughly realistic intergovernmentalism internationally. In particular, various social actors strive to maximise their interests in domestic politics in the national preference formation theory context. At this time, the national preferences of actors are determined by various national interests, such as economic and geopolitical interests. In other words, national preference formation theory, which still considers the state as an important actor but concurrently reflects the interests of various social actors, may also converge the basic assumptions of elitism and neopluralism in the Korean sports approaches.

In addition, as noted in Chapter 2, the SfD approach began in the 1980s around international NGOs and became noted as a powerful driving force to achieve the MDGs declared in the UN in 2000. The SfD approach, which is developed around the international community, has been internalised to the national level and recently carried out by many countries in North America and Europe. In this process, a proper explanation of the emergence and role of non-state actors for the SfD approach and the internalisation of various non-material factors and agendas would be necessary. To be specific, Korea's SfD approach may have been formed simply through interaction between various actors domestically, but it may have been promoted through the involvement of non-state actors and the internalisation of non-material

factors in IR. In this context, constructivism argues that actors can change their preferences by learning new normative factors or agendas and forming new identities and interests. Therefore, it was thought that constructivism was needed as a useful analytical framework to understand the phenomenon affecting the national identity and goals associated with the SfD approach.

Liberal intergovernmentalism embraces both the assumptions of realism and liberalism. In other words, national preference formation theory can be included in the category of rationalist paradigms (Paster, 2005). As mentioned in Chapter 4's synthesis of constructivism with rationalism, two paradigms are basically based on different philosophical positions in epistemology and ontology. However, unlike in the past when they were at odds, efforts have continued to make complementary understandings of the two paradigms (Jupille, Caporase & Checkel, 2003; Katzenstein et al., 1998).

This study was not suitable to fully grasp the interaction between actors and non-material factors, which influences the national preference formation of the SfD approach in Korea by utilising one of the theories of national preference formation theory and constructivism. Similarly, Park (2011) argued that the development of elite sports in Korea is most convincingly explained by the overlapping assumptions of elitism and neo-pluralism.

Therefore, this study decided to adopt both national preference formation theory and constructivism to provide appropriate answers to the research questions. To combine the two theories and apply them to the SfD approach in Korea, this study employed an analytical framework oriented towards their mutual comparison through the same categories. This resulted from an effort to avoid one-sided theoretical assumptions and, consequently, not introduce prejudice against the two theories. Researchers tend to believe in the basis for corroborating hypotheses for any proposition while reducing or taking counter-evidence as meaningless. Thus, this study tried to pursue the objectivity and rationality of the research results by confirming the relative superiority of the two competing and complementary theories.

As indicated in Chapter 7.1.1, with regard to the actors of the SfD approach in Korea, both state and non-state actors have played important roles in each programme. This means that Korea has created an environment for the SfD approach through exchanges and cooperation between various actors and state actors. National preference formation theory still values state actors in international development cooperation, and constructivism recognises that the independent influence of non-state actors is as much as that of state actors. Despite the SfD being a sport-related programme, the fact that the influence of the government is much greater than that of sport organisations could be explained by the national preference formation theory, which emphasises the role of state actors. Additionally, it was possible to understand the local governments' implementation of independent and leading SfD programmes through constructivism by emphasising globalisation and decentralisation. In particular, it can be predicted that non-state-actor-led international development cooperation with expertise in the sports context would continue in the future.

Related to the development process in Chapter 7.1.2, Korea's SfD programmes were promoted and developed under the influence of the interaction between state and societal actors as well as the non-material factors of the international community. These results seem to be in line with the assumption of national preference formation theory and constructivism. However, through this study, it was newly discovered that each interaction among state actors and among non-state actors exerted considerable influence on the promotion and development of Korea's SfD approach.

In this regard, national preference formation theory stated that the involvement of state actors in policies may vary depending on the degree of action by domestic societal actors (Moravcsik, 1993). This theory provided insights that indirectly helped understand the newly discovered phenomenon in addition to the hypotheses set in this study. This study likewise confirmed that non-material factors have played an important role in the promotion and development of SfD programmes in Korea, especially providing specific directions and justification for the programmes. Constructivism broadened the understanding of the role and

characteristics of international norms, providing a theoretical basis for the phenomenon derived from this study.

Next, as shown in Chapter 7.1.3, the government has played the role of comprehensive management and supervision of the SfD programmes as well as the role of gathering and reflecting the opinions of social actors and international norms. This means that the government exerts a far wider influence over the basic assumptions of national preference formation theory for acting as an agent for societal actors. Although this phenomenon goes beyond the analytical framework based on national preference formation theory, limited analysis was provided by Hadvabova (2006), who stated that the function of the government could vary depending on the influence of societal groups.

Meanwhile, the Korean government tried to actively accept international norms, such as the MDGs, SDGs and CRPD related to the SfD approach. This is in the same vein as constructivism in which norms are internalised, causing changes in the behaviour of domestic actors. In particular, several factors promoting the domestic introduction of non-material factors and agenda in the international community were understandable from a constructivist perspective.

In terms of support in Chapter 7.1.4, the SfD programmes in Korea were mainly carried out by the support of non-state actors, and state actors were shown to influence support through national policy support for international development cooperation. This finding is similar to constructivism, which claims that non-state actors can influence state behaviour by providing technical, financial and policy support based on their expertise and resources. Particularly, constructivism provided useful insights into the financial, material and human involvement of local governments, civil society, universities and sport organisations in Korea's SfD programmes. Nevertheless, various support of unexposed state actors would not be overlooked.

As in Chapter 7.1.5, the SfD programmes in Korea have been promoted and developed to pursue national interests and humanitarian values related to sports.

Among the various national interests, Korea has mainly sought to strengthen its sports diplomacy and establish a global sports network through the programmes. In the 2000s, Korea strongly felt the need for sports diplomacy and global network advancement owing to its successive failures in hosting mega sporting events and disadvantages in international sports competitions. Although national preference formation theory focuses on the concept of national interest on economic benefits, it argues that such interest could vary depending on the specific issues and circumstances within the state.

Thus, national preference formation theory was able to apply and explain the SfD programmes that were promoted by the need to strengthen sports diplomacy and establish a global sports network, which recently emerged as a major issue in the Korean sports community. Moreover, Korea's SfD programmes, with their pursuit of humanitarianism with national interests, have been understood through constructivism, which emphasises humanitarian norms and agendas in international development cooperation. In particular, constructivism, which stresses historical values and identity, has contributed to providing a convincing basis for Korea to pursue humanitarian values.

However, the two theories have several limitations to explain the specific aspects of the phenomenon in Korea's SfD approach. For example, the main agents of the operation and support of SfD programmes are state and non-state actors, but most of them were domestic actors. This might be due to the structural limitations of Korea's SfD approach, which operates most of its programmes locally on a short-term basis. Constructivism, which emphasises the role and importance of international organisations in international development cooperation, has limitations in fully explaining the insignificant influence of international non-state actors in SfD programmes.

In addition, the role and authority of the Korean government within each programme was much greater than assumed in the national preference formation theory. Korea's SfD approach, such as elitism, which assumes that a certain few lead the policy-making process, tended to develop programmes efficiently based on

cohesion among state actors. Basically, national preference formation theory values the relationship between the state and society, and the government plays a cooperative role reflecting the pressures and preferences of various domestic societal actors. Although the government gains its own discretion when pressure from societal actors is ambiguous or divided, the theory seems to lack grounds to fully explain the broad role of the government in Korea's SfD approach.

Furthermore, in this study, the main actors tend to prioritise national interests as motives for the SfD programmes and use humanitarian values as justification for the promotion and development of the programmes. For example, the main motivation for Korea's SfD programmes commonly prioritises strengthening sports diplomacy and global sports networks. National preference formation theory and constructivism could provide each insight for the pursuit of national interests and humanitarian values but failed to explain a convincing basis for relative importance if the two motives coexist.

Overall, constructivism provided relatively more useful insights into Korea's SfD approach, but national preference formation theory would not be overlooked. Despite some limitations, the two theories are considered useful as analytical lenses to understand the overall phenomenon of the SfD approach in Korea. In particular, the combination of the two theories is appropriate for a complementary understanding of the phenomenon of Korea's SfD approach, in which each theory alone lacks sufficient explanation. Thus, it can be argued that using two theories at the same time to analyse the complex phenomenon of the SfD approach in Korea was relatively reasonable. It was also confirmed that the complementary analytic framework of the two theories may be persuasive in the phenomenon formed by the combined influence of domestic politics and the international community.

Lastly, this study was able to discover several new results based on the theoretical assumptions of the two existing theories. This finding may serve as an important basis for broadening the theoretical assumptions in future international development cooperation or similar studies related to the formation of national preferences in other areas. For instance, this study found that while the driving forces

of the programmes are complex, national interest generally takes precedence over humanitarianism. This outcome may contribute to providing evidence that the behaviour of the state takes precedence over national interests if further relevant research addresses both of them. In addition, the Korean government has played a leading role within the SfD programmes. This finding could be taken into account in the theoretical assumptions of future research that the influence of government may vary greatly depending on the competence of non-state actors, especially societal actors. In conclusion, despite several limitations, the two theories are thought to have usefulness as analytical frames for understanding Korea's SfD approach.

7.3. Korean SfD Approach in Cross-National Perspectives

At the macro-level, cross-national comparative research often refers to the analysis of two or more societies or political, economic and social system at the national level by the same concept (Kohn, 1993: 93). This study focuses on comprehensive understanding and verification on the Korean SfD approach. Nevertheless, based on the SfD approach cases of each country described in Chapter 2, this chapter aims to briefly describe similarities and differences between Korea and other countries, and even suggest several implications.

Firstly, most of the countries mentioned in Chapter 2 regard SfD approach as policy objectives for important sport sectors at the government level. The UK, the Netherland, Australian, Japan and Canada periodically establish strategies for the development of SfD approach. In fact, the Australian government recently established Sports Diplomacy Strategy 2015_18 in 2015, and Sports Diplomacy 2030 in 2019. Also, Australia has established Sport Exchange Australia, which is responsible for SfD approach at the national level, and the Sports Diplomacy Advisory Council as an advisory body. The Korean government is also leading international development cooperation through sport represented by the SfD approach in line with ODA policy at the national level. In particular, the countries mentioned are consistently pursuing relatively stable SfD policies through the government's financial support. As such, the governments in each country view the

SfD approach as a national agenda with various motives and objectives, and are deeply involved in its orientation and resource allocation.

Secondly, SfD approach in each country is generally carried out through active interaction between government departments, public institutions, sport organisations and NGOs. In Germany, the GIZ is leading SfD strategy, but it operates the SfD programmes in cooperation with various stakeholders and organisations in recipient countries. The Japanese government established a working committee covering local governments, businesses and NGOs to carry out the SFT programme. As mentioned above, the Sports Diplomacy Advisory Council, as well as Sport Exchange Australia in Australia serves as an advisor to implementing Sports Diplomacy 2030. In Korea, each SfD programme is also operated mainly through close consultation between the MCST and implementing agency. Partnerships between these actors seem essential to enhance professionalism and effectiveness because the SfD approach is related to important agendas, such as health, socialisation, social inclusion, education and economics. In the same vein, the cooperation of various actors would be essential to the SfD approach, as it is difficult for an actor to deal with everything, including human resources, sufficient funding and know-how.

Thirdly, Korea's SfD approach began to be driven by the motivation to pursue the national interest of strengthening sport diplomacy in addition to humanitarian aid. The ultimate purpose of the SfD approach is to help develop the social and economic development in developing countries by employing sports activities. Not only Korea, but also other countries clearly specify the various backgrounds and motivations of the SfD approach. Australia has established a reginal community with the Asian Pacific region to promote trade, tourism and investment as a core value of its SfD approach. The US also has economic and diplomatic cooperation as a major goal of international development cooperation through sport. It is a universal phenomenon for countries to use the SfD approach in the national interest. As such, the SfD approach is not a one-way support, but rather a priming water for building cooperation and maintaining relationships between countries.

Meanwhile, the direction of the UK's SfD approach particularly seems skewed towards development of sport, unlike Germany and Norway. The strategic approach to transfer and plant the value of British sports in developing countries through football and rugby, which are popular in the UK, is notable. Similarly, Korea's SfD programme is generally centred on sports which Korea has competitive advantages, such as Taekwondo. Thus, Korea's SfD approach can also be seen as dominant in development of sport-oriented aspects rather than development through sport-oriented ones.

Next, SfD approach in Korea, Japan and the UK is deeply related to the recent sporting mega-events. Korea has planned and implemented the Dream programme and Vision 2014 programme to host the 2018 Olympics and the 2014 Asian Games. Similarly, the Japanese government implemented SFT programme to contribute international community through sports to help host the 2020 Olympics. The UK is actively carrying out SfD programmes around the world in the wake of the 2012 Olympics. This may be because the SfD approach is an appropriate way to implement the Olympic movement. In addition, these countries have started programmes in common because implementing SfD programmes that help the world plays a positive role in hosting sporting mega-events. However, this approach remains a common question of the sustainability of the programme after the Olympics.

Despite these similarities, Korea's SfD approach has found several differences with others. Firstly, while other countries seem to share the role of the SfD approach relatively well, the role and authority in Korea are mainly focused on the MCST. In other words, governance of the SfD approach in other countries seems more ideal and efficient than in Korea. For example, the Japanese government focuses on the SFT programme, while the JICA carries out other SfD programmes. The Canadian government focuses on domestic social development through the SfD programmes, while the CSC, which is one of NGOs, focuses on international SfD programmes. In the Netherland, sport-related department is responsible for domestic SfD programmes, and the MOFA is in charge of international SfD programmes.

As such, countries are effectively building governance systems of the SfD approach in their respective ways. On the other hand, Korea's SfD approach is still insufficient to systematically build governance. While the central government's influence and authority in establishing and implementing sport policy in Korea are still very strong, it may be inferred from the low involvement of civil society and international organisations related to the SfD approach. Also, other countries mentioned above have been involved in SfD approach for more than 30 years, establishing their own governance, but Korea has only been involved in it at a national level for a decade. Therefore, Korea should make efforts to establish specific standards from a mid- to long-term perspective so that it can be an efficient and professional SfD approach.

Next, Korea's SfD approach is mainly developed by interactions between domestic actors, compared to other countries. For example, Germany and the UK operate programmes around the world in cooperation with the recipient countries, local communities and international organisations. This might be because there are few opportunities for exchanges and cooperation with international actors, due to the fact that Korea's SfD programmes are mainly operated in Korea. Also, most of Korea's SfD programmes are close to development of sport, so the need for international organisations' expertise and know-how in social development was not urgent. Sport-related departments in the UK, Canada and the Netherlands mainly focus on development of sport-oriented SfD programmes or domestic social development.

Thirdly, while the MCST is entirely responsible for the SfD approach, many countries are leading the SfD approach by the MOFA or government agency in charge of international development cooperation. Germany, Australia, the US, the Netherlands, Japan and Norway are involved in the SfD programmes, either by the MOFA or by institutions for international development cooperation. On the other hand, the role of MOFA in Korea is limited, and KOICA focuses on supporting other areas, such as education, health care, public administration, agriculture and technology, which is similar to the CIDA in Canada. As a result, most countries seem to emphasise the role and function of the MOFA or institutions dedicated to

international development cooperation because most of the SfD programmes are conducted overseas, and focused on social development through sport rather than development of sport.

Considering other countries' SfD approaches, there are three main implications. Firstly, Germany, Canada and Australia are currently using SfD programmes as a tool for social inclusion for refugees and indigenous people. In this regard, Korea is rapidly entering a multicultural society, like Europe and the US, due to increased international exchanges and a policy of open immigration. However, it is true that the overall awareness and policy efforts of Korean society facing a multicultural society are lacking. Although the SfD programmes do not solve all the issues, it would contribute to the social inclusion of migrants, and reducing the social costs of multicultural society. Likewise, the SfD programmes could be used for future North Korean defectors. Sport can be a vehicle that can deal with problems in the physical, mental and social areas of adolescents without much resistance. Therefore, it would be better to look forward to the effectiveness and applicability of the programmes in the countries, and apply them to the Korean SfD programme in the future.

Secondly, Australia's SfD approach and governance may be a case worth considering for Korea. As mentioned above, the Australian government has Sport Exchange Australia, which focuses on SfD approach under the MOFA, and accepts strategic advice from the SfD approach through the Sports Diplomacy Advisory Council. Indeed, Australia is balancing the development of sport and SfD around the Asia-Pacific region based on its mid- to long-term plans. In Korea, a small number of people in the MCST are in charge of the overall SfD approach, and there is no separate advisory committee for SfD approach. Thus, it would be difficult to systematically plan and implement SfD approach which reflects the ODA policy stance of the Korean government. In fact, an interviewee from the MCST, who participated in this study, said that there are few experts to advise on the development of the SfD programmes. Good governance will have a crucial impact on programme planning, implementation and evaluation, as well as effective resource distribution.

As such, the Korean government should consider establishing a specialised department and advisory committee for well-organised SfD approach in the future.

Lastly, the division of roles and authority for Korea's SfD approach should be properly carried out. For example, like Canada and the Netherlands, it would be necessary to distinguish between domestic and international SfD programmes, or to give the KOICA more role in the SfD approach. Also, as the UK, it is one way to distinguish the competent agencies between sport-oriented SfD programmes and development-oriented SfD programmes. Since Korea is currently in charge of the SfD approach by the MCST, it is true that it naturally focuses on the development of sport rather than development through sport. Therefore, appropriate role sharing between the MCST and the KOICA could be necessary, in order to improve the original purpose of the SfD approach and achieve practical effectiveness.

8. Conclusions and Outlook

This chapter consists of an academic approach, methodological reflections and outlook. This chapter also looks back on the needs and purposes this study and describes the key findings. In addition, this chapter describes how to overcome and make up for the various research methodological difficulties in the study. Lastly, the chapter provides practical recommendations according to the main findings, and also presents the limitations of the study and directions for further research.

8.1. Conclusion

The history of social development through sport dates back to the 19th century, when it supported Musical Christianity (Darnell, 2012). The SfD approach, which began in earnest with the 1994 Winter Olympics in Lillehammer, faces a new and important starting point (Kidd, 2008). In the 21st century, the SfD approach gained international status and recognition, thanks to the efforts of various actors (Lindsey et al., 2018). In particular, the MDGs in 2000 and the SDGs in 2015 announced by the UN served to justify the SfD approach, and encourage the participation of various actors around the world.

Currently, most people in Korea do not know the concept and influence of the SfD approach. Also, the most important topic in the Korean sport is to achieve balanced development of elite sport and SFA. However, the researcher wanted to draw attention to the potential and importance of sport which can contribute greatly to the prosperity and coexistence of mankind. Since the time when this study began, the SfD approach in Korea is still monotonous, insignificant and less systematic. Nevertheless, the researcher attempted to accurately grasp the current state of Korea's SfD approach, and contribute to its transformation into a systematic and robust system in the future.

In the mid- and late 2000s, research on the SfD approach in Korea focused mainly on the impact of hosting sporting mega-events on economic ripple effect or

regional development (Cho, 2006; Chung, 2008; Ko, 2007; Lee & Jung, 2007). Since then, the importance of sport as soft power has been highlighted, and researchers have come to view the SfD approach from the perspective of sport diplomacy. In July 2011, the successful bid to host the 2018 Olympics prompted the government to start supporting the Korean SfD programmes. From then on, many researchers began to focus on the paradigm shift from the development of sport to SfD in Korea (Ha et al., 2015; Kwon, 2015).

However, most researchers noticed only fragmentary changes, and seemed to lack the insight and understanding of why and how the SfD approach began and developed in Korea. Also, there has been no research to explore the SfD approach system, compared to the relatively well-organised governance model for Korea's international development cooperation. Furthermore, it was judged that understanding and verifying Korea's SfD approach based on international relations theory was a very interesting and meaningful task. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to explore Korea's SfD approach from the perspective of actors, development process, role of government, support and motivation by analysing six SfD programmes.

To answer the main questions, the researcher adopted multiple case study method procedure proposed by Yin (2014). The researcher used two theoretical frameworks which can establish the core scope of the research questions, and serve as a guide for the analysis of the results. In addition, date triangulation and theory triangulation presented by Patton (2002) were applied to enhance the validity and reliability. Finally, this study used a cross-case synthesis technique and a deductive category formation analysis which enable comprehensive analysis by category after incorporating the results of each case. This academic approach allowed this study to derive the results and theoretical implications, presenting methodological reflections and outlook in the final stages.

Hypotheses proposed in this study are as follows:

Considering national preference formation theory, 1-1) State actors have played a critical role in the formation and development of the Korean SfD programmes; 2-1) Korean SfD programmes have been formed and developed through domestic politics by the interactions between the state and societal actors; 3-1) The Korean government has reflected the preferences of various societal actors in Korean SfD programmes; 4-1) Support for Korean SfD programmes has been influenced by state actors; 5-1) Korean SfD programmes have been driven by national interests.

Considering constructivism, 1-2) Both state and non-state actors have played a critical role in the formation and development of Korean SfD programmes; 2-2) Korean SfD programmes have been formed and developed through non-material factors, such as international norms, ideas, practices, settings, pressures, expectations or campaigns embedded in the international society; 3-2) The Korean government has reflected the non-material factors or agendas on the SfD approach embedded in the international society in Korean SfD programmes; 4-2) Support for Korean SfD programmes has been influenced by non-state actors as well as state actors; 5-2) Korean SfD programmes have been driven by a humanitarian motive.

As a result, hypotheses 1-1 and 1-2 were found to conform to the results of the study. Hypothesis 2-2 seems consistent with the result of the study, whereas Hypothesis 2-1 is partially consistent. Hypothesis 3-2 are consistent with the result of the study, but the role of the government is broader than that proposed in Hypothesis 3-1. Hypothesis 4-2 is consistent with the result of the study, but Hypothesis 4-1 is not. Hypotheses 5-1 and 5-2 were found to conform to the results of the study.

8.2. Methodological Reflections

This study encountered various issues in terms of methodology in understanding the SfD phenomenon in Korea and confirming the applicability of the theoretical framework adopted. Case studies are often underestimated for such reasons as lack of researcher competence, limitations in systematic procedures, inconsistent evidence and subjective bias by researchers (Yin, 2014). Compared to experiments, survey, record information analysis and historical studies, case studies are relatively structured research procedures that have not been developed. In view of academic rigor, the researcher should reduce the gap between reality and research to secure the validity of the research. Therefore, the present study largely sought to offset the problems raised in the course of research design, data collection and data analysis to become a case study.

Firstly, research design is a logical model that allows researchers to analyse and prove phenomena through observation and investigation (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996). As mentioned earlier, case studies have not yet developed specific guidance on methodological criteria and procedures (Yin, 2014). Unlike Merriam and Stake, who provided a methodological guidance for relatively loose case studies based on constructivism, Yin emphasised the design of structured case studies based on post-positivism. Therefore, this study attempted to investigate in depth the phenomenon of the SfD approach in Korea in view of the research design process presented by Yin (2014). Specifically, the researcher focused on deriving research questions, establishing a systematic theoretical framework and selecting cases.

Research questions in the case study would most likely start with 'How' and 'Why' (Yazan, 2015). It is advisable to draw up research questions after examining the limitations and implications of previous studies (Yin, 2014). Generally, Korea's major prior studies have focused on giving an overview of the newly emerging SfD approach. In the current study, the researcher has focused on investigating the process and motivation of the Korean SfD approach in depth and in a comprehensive manner. Thus, the fundamental research questions of this study are how and why Korea's SfD approach has been promoted and developed. However, the researcher

determined that identifying key actors, the role of government and supporting entities would also help strengthen the validity of the study. As a result, specific research questions along with the two research questions mentioned above added who has been the actor, who has supported and what the role of the government has been.

Next, Yin emphasised the existence of the theoretical framework to strengthen the research design. The theoretical framework can provide an accurate indication of what the researcher specifically needs to investigate (Yin, 2014). Put differently, the proposition or hypothesis established in the theoretical framework serves to establish the core scope of the research questions. The theoretical framework of this study was determined by three main considerations. Firstly, the SfD approach was basically started in earnest by NGOs in the international community from the 1980s, and the influence of non-state actors is considered as important as that of state actors. This consideration means that there might be limits to accurately grasping Korea's SfD approach from a domestic perspective only.

Secondly, both elitism and pluralism appear in the development process of sports development in Korea (Park, 2011). In other words, the process of sports development has been made by policy decisions by both a small number of groups and interest groups with diverse opinions. These groups may have affected the process of promotion and development in the Korean SfD approach. Thirdly, the motives of the Korean government's ODA were diverse, including political and economic interests and humanitarianism. Similarly, the researcher considered the possibility that various actors may have different motivations for the Korean SfD approach. As a result, the research in this study decided to use the theoretical frameworks from two IR theories, which could complement the phenomenon of the SfD approach from domestic and international perspectives.

In addition, Yin (2014) noted that the ideal case should be a phenomenon that exists in real life, not an abstract concept. For example, the decision-making process that influenced the promotion and development of the SfD approach in Korea may also be a case, but this is an abstract and less specific concept so it was excluded. Yin (2014) noted that choosing something similar to the case in the previous studies is

good for comparing results. Indeed, most SfD-related prior studies have been conducted on individuals or groups in a programme or project. A recent prior study in Korea mainly used the SfD programmes to present the process of transition to the SfD approach from development of sports, conformity with the MDGs and ways to develop Korea's SfD approach (Ha et al., 2015; Ha & Ha, 2016; Kim & Kwon, 2015). Therefore, this study decided to comprehensively identify the phenomenon of the SfD approach by using the Korean SfD programmes as examples.

Meanwhile, this study adopted a multiple case study method. Compared to a single case study, multiple case study can strengthen the feasibility of research results. Although the ideal number of cases is not specified in the multiple case study, it usually recommends between four and eight cases (Eisenhardt, 1989). In the present study, the researcher concluded that six would be ideal considering the previous research and the current number of SfD programmes in Korea. In this process, six cases were selected after consultation with a supervisor and two Korean experts who have a deep understanding of the SfD approach. In particular, whether the programme is pursuing DTS as its main goal was the priority for the selection criteria. For instance, the researcher excluded some programmes for developing countries, such as supporting sports equipment, goods and funding. The researchers likewise tried to include as many sports as possible to look at the comprehensive SfD approach in Korea. As a result, this study finally selected various SfD programmes, including winter sports, disabled sports, physical education, Taekwondo and master's course for cultivating sports administrators.

Patton (2002) presented four types of triangulations: data, investigator, theory and methodological. Among these types, this study applied data triangulation and theory triangulation. Data triangulation means that a variety of data has been used in a phenomenon, which is a way to reduce potential problems with the construct validity of case studies (Yin, 2014). Yin (2014) argued that case studies that do not use multiple sources of data would be tantamount to losing the most valuable advantage of the case study method. This study used various sources of data as evidence, such as government documents, interviews, news articles and journal papers. In particular, apart from the interview, the researcher could collect internal

reports that are difficult to obtain publicly from interviewees and use them as reference materials for this study. For this reason, this study sought to secure reasonable results through various sources.

With regard to the interview, the researcher felt a little nervous about having to recruit many people. Before visiting Korea for an interview, the researcher contacted them and provided them with information on the research topic, the necessity and significance of the research and expected main questions. The responses were generally favourable, so the researcher was able to make easily arrangements for the interviews. In particular, most of the interviewees expressed interest in the researcher studying sport policy in Germany and conducting research in SfD, which is a relatively emerging field in Korea.

During the interview, the researcher was able to hear an in-depth and realistic explanations of the interviewees, unlike the rather dry and cliché government documents and news articles. However, as more than half of the interviewees were working for public institutions, the researcher was given the impression that they talked about the programme from a generally favourable perspective. Meanwhile, as a researcher's PhD thesis, this study was not necessarily able to conduct investigator triangulation. Nevertheless, the researcher gained confidence in this study during the interviews and was convinced that the study was heading in the right direction.

The researcher used deductive content analysis during the data analysis. Although methods of analysis vary depending on the purpose of this study, qualitative research generally utilises inductive analysis. However, a deductive approach is used to verify hypotheses based on existing theories or models (Burns & Grove, 2005). Deductive qualitative content analysis can increase the validity of the theory or expand the theory or theoretical framework. This study adopted deductive qualitative content analysis using structured metrics to re-verify two existing IR theories through the SfD approach in Korea.

However, the researcher faced an important issue in setting up categorised metrics. The researcher thought about whether to designate sport organisations and

local governments as state actors or non-state actors. In Korea, sport organisations, such as the KSOC, KPC and KSPO are quasi-governmental organisations that rely entirely on the government's financial support. However, sport organisations were classified as non-state actors, taking into account the symbolism that independence and autonomy should be guaranteed by the state. In the case of local governments, the nature of their affiliation may vary depending on the perspective of the researchers. Recently, Korea has emphasised local autonomy and decentralisation, and especially in the field of international development cooperation and public diplomacy, local governments are pushing projects independently away from the central government.

Therefore, this study designated local governments as non-state actors. Meanwhile, meaningful contents were newly derived outside the existing categories of 'Development Process' and 'Role of Government' in the coding process. Based on the evidence presented by Elo and Kyngas (2007), the researcher derived new sub-categories through inductive content analysis. The researcher is convinced that such a structured process helped ensure consistency in the data analysis, thereby making the study more feasible.

Lastly, this study used cross-case synthesis technique to analyse each case in combination. Cross-case synthesis analysis is used to determine whether the cases are repetitive or contrasting (Yin, 2014). Based on the replication logic, this study identified the similarities and differences between the five categories in six programmes. This step was facilitated by extracting 5 common categories and 10 sub-categories in advance to carry out the cross-case synthesis technique during the process of research design. Although the researcher had difficulties extracting five common categories from two theories, the cross-case synthesis technique strengthened the logicality of the results and helped the analytical generalisation of this study.

8.3. Outlook

8.3.1. Practical Implications

Practical implication refers to the consequences when a specific event or phenomenon occurs (Oden, 2020). The researchers should be able to predict logically and rationally the problems and results that may be inferred or caused from the results of this study. Through practical implication, the researcher should suggest logical and rational ways to improve Korea's SfD approach. In this study, various practical implications for the development of Korea's SfD programmes can be derived on the basis of the results and discussions. This could contribute to the establishment of a policy direction to achieve the goal of Korea's overall SfD approach in the future. The practical implications for each category are as follows.

Actors: Korea's SfD programmes have been mainly carried out by state and a small number of domestic actors. This situation is different from that of major countries, such as Germany, Norway and Canada, which jointly carry out the SfD programme in conjunction with various stakeholders, especially recipient countries, international NGOs and the UN. Basically, the SfD approach means using sports to solve and improve various international development issues. Thus, the roles of various actors with expertise and know-how in each development field would be very essential.

It would be important for the TPC and WFK–KOV programmes carried out abroad to practice the principle of 'strengthening the ownership awareness of the recipient countries' emphasised by the 2010 Paris Declaration and the 2011 Busan World Development Assistance Conference (Kim, 2012). Many prior studies have already stated that collaboration between a donor country and a recipient country positively affects the effectiveness of international development cooperation. Therefore, domestic actors need to actively engage the recipient countries and regional actors at the planning stage of the programme to inspire their ownership and to increase the effectiveness of the programme.

Development Process: Korea's SfD programmes have been initiated and developed by the interaction between state and non-state actors as well as non-

material factors and agendas of the international community. Importantly, the interaction between state actors within the Korean government has played an important role in the development of the SfD programmes. However, international development cooperation may not be an area where the various goals and interests of each actor are mixed so that only the government can monopolise it (Kim, 2012). In fact, international development cooperation is driven by interactions between various actors, and especially, the participation of NGOs is becoming more active (Ahn, 2013).

The government should try to strengthen the sustainability and professionalism of each programme by giving more authority to sport organisations with expertise in the SfD approach. Therefore, the government should exert efforts to ensure that the SfD approach is effectively distributed to various actors by strengthening the interaction with local cities, sport organisations, NGOs, businesses and universities. This process allows various actors to share their responsibility for the SfD approach. Additionally, the establishment of the tentatively named 'Sport ODA Committee' for active interaction between various actors would be necessary to professionally establish a long-term development strategy of Korea's SfD approach.

Role of Government: The Korean government not only reflects the opinions of societal actors but also performs the role of comprehensive management and supervision of SfD programmes. It has also tried to favourably reflect non-material factors and agendas of the international community into the programmes. Accordingly, the government has been playing a wide range of roles, including planning, development and evaluation of the SfD programmes. In the wake of its entry into the OECD DAC and the enactment of the Framework Act on International Development Cooperation in 2010 (ODA Korea, 2017), it introduced an ODA integrated evaluation system, which is divided into the evaluation and self-evaluations of the sub-committee level.

However, the government's guidelines lack independence and objectivity in the evaluation because a specific evaluation is limited by the differences in

characteristics of the field and department. Therefore, the government will have to consider the political, social and economic environment of Korea and lay the foundation for systematic evaluation by taking into account the standards of the international SfD approach. In particular, it should consider the capabilities of Korea's SfD programme, which is still insufficient, and avoid short-term performance-oriented evaluations.

Support: The KSPO is dedicated to the financial support of most SfD programmes in Korea, and the government exerts direct and indirect influence on the process. Although the scale of the KSPO's support is relatively stable, there might be limitations to improving the quality of each programme in the mid to long term. Since the 2018 Winter Olympics, which was the main direct and indirect motive for Korea's SfD programmes, has ended, the scale of future financial support is uncertain in view of the policies and stance of the KSPO and the government. Therefore, major actors need strategies to secure stable finances in the SfD programmes, apart from the KSPO or the government's budget.

Recently, private–public partnership covering various actors, especially companies, has been expanding globally to introduce funds, technologies and expertise in the private sector (Yang, 2012). Similarly, private–public partnerships within the SfD programmes could lead to enhanced professionalism of the programme through greater financial, physical and human support. For instance, cooperation with various international non-state actors would make it easy to use their knowledge, skills, resources and know-how accumulated in the SfD programmes, such as inviting renowned scholars annually for high-quality lectures in the DTM programme. Despite private actors' lack of awareness of the SfD approach and pursuit of commerciality, private–public partnerships would have to be steadily sought for the sustainability and scale expansion of SfD.

Motive: Korea's SfD approach has been concurrently pushed to pursue both national interests and humanitarianism. However, findings indicate that strengthening sports diplomacy and developing the global sports network took precedence over the pursuit of humanitarian values. Ko et al. (2010) argued that

national interests pursued through international development cooperation should be universal and reasonable in compliance with international norms rather than short-term and fragmentary ones. The DAC presented humanitarian spirit, enlightened self-interest and solidarity as motives for donor countries to participate in international development cooperation (OECD DAC, 1996). This means that humanitarian assistance from donor countries will help the development of donor countries, ultimately benefiting these countries.

Similarly, the pursuit of national interests and humanitarian assistance for developing countries within the SfD programmes will have to be in harmony. Grieco, Powell and Snidal (1993) argued that the harmonisation of national interests through cooperation among countries should presuppose the existence of mutual interests among countries, the existence of repetitive and long-term relationships among actors and the practice of reciprocity. In this context, major actors need to form a common identity and interest with the recipient countries and local organisations in order to establish a developmental relationship from a long-term perspective. Therefore, if common perceptions and priorities between Korea and recipient countries on SfD approach are firstly shared, the SfD programme, which is somewhat biased towards the pursuit of national interests, could gradually be transformed in a balanced manner.

To sum up, beyond the centre of government and a small number of actors, the interaction among various actors at home and abroad should increase the professionalism, sustainability and effectiveness of the SfD programmes. The government should be able to structure assessment indicators for the SfD programmes to address and supplement the problems raised. Lastly, major actors will need to make efforts in advance to work closely with recipient countries and local organisations as well as share common norms and values among actors in the pursuit of mutual benefits.

8.3.2. Implications for Future Studies

This study examined the applicability of the two theories in the new environment in light of the phenomenon of the SfD approach in Korea. In addition, this study sought to enhance its validity and reliability through the systematic research design process of qualitative research. For instance, it conducted multiple case studies based on various data sources. Nevertheless, this study is exposed to several limitations, which need to be improved and supplemented in future studies.

Firstly, the interview of this study was conducted only with Koreans. Interviews were carried out with 14 Koreans who have been closely involved in the SfD programmes in order to comprehensively understand the phenomenon of the SfD approach in Korea. One of the important assumptions of this phenomenon is the strong speculation of which various actors at home and abroad might have been involved. However, interviews and documents showed that Korea's SfD programmes have been mostly carried out by domestic actors. So, the researcher carefully determined that interviews with domestic actors would enable sufficient evidence collection and validity of the research results. Nevertheless, if interviews included international actors, then the researcher might have gained more objective recognition and information regarding the attitude of the Korean government, the motivations of actors and the process of national preference formation. Therefore, further research should consider conducting interviews with international actors involved in the Korean SfD programmes to look at the phenomenon from broader perspectives.

Secondly, this study carried out descriptive research, which has some limitations compared to explanatory research. The main purpose of descriptive research is to accurately describe phenomena based on a much more structured design than exploratory research. Indeed, descriptive research is carried out according to systematic research design after research questions and hypotheses are established. However, descriptive research does not support a causal explanation of a certain phenomenon. For instance, this study has limitations in eliciting direct evidence of why the influence of international non-state actors was minimal or why

the government played a broad role within the programmes. Furthermore, this study had a limitation in identifying in depth the processes of national preference formation and internalisation of non-material factors within the programmes. Thus, future research should focus on identifying causality, contributing to presenting systematic policy alternatives to solve it.

Thirdly, this study described the overall SfD approach and programmes in eight countries, including Germany, the UK, the Netherlands and Norway, in Chapter 2.2. However, there were some limitations to explaining specific results on the development process and motives of the SfD programmes in these countries. Also, it was difficult to identify similarities and differences between Korea and other countries. In the future, comparative studies on the SfD approach in countries will need to be conducted.

Lastly, it is desirable to focus on international development, and establish sustainable programmes by utilising SfD's original objectives. Given the current status of domestic SfD approach and examples of other countries revealed by the study, what is most needed is the establishment of ideal governance for effective SfD approach. Establishing governance will lead to stable financing, efficient distribution of roles and authorities, cultivating experts, and sustainable programme development and evaluation. Therefore, further research is needed to contribute to the establishment of systematic governance for the SfD approach, which, like K-pop and K-quarantine, is derived from the K-SfD approach model, and is expected to be delivered as a good influence to all those in need around the world.

References

A year of candlelight vigils: What did it leave our society?. (2017, October 26). *Newsis.* Retrieved from https://news.joins.com/article/22052041

Abbott, K. W., & Snidal, D. (1998). Why states act through formal international organisations. *Journal of Conflict Resolution, 42*(1), 3-32.

Adler, E. (1999). O construtivismo no estudo das relacoes internacionais. *Lua Nova: revista de cultura e pilitica, 47*, 201-246.

Agans, J. P., & Geldhof, G. J. (2012). Trajectories of participation in athletics and positive youth development: The influence of sport type. *Applied Developmental Science, 16*(3), 151-165.

Ahn, E. B. (2014, January 18). Gangwon Province, special lecture for participants of Dream programme. *Gangwon Province Ilbo.* Retrieved from http://www.kado.net/news/articleView.html?idxno=664119

Ahn, M. S. (2013). A theoretical review of South Korea's international development cooperation: Focusing on a constructivist alternative. *The Korean Journal of International Studies, 53*(4), 297-331.

Aikenhead, G. S. (1997). Toward a first nations cross-cultural science and technology curriculum. *Science Education, 81*(2), 217-238.

Aliaga, M., & Gunderson, B. (2002). *Interactive statistics*. Verginia, USA: Pearson Education.

Amsden, A. H. (1990). South Korea's record wage rates: Labour in late. Industrialisation. Industrial relations, *A Journal of Economy and Society, 29*(1), 77-93.

Armstrong, G., & Giulianotti, R. (2004). *Football in Africa: Conflict, conciliation and community.* London, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Arts, B., Noortmann, M., & Reinalda, B. (2001). *Non-state actors in international relations.* Farnham, UK: Ashgate Publishing.

Aspinwall, M. (2007). Government preferences on European integration: An empirical test of five theories. *British Journal of Political Science, 37*(1), 89-114.

Atkinson, P., & Coffey, A. (2004). Analysing documentary realities. In D. Silverman (Eds.), *Qualitative research: Theory, method and practice* (pp. 56-75). London, UK: Sage.

Australian Government. (2019). *Sports diplomacy 2030.* Retrieved from sports-diplomacy-2030.pdf (dfat.gov.au)

Australian Sports Outreach Program. (2020). *Current ASOP program*. Retrieved from https://websites.sportstg.com/assoc_page.cgi?c=2-8136-0-0-0

Axelrod, R. (1986). An evolutionary approach to norms. *The American Political Science Review, 80*(4), 1095-1111.

Babbie, E., & Mouton, J. (2001). *The practice of social research*. Cape Town, South Africa: Oxford University Press.

Bae, J. N. (2019, November 26). KPC, convention with the APC: acting as a hub of Asian sports for the disablied. *YNA*. Retrieved from https://www.yna.co.kr/view/AKR20191126140400007

Bae, J. Y. (2007, June). Alpensia resort, which will invest 1.3trillion won, is the Korean Dubai Project. *Monthly Chosun*. Retrieved from http://monthly.chosun.com/client/news/viw.asp?nNewsNumb=200706100078

Banda, D., & Gultresa, I. (2015). Using Global South sport for development experiences to inform Global North CSR design and implementation: A case study of Euro league basketball's one team programme. *Corporate Governance: International Journal of Business in Society, 15*(2), 196-213.

Bardach, E. (2009). Smart (best) practices research: Understanding and making use of what look like good ideas from somewhere else. In E. Bardach (Eds.), *A practical guide for policy analysis* (pp. 95-110). New York, USA: Chatham House Publishers.

Barnes, J., Carter, M., & Skidmore, M. (1980). *The world of politics.* New York, USA: St Martins Press.

Barnett, M., & Finnemore, M. (2004). *Rules for the world: International organisations in global politics.* New York, USA: Cornell University Press.

Baylis, J., Smith, S., & Owens, P. (2011). *The globalization of world politics: An introduction to international relations* (5th ed.). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Bazeley, P., & Jackson, K. (2013). *Qualitative data analysis with NVivo* (2nd ed.). London, UK: Sage.

Beacom, A., & Levermore, R. (2008). International policy and sport in development. In V. Girginov (Eds.), *Management of Sports Development* (pp. 109-126). Oxford, UK: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Behravesh, M. (2011). Constructivism: An introduction. Retrieved from https://lup.lub.lu.se/search/publication/3053096

Beland, D., & Orenstein, M. (2009, August). *How do transnational policy actors matter?*. Paper presented at Annual Conference of the Research Committee on Poverty, Social Welfare and Social Policy of the International Sociological Association, Montreal.

Biermann, M. A. (2016). The power to change the world?: Analysis of sport in development programmes in Khayelitsha, South Africa and its challenges for research [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. German Sport University Cologne, Cologne, Germany.

Bjoerkdahl, A. (2002). Norms in international relations: Some conceptual and methodological reflections. *Cambridge Review of International Affairs, 15*(1), 9-23.

Blaikie, P. (2000). Development, post-, anti, and populist: A critical review. *Environment and Planning A, 32*(6), 1033-1055.

Blaze Sports. (2020). *USAID sports for youth with disabilities in Uganda initiative*. Retrieved March 4, 2020, from https://blazesports.org/international-programs/uganda/

Bleicher, J. (1980). *Contemporary hermeneutics: Hermeneutics as method, philosophy and critique*. London, UK: Routledge & Kegan Paul Books.

Boland, R. J. Jr. (1985). 10 phenomenology: A preferred approach to research in information systems. In E. Mumford (Eds.), *Research methods in information system* (pp. 181-190). Amsterdam, Holland: Elsevier Science Publishers.

Boyle, S. (2010, April). *Development and preliminary testing of a sustainability rubric for development through sport organisations*. Paper presented at the International Congress on Sport Sciences for Students, Budapest.

Bowen, G. A. (2009). Document analysis as a qualitative research method. *Qualitative Research Journal, 9*(2), 27-40.

Brewitt, M. (2019). *Project vs program, plus the difference between project and program managers*. Retrieved July 18, 2019, from https://apmg-international.com/article/difference-between-project-and-program

Bringer, J. D., Johnston, L. H., & Brackenridge, C. H. (2004). Maximizing transparency in a doctoral thesis1: The complexities of writing about the use

of QSR* NVIVO within a grounded theory study. *Qualitative research, 4*(2), 247-265.

British Council. (2020). *International inspiration*. Retrieved from https://www.britishcouncil.org/society/sport/current-programmes/international-inspiration

British Council. (2021). *Our work in sport.* Retrieved from https://www.britishcouncil.org/gulf-sport-and-culture-programme

Bryman, A. (2012). *Social research methods* (4th ed.). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Bryman, A. (2016). *Social research methods* (5th ed.). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2007). *Business research methods* (2nd ed.). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Burnett, C. (2013). GIZ/YDF and youth as drivers of sport for development in the African context. *Journal of Sport for Development, 1*(1), 4-15.

Burns, N., & Grove, S. K. (2005). *The practice of nursing research: Conduct, critique and Utilisation* (5th ed.). Missouri, USA: Elsevier.

Burrell, G., & Morgan, G. (2017). *Sociological paradigms and organisational analysis: Elements of the sociology of corporate life.* London, UK: Routledge.

Chae, B. (2016). The suppression of the individual freedom of expression by the emergency measures in the Korean fourth republic. *Journal of Communication Research, 53*(1), 177-216.

Chase, S. E. (2005). Narrative inquiry: Multiple lenses, approaches and voices. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The sage handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 651-679). London, UK: Sage.

Charnovitz, S. (1996). Trade measures and the design of international regimes. *The Journal of Environment and Development, 5*(2), 168-196.

Checkel, J. T. (1997). International norms and domestic politics: Bridging the rationalist-constructivist divide. *European Journal of International Relations, 3*(4), 473-495.

Chernoff, F. (2007). *Theory and metatheory in international relations*. New York, USA: Palgrave Macmillan.

Cheung-Gaffney, E. (2018). Sport and humanitarian development: A look at sports programming in the refugee crisis through a case study of kickstart joy soccer project at the Zaatari refugee camp. *Journal of Legal Aspects of Sports, 28*, 208-221.

Cho, H. J. (2017). *A study on the strategies for promoting Taekwondo and globalisation*. Sejong, South Korea: MCST.

Cho, J. H. (2015, January 27). KT supports Dream programme in PyeongChang Olympics. *The Kyunghyang Shinmun*. Retrieved from http://sports.khan.co.kr/bizlife/sk_index.html?art_id=201501271752133&sec_id=561101

Cho, M. J. (2016, January 11). People's resistance against Chun Doo-hwan's regime. *Hyundae News.* Retrieved from http://hyundaenews.com/19157

Cho, G. D. (2019, August 29). Health, welfare and labour budgets increased by 10% for the third year…a sharp increase in unemployment benefits. *Chosun Biz.* Retrieved from https://biz.chosun.com/site/data/html_dir/2019/08/29/2019082900761.html

Cho, G. J. (2019, March 11). Without Chun Doo-hwan's eight years, there would be no Republic of Korea today. *Chogabje.com.* Retrieved from https://www.chogabje.com/board/view.asp?C_IDX=82158&C_CC=BB

Cho, M. J. (2016, January 18). The history of democracy in Korea: From Roh Tae-woo to the Kim Young-sam Administration. *Hyundai News*. Retrieved from http://hyundaenews.com/19422

Cho, S. S. (2015, June 23). Sponsorship convention between Yonsei University and KPC. *MK.* Retrieved from http://edu.mk.co.kr/edunews/news_view.php?sc=50400006&year=2015&no=599983

Cho, W. J. (2006). An analysis of economic impact of regional sport event. *Korean Journal of Sport Management, 11*(1), 113-125.

Cho, Y. J. (2010, May 12). President Lee said that it is our duty to help overcome poverty. *Asia Economy.* Retrieved from http://www.asiae.co.kr/news/view.htm?idxno=2010051215121813709

Choi, D. H. (2004, August 26). Korea, absence of sports diplomacy. *YTN News*. Retrieved from https://www.ytn.co.kr/_ln/0107_200408260941029437

Choi, S. H. (2013, December 22). Governor Choi Moon-soon of Gangwon Province, Sponsorship convention with Shin-sung Trade company. *The Kyunghyang Shinmun.*   Retrieved   from http://news.khan.co.kr/kh_news/khan_art_view.html?artid=20131222162800 1&code=620110

Choi, Y. J. (2020, January 13). Freedom of speech felt by journalists…the best since 2007.   *Nocut   News.*   Retrieved   from https://www.nocutnews.co.kr/news/5272108

Chun, H. M., Munyi, E. N., & Lee, H. (2010). South Korea as an emerging donor: Challenges and changes on its entering OECD/DAC. *Journal of International Development, 22*(6), 788-802.

Chung, H. J. (2008). Sports mega-events and economic impact: Reconstruction of invented truth. *Korean Journal of Sociology of Sport, 21*(1), 229-252.

Chung, Y. S. (2014). Implications of the Korea's authoritarian politics on international development and cooperation. *The Korean Journal of Economic Studies, 62*(2), 99-130.

Cicourel, A. V. (1982). Interviews, surveys and the problem of ecological validity. *The American Sociologist, 17*(1). 11-20.

Claeys, U. (1985). Evolution of the concept of sport and the participation/non participation phenomenon. *Sociology of Sport Journal, 2*(3), 233-239.

Coalter, F. (2007). *A wider social role for sport: Who's keeping the score?.* London, UK: Routledge.

Coalter, F. (2009). Sport in development: Accountability or development?. In A. Beacom & R. Levermore (Eds.), *Sport and international development* (pp. 55-75). London, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

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. (2010). Sport for development: Going beyond the boundary? *Sport in Society, 13*(9), 1374-1391.

Cole, F. L. (1988). Content analysis: Process and application. *Clinical Nurse Specialist, 2*(1), 53-57.

Commonwealth Sport Canada (2021). *Sport works*. Retrieved July 10, 2021, from https://commonwealthsport.ca/sportworks/sportworks-home.html

Conradie, I., & Robeyns, I. (2013). Aspirations and human development interventions. *Journal of Human Development and Capabilities, 14*(4), 559-580.

Copeland, D. C. (2000). The constructivist challenge to structural realism: A review essay. *International Security, 25*(2), 187-212.

Cortell, A. P., & Davis Jr, J. W. (2000). Understanding the domestic impact of international norms: A research agenda. *International Studies Review, 2*(1), 65-87.

Council of Europe. (2001). *The revised European sports charter.* Retrieved March 18, 2018, from https://rm.coe.int/16804c9dbb

Cooper, A. F., & Frechette, L. (2008). *Celebrity diplomacy.* New York, USA: Routledge.

Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. S. (1998). *Business research methods*. New York, USA: Irwin McGraw-Hill.

Crabtree, B. F., & Miller, W. L. (1992, May). *Doing qualitative research*. Paper presented at Annual North American Primary Care Research Group Meeting, Quebec.

Creswell, J. W. (1998). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions*. CA, USA: Thousand Oaks.

Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches* (2nd ed.). CA, USA: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Steps in conducting a scholarly mixed methods study*. Retrieved from https://digitalcommons.unl.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?referer=&httpsredir=1&article=1047&context=dberspeakers

Creswell, J. W., Hanson, W. E., Plano, V. L., & Morales, A. (2007). Qualitative research designs: Selection and implementation. *The Counseling Psychologist, 35*(2), 236-264.

Creswell, J. W., & Miller, D. L. (2000). Determining validity in qualitative inquiry. *Theory into Practice, 39*(3), 124-130.

Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and Perspective in the research process.* London, UK: Sage.

Daddow, O. (2003). *Harold Wilson and European integration: Britain's second application to join the EEC.* East Sussex, UK: Psychology Press.

Daddow, O. (2013). The use of force in British foreign policy: From new labour to the coalition. *The Political Quarterly, 84*(1), 110-118.

Daegu University. (2016). *For gold medal: Our university cultivates disabled athletes*. Retrieved 28 July, 2020, from https://www.daegu.ac.kr/article/DG56/detail/416563

Darby, P. (2012). Gains versus drains: Football academies and the export of highly skilled football labour. *The Brown Journal of World Affairs, 18*(2), 265-277.

Darnell, S. C. (2007). Playing with race: Right to play and the production of whiteness in development through sport. *Sport in Society, 10*(4), 560-579.

Darnell, S. C. (2012). *Sport for development and peace: A critical sociology*. London, UK: Bloomsbury.

Darnell, S. C., & Black, D. (2011). Introduction: Mainstreaming sport into development studies. *Third World Quarterly, 32*(3), 367-378.

Darnell, S. C., & Huish, R. (2015). Cuban sport policy and South-South development cooperation: an overview and analysis of the Escuela Internacional de Educacion Fisica y Deporte. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics, 7*(1), 123-140.

Dash, N. K. (2005). *Module: Selection of the research paradigm and methodology*. Retrieved from https://www.celt.mmu.ac.uk/researchmethods/Modules/Selection_of_method ology/index.php

Deetz, S. (1996). Describing differences in approaches to organisation science: Rethinking burrell and morgan and their legacy. *Organisational Science, 7*(2), 191-207.

Diener, E., & Crandall, R. (1978). *Ethics in social and behavioral research.* Chicago, USA: University of Chicago Press.

Do, J. H. (2009, August 19). President Kim Dae-jung and the welfare state. *Hankook Ilbo*. Retrieved from https://www.hankookilbo.com/News/Read/201908180953068928?did=NA& dtype=&dtypecode=&prnewsid=

Dream Programme. (2020). *Dream programme.* Retrieved from http://www.dreamprogram.co.kr/dreamprogram/

Dryzek, J., & Dunleavy, P. (2009). *Theories of the democratic state*. Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Easterby-Smith, M., Thorpe, R., & Lowe, A. (2002). *Management research: An introduction*. London, UK: Sage.

Eisenhardt, K. M. (1989). Building theories from case study research. *Academy of Management Review, 14*(4), 532-550.

Ellingson, L. L. (2011). Analysis and representation across the continuum. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The sage handbook of qualitative research* (4th ed., pp. 595-610. CA, USA: Thousand Ooks.

Elo, S., & Kyngas, H. (2008). The qualitative content analysis process. *Journal of advanced nursing, 62*(1), 107-115.

Erdogan, A. (2015). Political influence on European Union decision-making: A multidimensional perspective [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Ghent University, Ghent, Belgium.

Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development. (2020). *Principles and objectives.* Retrieved from https://www.bmz.de/en/ministry/principles/index.html

Finnemore, M. (1993). International organisations as teachers of norms: The United Nations educational, scientific, and cultural organization and science policy. *International Organisation, 47*(4). 565-597.

Finnemore, M. (1996). Norms, culture and world politics: Insights from sociology's institutionalism. *International Organisation, 50*(2), 325-347.

Finnemore, M., & Sikkink, K. (1998). International norm dynamics and political change. *International Organisation, 52*(4), 887-917.

Finnemore, M., & Sikkink, K. (2001). Taking stock: The constructivist research program in international relations and comparative politics. *Annual Review of Political Science, 4*(1), 391-416.

Fokwang, J. (2009). Southern perspective on sport in development: A case study of football in Bamenda, Cameroon. In A. Beacom & R. Levermore (Eds.), *Sport and international development* (pp. 198-218). London, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Forum. (2020). *About forum.* Retrieved July 22, 2020, from https://forum-ids.org/about/

Four-year evaluation of participatory government and strategies for national development in the 21st century. (2007, January 23). *OhmyNews.* Retrieved from

http://www.ohmynews.com/NWS_Web/View/at_pg.aspx?CNTN_CD=A0000
388025

Frieden, J. A. (1991). Invested interested: The politics of national economic policies in a world of global finance. *International Organisation, 45*(4), 425-451.

From the poorest countries to the ranks of advanced countries. (2019, March 5). *Hankyung.*   Retrieved   from https://www.hankyung.com/economy/article/201903051388Y

Gadais, T. (2019). *Sport for development and peace: Current perspective of research*. Retrieved from http://www.intechopen.com

Gadais, T., Webb, A., & Garcia, A. (2017). Using report analysis as a sport for development and peace research tool: The case of El Salvador Olimpica Municipal's programme. *Journal of Sport for Development, 6*(10), 12-25.

Gall, M., Gall, J., & Borg, R. (2007). *Educational research: An introduce* (8th ed.). New York, USA: Pearson Education.

Gangwon Province. (2003). *2003 Gangwon Province white paper.* Retrieved from https://www.provin.gangwon.kr/gw/portal/sub06_09

Gangwon Province. (2004a). *Foreign media showed great interest in the 2004 Dream programme.*   Retrieved   from http://www.provin.gangwon.kr/gw/portal/sub04_05_01?articleSeq=27111&c odes=7%2C9%2C14%2C15%2C16%2C18%2C19%2C20%2C21%2C23%2 C24%2C25%2C26%2C27%2C32%2C35%2C36%2C39%2C40%2C41%2C4 2%2C44%2C45&searchWord=%EB%93%9C%EB%A6%BC%ED%94%84 %EB%A1%9C%EA%B7%B8%EB%9E%A8&mode=readForm&curPage=3 &sccode=7&searchFeild=title&mccode=4

Gangwon Province. (2004). *2004 Gangwon Province white paper.* Retrieved from https://www.provin.gangwon.kr/gw/portal/sub06_09

Gangwon Province. (2005). *2005 Gangwon Province white paper.* Retrieved from https://www.provin.gangwon.kr/gw/portal/sub06_09

Gangwon Province. (2011). *2011 Gangwon Province white paper.* Retrieved from https://www.provin.gangwon.kr/gw/portal/sub06_09

Gangwon Province. (2018). *2018 basic plan for Dream programme* [Internal report].

GCS International. (2020). *Introduction of international head office*. Retrieved May 14, 2020, from http://www.gcs-ngo.org/72

Geeraert, A., Scheerder, J., & Bruyninckx, H. (2012). The governance network of European football: Introducing new governance approaches to steer football at the EU level. *International Journal of Sport Policy, 5*(1), 1-20.

Gephart, R. P. (2004). Qualitative research and the academy of management Journal. *Academy of Management Journal, 47*(4), 454-462.

Giulianotti, R. (2011a). The sport, development and peace sector: A model of four social policy domains. *Journal of Social Policy, 40*(4), 757-776.

Giulianotti, R. (2011b). Sport, transnational peacemaking, and global civil society: Exploring the reflective discourses of "sport, development and peace" project officials. *Journal of Sport and Social Issues, 35*(1), 50-71.

GIZ. (2016). *Sport moves the world.* Retrieved from https://www.giz.de/en/mediacenter/40066.html

GIZ. (2017). *Sport for development in Africa (S4DA).* Retrieved May 9, 2018, from https://www.giz.de/en/downloads/giz-s4da-2017-en-factsheet-S4DA-general-web.pdf

GIZ. (2020). *Sport for Development.* Retrieved October 3, 2020 from https://www.giz.de/en/worldwide/43770.html

GIZ. (2021). *Achieving more together with sport for development*. Retrieved July 7, 2021, from https://www.giz.de/en/worldwide/42673.html

Goulding, C. (2002). *Grounded theory: A practical guide for management, business and market researchers*. CA, USA: Sage.

Green, B. C. (2005). Building sport programs to optimise athlete recruitment, retention and transition: Toward a normative theory of sport development. *Journal of Sport Management, 19*(3), 233-253.

Grieco, J., Powell, R., & Snidal, D. (1993). The relative-gains problem for international cooperation. *The American Political Science Review, 87*(3), 727-743.

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (p. 105-117). London, UK: Sage.

Gummesson, E. (2005). Qualitative research in marketing: Road-map for a wilderness of complexity and unpredictability. *European Journal of Marketing, 39*(3), 309-327.

Ha, J. P., & Ha, J. H. (2016). From MDGs to SDGs: The conceptual definition of Sport for development movement and advanced strategies for SFD programme. *The Korean Journal of Physical Education, 55*(2), 393-402.

Ha, J. P., Lee, K. L., & Ok, G. (2015). From development of sport to development through sport: A paradigm shift for sport development in South Korea. *The International Journal of the History of Sport, 32*(10), 1262-1278.

Hadvabova, J. (2006). Contentious issues of foreign policy: EU negotiations: Merging liberal intergovernmentalism and negotiation theory [Unpublished master dissertation]. Linkoping University, Linkoping, Sweden.

Han, G. S. (2014, September, 14). Incheon Vision 2014' person in charge. *Financial News.* Retrieved from https://www.fnnews.com/news/201409141648370609

Han, M. S. (2015, June 22). Incheon International Cooperation Foundation's operations 'Bad'. *Incheon Today.* Retrieved from http://www.incheontoday.com/news/articleView.html?idxno=31338

Han, Y. S. (2013, January 28). Gangwon Province, Joint promotion of inter-Korean sports exchanges with the UN. *Newsis.* Retrieved from https://news.joins.com/article/10529265

Hasselgard, A. (2009). Idrettsorganisasjoner i Norsk utenrikspolitikk. *International Politikk, 67*(3), 481-492.

Hasselgard, A. (2015). Norwegian sport for development and peace: donor discourse and local practice [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Norwegian School of Sport Science, Oslo, Norway.

Hayhurst, L. M. C. (2009). The power to shape policy: Charting sport for development and peace policy discourses. *International Journal of Sport Policy, 1*(2), 203-227.

Hayhurst, L. M. C. (2011). Corporatising sport, gender and development: Postcolonial IR feminisms, transnational private governance and global corporate social engagement. *Third World Quarterly, 32*(3), 531-549.

Henning, E., Van Rensburg, W., & Smit, B. (2004). *Finding your way in qualitative research.* Harfield, South Africa: Van Schaik Publishers.

Hettne, B. (2008, June). *Regional actorship and regional agency: Comparative perspectives.* Paper presented at the 6th GARNET PhD School Global Governance & Regionalism: The Institutional Dimension, Brussels.

Herriott, R. E., & Firestone, W. A. (1983). Multisite qualitative research: Optimizing description and generalizability. *Education Researcher, 12*(1), 14-19.

Higgins, K. (2013). *Reflecting on the MDGs and making sense of the post-2015 development agenda*. Retrieved October 11, 2020, from http://policyresearch.limpopo.gov.za/handle/123456789/1362

Hirschheim, R., Klein, H. K., & Lyytinen, K. (1995). *Information systems development and data modeling: Conceptual and philosophical foundations*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Hobolt, S. B., & Klemmemsen, R. (2005). Responsive government? Public opinion and government policy preferences in Britain and Denmark. *Political Studies, 53*(2), 379-402.

Holsti, K. J., & Holsti, K. J. (1985). The dividing discipline: Hegemony and diversity in international theory. Boston, USA: Allen & Unwin.

Hong, D. H. (2010, July 9). KOICA to send volunteer group to El Salvador by year's end. *YNA*. Retrieved from https://news.naver.com/main/read.nhn?mode=LSD&mid=sec&sid1=100&oid=001&aid=0003373254

Hong, E. A. (2010). An analysis of the sport policy process in the Republic of Korea: The cases of elite sport development and sport for all [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Loughborough University, Loughborough, UK.

Hopf, T. (1998). The promise of constructivism in international relations theory. *International Security, 23*(1), 171-200.

Huish, R. (2011). Punching above its weight: Cuba's use of sport for South-South co-operation. *Third World Quarterly, 32*(3), 417-433.

Hulme, D., & Fukuda-Parr, S. (2009). International norm dynamics and the end of poverty: Understanding the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Global Development Institute Working Paper Series 9609, GDI, The University of Manchester.

Hussey, J., & Hussey, R. (1997). *Business research a practical guide for undergraduate and postgraduate students*. London, UK: Macmillan.

Hwang, B. G. (2014, February 25). Announcement of three years of economic innovation…proposal of implementation plan for 474 vision. *Yonhap Informax*. Retrieved from https://news.einfomax.co.kr/news/articleView.html?idxno=97748

Hwang, H. I. (2015). *Sports ODA of the KOICA.* Retrieved July 15, 2020, from http://blog.naver.com/PostView.nhn?blogId=prkoica&logNo=220463859584

Incheon AG, small countries support 'Vision 2014'. (2007, April 17). *YNA*. Retrieved from http://news.kbs.co.kr/news/view.do?ncd=1339370

Incheon City. (2019). *OCA-Incheon Vision 2014 programme: 2019 'Asia sport weak country' support plan* [Internal report].

Institute for Global Economics and Social Affairs (2013). *A study on the utilisation strategy of ODA in Korean sports success cases.* Retrieved from http://www.prism.go.kr/homepage/entire/retrieveEntireDetail.do;jsessionid=72C24DDCE3547C473653F899CBE4E5A9.node02?cond_research_name=&cond_research_start_date=&cond_research_end_date=&research_id=1371000-201300105&pageIndex=976&leftMenuLevel=160

IOC. (2020). *Humanitarian assistance through sport.* Retrieved April 23, 2020, from https://www.olympic.org/news/humanitarian-assistance-through-sport

Jackson, R., & Sorensen, G. (2006). *Introduction to international relations: Theories and approaches.* Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Jacoby, W. (2008). Minority traditions and post-communist politics: How do IGOs matter?. In M. Orenstein, S. Bloom & N. Lindstrom (Eds.), *Transnational actors in central and east European transitions* (pp. 56-76). Pittsburgh, USA: University of Pittsburgh Press.

Japan GOV. (2020). *Sport for tomorrow.* Retrieved May 10, 2020, from https://www.japan.go.jp/tomodachi/2018/winter2018/sport_for_tomorrow.html

Jeon, Y. J. (2013, November 25). Dream Together…dream of sports shared by famous scholars. *Sports Chosun.* Retrieved from https://sports.chosun.com/news/ntype.htm?id=201311260100238980014597&servicedate=20131125

Jeon, Y. J. (2018, November 2). Communication among famous scholars in the context of international sports…Dream Together Forum for sport for peace. *Chosun Ilbo.* Retrieved from https://www.chosun.com/site/data/html_dir/2018/11/02/2018110200962.html

Jeong, D. W. (2019, October 4). What is the problem with the government's real estate policy?. *MK Economic.* Retrieved from https://www.mk.co.kr/news/economy/view/2019/10/795723/

Jeong, J. T. (2009, August 18). Leadership in determination…the shortest period of panic with DJ Nomics. *Hankyung*. Retrieved from https://www.hankyung.com/politics/article/2009081867451

Jeong, J. W. (2019, September 26). Hosting 2019 KPC YPSC programme. *Ablenews.* Retrieved from http://www.ablenews.co.kr/News/NewsContent.aspx?CategoryCode=0031&NewsCode=003120190925143204292251

Jeong, J. Y. (2006, November 4). Cho, Jung-won, president of the WT, take office as president of the GCS International. *DongA Ilbo.* Retrieved from https://www.donga.com/news/article/all/20061104/8369628/1

Jeong, S. H. (2012). *21st century foreign strategy and ODA policy*. Retrieved from http://www.prism.go.kr/homepage/theme/retrieveThemeDetail.do?leftMenuLevel=110&cond_brm_super_id=NB00120061201100059686&research_id=1260000-201200056

Jervis, R. (1998). Realism in the study of world politics. *International Organisation, 52*(4), 971-991.

Johnson, J. (2006). Two-track diffusion and central bank embeddedness: The politics of Euro adoption in Hungary and the Czech Republic. *Review of International Political Economy, 13*(3), 361-386.

Johnson, R. B. (1997). Examining the validity structure of qualitative research. *Education, 118*(2), 282-292.

Johnston, M. (1996). The search for definitions: The vitality of politics and the issue of corruption. *International Social Science Journal, 48(*149), 321-336.

Joo, G. C. (2014, July 1). Incheon City, operating Vision 2014 programme with OCA. *Daily Gyeong-gi Province.* Retrieved from http://www.1gan.co.kr/news/articleView.html?idxno=7474

Jupille, J., Caporaso, J. A., & Checkel, J. T. (2003). Integrating institutions: Rationalism, constructivism and the study of the European. *Comparative Political Studies, 36*(1), 7-40.

Justice Law Website. (2020). *Physical activity and sport act 2003*. Retrieved from https://laws-lois.justice.gc.ca/eng/acts/P-13.4/FullText.html

Kalinowski, T., Rhyu, S. Y., & Croissant, A. (2015). *2015 South Korea Report.* Retrieved Oct 14, 2019, from https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/51180858.pdf

Kang, J. H. (2005). The concept and the classification of the sport industry. *Korean Journal of Sport Science, 16*(3), 118-130.

Kang, K. H. (2000). *Five-year plan for economic development: Evaluation of objectives and execution.* Seoul, South Korea: Seoul National University Press.

Kaplan, B., & Maxwell, J. A. (2005). Qualitative research methods for evaluating computer information systems. In J. G. Anderson, C. E. Aydin, & S. J. Jay (Eds.), *Evaluating the organizational impact of healthcare information systems* (pp. 30-55). New York, USA: Springer.

Karacasulu, N., & Uzgoeren, E. (2007). Explaining social constructivist contributions to security studies. *Perceptions: Journal of International Affairs, 12*(3), 27-48.

Katzenstein, M. F. (1996). *The culture of national security: Norms and identity in world politics.* New York, USA: Columbia University Press.

Katzenstein, P. J., Keohane, R. O., & Krasner, S. D. (1998). International organisation and the study of world politics. *International Organisation, 52*(4), 645-685.

Keats, D. M. (2001). Interviewing: A practical guide for students and professionals. *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung: Qualitative Social Research*, 3(1), 8.

Keck, M. E., & Sikkink, K. (1998). Transnational advocacy networks in the movement society. In D. S. Meyer & S. Tarrow (Eds.), *The Social Movement: Contentious Politics for a New Century* (pp. 217-238). Lanham, USA: Rowman and Littlefield.

Keohane, R. O. (1989). International relations theory: Contributions of a feminist standpoint. *Millennium, 18*(2), 245-253.

Kidd, B. (2008). A new social movement: Sport for development and peace. *Sport in Society, 11*(4), 370-380.

Kim, B. S., & Lee, J. W. (2009). A study on strengthening the sport diplomatic power of Korea through facilitating official development assistance programs using sport. *The Korean Journal of Physical Education, 48*(3), 101-112.

Kim, B. S. (2011). *PyeongChang Dream programme and international development*. Retrieved from https://sportnest.tistory.com/1181

Kim, B. S., Park, J. K., Yoo, H. K., Lee, R. J., Lee, J. W., Cho, K. W., & Chung, S. A. (2008). Policy suggestions for strengthening the sport diplomatic power of Korea. *The Korean Journal of Physical Education, 47*(5), 107-117.

Kim, B. W., & Bell, D. S. (1985). The theory and applicability of democratic elitism to Korean public administration. *Asian Journal of Public Administration, 7*(1), 70-76.

Kim, C. H. (2014). Economic impact analysis with community sports events. *Korean Journal of Sport Management, 19*(1), 109-120.

Kim, C. H. (2019). The future of international development cooperation through emerging issues: Focus on Korean contexts. *Global Social Security Review, 10*, 47-58.

Kim, C. K. (2021, February 19). Sport policy, go from national sports to civilian autonomy. *Hankyoreh.* Retrieved from https://www.hani.co.kr/arti/sports/sports_general/983672.html

Kim, D. A. (2019, April 18). In the 2019 Press Freedom Index, South Korea ranked 41st, the highest in Asia. *Journalists Association of Korea.* Retrieved from Retrieved from http://m.journalist.or.kr/m/m_article.html?no=46124

Kim, E. H., & Kwon, H. I. (2015). The fit between ODA programs of Ministry of Culture, Sport and Tourism and Milllenium Development Goals of United Nations. *The Korean Journal of Physical Education, 54*(1), 327-334.

Kim, E. Y., & Hong, J. Y. (2014). A significant role of global civil society in forming international development cooperation norm: Focusing on OECD DAC high level forum on aid effectiveness. *Journal of International Politics, 19*(1), 175-206.

Kim, G. D. (2019). *U.S. troop withdrawal and challenge against the security crisis: October restoration.* President Park Chung Hee Memorial Foundation.

Kim, G. E. (2019, November 18). KSPO, hosting Dream Together Seoul Forum on spreading value of sports. *Chosun Ilbo.* Retrieved from https://www.chosun.com/site/data/html_dir/2019/11/18/2019111801932.html

Kim, H. (1999). *Glory and humiliation of Korean economy*. Seoul, South Korea: Maeil Economic Newspaper.

Kim, H. S. (2019, October 31). SNU, lecture of former UN secretary-general Ban Ki-moon. *Financial Today.* Retrieved from https://www.ftoday.co.kr/news/articleView.html?idxno=112368

Kim, J. W. (2013). *Introducing Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities.* Retrieved August 3, 2020, from http://hopeandlaw.org/%EC%9E%A5%EC%95%A0%EC%9D%B8%EA%B

6%8C%EB%A6%AC%ED%98%91%EC%95%BDcrpd%EB%A5%BC-%E
C%86%8C%EA%B0%9C%ED%95%A9%EB%8B%88%EB%8B%A4/

Kim, K. H. (2014, August 28). Looking back on TV dramas and entertainment shows in Japan where the Korean wave is cooling down. *Kookmin Ilbo*. Retrieved from http://news.kmib.co.kr/article/view.asp?arcid=0008629603&code=61171111 &cp=nv

Kim, K. J. (2012). *A study on the performance system of public diplomacy in South Korea.* Retrieved from http://www.mofa.go.kr/mofat/htm/issue/servicereport_3.pdf

Kim, M. H. (2016). Theorizing national preference formation. *Cambridge Review of International Affairs, 29*(1), 290-308.

Kim, N. J. (2013, October 30). Dream Together Master…Building the elite of sports administration. *The Asian.* Retrieved from http://www.kor.theasian.asia/archives/91979

Kim, S. E. (2019). The relationship between political regimes and political education in South Korea: An analysis of political education content and pedagogy in primary and secondary schools [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Hankuk University of Foreign Studies, Seoul, South Korea.

Kim, S. H., Kim, H. S., & Park, S. H. (2014). *Basic directions and tasks for reviewing the performance of the Incheon AG vision programme and establishing follow-up tasks.* Incheon, South Korea: Incheon Development Institute.

Kim, S. W. (2019, May 3). Greed and corruption of Lee Myung-bak's administration. *OhmyNews.* Retrieved from http://www.ohmynews.com/NWS_Web/View/at_pg.aspx?CNTN_CD=A0002 532248

Kim, S. Y. (2019, July 17). Angry labour unions in the government's conservative orientation. *Edaily.* Retrieved from https://www.edaily.co.kr/news/read?newsId=04067206622555504&mediaCo deNo=257

Kim, T. K. (2008, April 1). North Korea denies 'Nuclear Openness 3000'…criticism of President Lee. *OhmyNews*. Retrieved from http://www.ohmynews.com/NWS_Web/View/at_pg.aspx?CNTN_CD=A0000 869014

Kim, T. K. (2012). The social construction of international development cooperation: The politics of global governance and network complexities. *Journal of International Development Cooperation, 4*(1), 1-55.

Kim, Y. H. (2017, December 14). 1 trillion dollars in trade in 3 years…Export, 6th in the world. *YNA*. Retrieved from https://www.yna.co.kr/view/AKR20171214107200003

Kim, Y. J. (2016, November 21). Chun, Doo-hwan makes justice fun, and Park, Geun-hye makes cultural prosperity fun. *OhmyStar*. Retrieved from http://star.ohmynews.com/NWS_Web/OhmyStar/at_pg.aspx?CNTN_CD=A0 002263042

Kim, Y. M. (2013). Critical considerations for multi-cultural discourses and policies in Korea. *Korean Journal for Political and Diplomatic History, 35*(1), 141-174.

Kim, Y. R. (2007). The redefinition of democracy and civil society. *The Journal of NGO Studies, 5*(1), 1-25.

Kim, Y. R. (2015, May 11). Economic policy research from under the Jeon Doo-hwan administration to Lee Myung-bak administration. *Hyundae News.* Retrieved from http://m.hyundaenews.com/a.html?uid=13231

King, N. (2004). *Using interviews in qualitative research*. London, UK: Sage.

Klotz, A. (1995). Norms reconstituting interests: Global racial equality and US sanctions against South Africa. *International Organisation, 49*(3), 451-478.

Ko, K. M., Kim, S. I., & Hong, J. H. (2010). Official development assistance and national interest: Implications for Korea's sustainable ODA development. *Korea and World Politics, 26*(3), 95-128.

Ko, O. N. (2017, July 25). Hosting 2017 KPC YPSC programme. *HKD News*. Retrieved from http://www.hkdnews.kr/news/articleView.html?idxno=13618

Ko, S. T. (2005, January 27). 'Fire' for bidding the Winter Olympics. *Chosun Ilbo*. Retrieved from https://www.chosun.com/site/data/html_dir/2005/01/27/2005012770317.html #Redyho

Ko, S. W. (2008, July 20). Cheong Wa Dae laughs at Amnesty's 'Candlelight Survey'. *Media Today*. Retrieved from http://www.mediatoday.co.kr/news/articleView.html?idxno=70711

Ko, Y. K. (2007). The devices of holding an effective sports events for development of local society. *The Korean Journal of Sports Science, 16*(1), 321-337.

Kohn, M. (1993). *Cross-national research in sociology*. Newbury Park, US: Sage.

KOICA. (2019). *Interview: I hope it is a fun PE class.* Retrieved July 18, 2020, from https://m.post.naver.com/viewer/postView.nhn?volumeNo=21934288&memberNo=22498276&searchKeyword=%EB%8C%80%ED%95%9C%ED%88%AC%EC%9E%90%ED%81%B4%EB%9F%BD&searchRank=47

KOICA. (2020a). *Overview and recruitment.* Retrieved July 19, 2020, from https://kov.koica.go.kr/intro/process/summary.koica

KOICA. (2020b). *WFK-KOV corps.* Retrieved July 24, 2020, from https://kov.koica.go.kr/business/koica.koica

Korea Paralympic Committee. (2018). *Basic plan on 2018 YPSC programme* [Internal report].

Korea Paralympic Committee. (2020a). *Purpose of establishment and history.* Retrieved July, 29, 2020, from https://www.koreanpc.kr/ibuilder.do?menu_idx=22

Kore Paralympic Committee. (2020b). *IPC structure*. Retrieved August 10, 2020, from https://www.koreanpc.kr/ibuilder.do?per_menu_idx=59&tabCnt=3&menu_idx=192

Koss, J. O., & Alexandrova, A. (2005). Essay: HIV/AIDS prevention and peace through sport. *The Lancet, 366*(Supplement 1), S3-S4.

KPC YPSC programme, 56 participants in 15 countries…a time of harmony across borders. (2019, September 26). *Sports Seoul.* Retrieved from http://www.sportsseoul.com/news/read/824426

Krasner, S. D. (1978). *Defending the national interest: Raw materials investments and US foreign policy*. New Jersey, USA: Princeton University Press.

Krasner, S. D. (1994). International political economy: Abiding discord. *Review of International Political Economy, 1*(1), 13-19.

Kratochwil, F. (1989). The challenge of security in a changing world. *Journal of International Affairs, 43*(1), 119-141.

Krippendorff, K. (2004). Reliability in content analysis: Some common misconceptions and recommendations. *Human Communication Research, 30*(3), 411-433.

KSPO. (2020). *Fund support details.* Retrieved from https://www.kspo.or.kr/kspo/bbs/B0000026/list.do?menuNo=200120

Kuckartz, U., & Radiker, S. (2019). *Analyzing qualitative data with MAXQDA.* Cham, Switzerland: Springer International Publishing.

Kwon, J. H. (2007). Analyzing the neoliberal character of the economy policies of the Korea governments [Unpublished master dissertation]. Yonsei University, Seoul, South Korea

Kwon, O. S., Seo, Y. S., & Heo, J. Y. (2012). *A comparative study on the state of the past government.* Seoul, South Korea. Retrieved from https://www.kdevelopedia.org/resource/view/04201506010138364.do#.X89w zkvsb84

Kwon, S. Y. (2010). Conceptualising sport for all for enhancing social quality. *Korean Journal of Sociology of Sport, 23*(1), 13-28.

Kwon, S. Y. (2015). Research trends in the sociology of sport: Sport for development and peace. *Korean Journal of Sport Science, 26*(4), 659-677.

Kwon, Y., Park, S. K., & Lee, J. Y. (2011). *Trends in Korean public opinion about foreign aid.* Seoul, South Korea: Korea Institute for International Economic Policy.

Laird, S. E. (2007). Rolling back the African state: Implications for social development in Ghana. *Social Policy & Administration, 41*(5), 465-486.

Lawther, J. D. (1972). *Sport psychology. n* (7th ed.). New Jersey, USA: Prentice-Hall.

Lee, H. H., & Jung, S. B. (2007). Relations between sports events of local autonomous entity and regional development. *The Journal of Sports and Laws, 10*(4), 393-414.

Lee, H. R. (2009, August 18). The sunshine policy and international monetary fund…Former President Kim's legacy. *Money Today.* Retrieved from https://news.mt.co.kr/mtview.php?no=2009071618095332492&outlink=1&re f=http%3A%2F%2Fsearch.naver.com

Lee, H. S. (2016, October 24). For the K sports foundation, a budget of 86.5 billion won will be set aside for 2017…What the people don't understand. *Sisa Briefing.* Retrieved from http://www.nanews.co.kr/news/articleView.html?idxno=15578

Lee, J. B. (2011). *Analysis and understanding of Korean politics*. Seoul, South Korea: SNU Press.

Lee, J. H. (2014). A study on the chronological change of work-family balance issue. *The Women's Studies, 86*, 281-324.

Lee, J. H. (2014, March 20). Taeguk warriors, swallowing their anger…Sports diplomacy is zero. *Nocut News.* Retrieved from https://www.nocutnews.co.kr/news/1207142

Lee, J. W. (2017, August 7). Lesson of the fall of Choi Nomics. *MK Economic.* Retrieved from https://www.mk.co.kr/opinion/columnists/view/2017/08/529491/

Lee, N. J. (2013). Park Geun-hye's administration moving away from the path of changing times. *Creating and Criticism, 41*(3), 2-7.

Lee, S. H. (2017). Sustainable development goals (SDGs) and human rights-based development cooperation. *Journal of International Development Cooperation, 12*(4), 3-38.

Lee, S. H. (2020, January 28). Opeaning 2020 PyengChang Peace Forum. *VOP.* Retrieved from https://www.vop.co.kr/A00001464054.html

Lee, S. M., Kim, Y. H., & Kim, J. H. (2011). The new paradigm of sports diplomacy and international cooperation through Taekwondo. *Journal of Korean Philosophic Society for Sport and Dance, 19*(4), 75-92.

Leedy, P., & Ormrod, J. (2001). *Practical research: Planning and design* (7th ed.). CA, USA: Sage.

Lerche, C., & Abdui, A. (1963). *Concepts of international politics*. New Jersey, USA: Prentice-Hall Inc.

Levermore, R. (2008). Sport: a new engine of development?. *Progress in Development Studies, 8*(2), 183-190.

Levermore, R. (2009). Sport in international development: Theoretical framework. In A. Beacom & R. Levermore (Eds.), *Sport and international development* (pp. 26-54). London, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Levermore, R. (2011). Evaluating sport for development: Approaches and critical issues. *Progress in Development Studies, 11*(4), 339-353.

Levermore, R., & Beacom, A. (2009). *Sport and international development.* London, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Lewis, D., & Kanji, N. (2009). NGO roles in contemporary development practice. *Chapter 5 in Non-Governmental Organisations and Development.*

Lie, J. H. S. (2006). Utvikling, frivillige organisasjoner og utenrikspolitikk. In B. Kjos Fonn, I. B. Neumann & O. J. Sending (Eds.), *Norsk utenrikspolitisk praksis* (pp. 138-164). Oslo, Norway: Cappelen akademiske forlag.

Lim, B. J. (1979). A study of the definition and classifications of sports and its related concepts. *Journal of the College of Education, 19*(1), 255-268.

Lim, B. Y. (2003, October 28). Gangwon Province, the bid system for the 2014 Winter Olympics is in full swing. *Hankyung*. Retrieved from https://www.hankyung.com/sports/article/2003102836568

Lim, B. Y. (2004, December 22). Gangwon Province operating 2005 Dream programme. *Yonhap News.* Retrieved from https://news.naver.com/main/read.nhn?mode=LSD&mid=sec&sid1=100&oid=001&aid=0000860152

Lim, B. Y. (2011, April 7). Gangwon Province and Seoul City, Sponsorship agreement for Winter Olympics. *YNA*. Retrieved from https://news.naver.com/main/read.nhn?mode=LSD&mid=sec&sid1=102&oid=001&aid=0004999542

Lim, H. B. (2012, January 28). Freedom of speech and expression. *DongA Ilbo*. Retrieved from http://www.donga.com/news/article/all/20120128/43609154/1

Lim, H. B. (2015). *Simultaneous simultaneousity: Multiple times of modern Korean politics*. Seoul, South Korea: Korea University Press.

Lim, J. H. (2017, January 16). Laotian girl falls into the unknown world baseball game. *Sports W.* Retrieved from http://www.sportsw.kr/news/newsview.php?ncode=1065572661302836

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry.* CA, USA: Sage.

Lindsey, I., & Banda, D. (2011). Sport and the fight against HIV/AIDS in Zambia: A partnership approach?. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport, 46*(1), 90-107.

Lindsey, I., Kay, T., Jeanes, R., & Banda, D. (2017). *Localising global sport for development.* Manchester, UK: Manchester University Press.

Linz, J. J. (1994). Presidential or parliamentary democracy: Does it make a difference?. In J. J. Linz & A. Valenzuela (Eds.), *The failure of presidential democracy: The case of Latin America* (pp. 3-88). Baltimore, USA: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Lyras, A., & Peachey, J. W. (2011). Integrating sport for development theory and praxis. *Sport Management Review, 14*(4), 311-326.

Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (1995). *Designing qualitative research.* London, UK: Sage.

Maxwell, J. A. (1998). Designing a qualitative study. In L. Bickman & D. J. Rog (Eds.), *Handbook of applied social research methods* (pp. 69-100). London, UK: Sage.

Mayring, P. (2000). Qualitative content analysis. *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung, 1*(2). Retrieved from https://www.qualitative-research.net/index.php/fqs/article/view/1089

McPherson, B. D., Curtis, J. M., & Loy, J. W. (1989). *The social significance of sport.* Illinois: Human Kinetics Books.

Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education.* San Francisco, USA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Merriam, S. B. (2009). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation* (2nd ed.). CA, USA: Jossey-Bass.

Miler, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook*. CA, USA: Sage.

Milner, H. V. (1988). *Resisting protectionism: Global industries and the politics of international trade*. New Jersey, USA: Princeton University Press.

Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism. (1999). *The four major reforms hastened to enhance national competitiveness.* Retrieved from https://www.korea.kr/news/policyNewsView.do?newsId=148750040

Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism. (2007). *Reformation of civil government: Removal of the former governor general's office building and removal of steel pile*. Seoul, South Korea. Retrieved from https://www.korea.kr/news/policyNewsView.do?newsId=148750010

Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism. (2012). *Sport white paper*. Seoul, South Korea. Retrieved from https://mcst.go.kr/kor/s_policy/dept/deptView.jsp?pSeq=563&pDataCD=0417000000&pType=

Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism. (2013). *Sport white paper*. Seoul, South Korea. Retrieved from https://www.mcst.go.kr/kor/s_policy/dept/deptView.jsp?pSeq=1560&pDataCD=0406000000&pType

Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism. (2014a, March 11). *Accelerate the creation of a creative economy ecosystem… full-scale creation of performance.*

Retrieved   from
https://www.korea.kr/news/policyNewsView.do?newsId=148775244

Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism. (2014b). *Sport white paper*. Sejong, South
Korea   Retrieved   from
https://www.mcst.go.kr/kor/s_policy/dept/deptView.jsp?pSeq=1593&pDataC
D=0406000000

Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism. (2015). *Sport white paper*. Sejong, South
Korea.   Retrieved   from
https://mcst.go.kr/kor/s_policy/dept/deptView.jsp?pSeq=1698&pDataCD=04
06000000&pType=07

Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism. (2016). *Sport white paper*. Sejong, South
Korea.   Retrieved   from
https://www.mcst.go.kr/kor/s_policy/dept/deptView.jsp?pSeq=1699&pDataC
D=0406000000

Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism. (2017a). *Sport white paper*. Sejong, South
Korea.   Retrieved   from
https://www.mcst.go.kr/kor/s_policy/dept/deptView.jsp?pSeq=1755&pDataC
D=0406000000&pType=07

Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism. (2017b). *A five-year plan for operation of
state affairs and 100 national political agenda of Moon jae-in's administration.*
Retrieved from https://www.korea.kr/archive/expDocView.do?docId=37595

Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism. (2018). *Sport white paper*. Sejong, South
Korea.   Retrieved   from
https://mcst.go.kr/kor/s_policy/dept/deptView.jsp?pSeq=1434&pDataCD=04
17000000&pType=07

Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism. (2019). *Sport white paper*. Sejong, South
Korea.   Retrieved   from
https://www.mcst.go.kr/kor/s_policy/dept/deptView.jsp?pSeq=1527&pDataC
D=0417000000&pType=07

Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism. (2019). *2018 PyeongChang Legacy
Foundation   to   hold   its   inaugural   meeting.*   Retrieved   from
https://www.mcst.go.kr/kor/s_notice/press/pressView.jsp?pMenuCD=030200
0000&pSeq=17177

Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism. (2020). *What is income-driven growth?*. Retrieved   from https://www.korea.kr/special/policyCurationView.do?newsId=148861934

Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade. (2015). *2ⁿᵈ basic plan on international development* cooperation. Retrieved from https://eiec.kdi.re.kr/policy/materialView.do?num=148197

Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade. (2019). *What is international development cooperation*. Seoul, South Korea. Retrieved from http://www.mofa.go.kr/www/wpge/m_3816/contents.do

Ministry of Government Legislation. (2020a). *Regulations on the implementation of sports promotion project by the Seoul Olympic Memorial Korea Sports Promotion Foundation.* Retrieved November 12, 2020, from https://www.law.go.kr/LSW//admRulLsInfoP.do?admRulSeq=3479

Ministry of Government Legislation. (2020b). *Basic regulations on international development cooperation.* Retrieved July 24, 2020, from https://www.law.go.kr/LSW/lsInfoP.do?efYd=20150416&lsiSeq=160744#0000

Mintzberg, H. (2006). Developing leaders? Developing countries? *Development in Practice, 16*(1), 4-14.

Moon, H. M. (2018). A comparative study on the public diplomacy of local governments in Korea and China: Focused on Gyeonggi-do and Shandon-Sheng [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Hanyang University, Seoul, South Korea.

Moon, K. R. (2003, January 20). The relationship between civic groups and the Roh's administration. *JoongAng Ilbo*. Retrieved from https://news.joins.com/article/106577

Moravcsik, A. (1992). *Liberalism and international relations theory.* Cambridge, USA: Center for International Affairs, Harvard University.

Moravcsik, A. (1993). Preferences and power in the European Community: A liberal intergovernmentalist approach. *Journal of Common Market Studies, 31*(4), 473-524.

Moravcsik, A. (1995). Explaining international human rights regimes: Liberal theory and Western Europe. *European Journal of International Relations, 1*(2), 157-189.

Moravcsik, A. (1997). Taking preferences seriously: A liberal theory of international politics, *International Organisation, 51*(4), 513-553.

Moravcsik, A. (1998). *The choice for Europe: Social purpose and state power from Messina to Maastricht*. New York, USA: Cornell University Press.

Moravcsik, A. (1999). *The choice for Europe: Social purpose and state power from Messina to Maastricht*. London, UK: Cornell University Press.

Moravcsik, A. (2008). The new liberalism. In C. Reus-Smit & D. Snidai (Eds.), *The Oxford Handbook of International Relations* (pp. 158-183). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Moravcsik, A., & Schimmelfennig, F. (2009). Liberal intergovernmentalism. In A. Wiener & T. Diez (Eds.), *European Integration Theory* (pp. 67-87). New York, USA: Oxford University Press.

Murchison, J. M. (2010). *Ethnography essentials: Designing, conducting and presenting your research.* New Jersey, USA: John Wiley and Sons.

Myers, M. D. (2019). *Qualitative research in business and management*. CA, USA: Sage.

Na, D. K., & Dallaire, C. (2015). Korean sport for international development initiatives: Exploring new research avenues. *Asia Pacific Journal of Sport and Social Science, 4*(3), 251-264.

Nachmias, C., & Nachmias, D. (1996). *Research methods in the social sciences*. New York, USA: St. Martin's Press.

National Archives of Korea. (2019). *Saemaul movement.* Retrieved from https://www.archives.go.kr/next/search/searchTotalUp.do?selectSearch=1&upside_query=%EC%83%88%EB%A7%88%EC%9D%84%EC%9A%B4%EB%8F%99

New economy 100 days plan. (1993, March 8). *MK.* Retrieved from https://www.mk.co.kr/news/home/view/1993/03/10092/

Nicholls, A. (2009). We do good thing, don't we?: Blended value accounting in social entrepreneurship. *Accounting, Organisations and Society, 34*(6), 755-769.

Nobel Peace Prize winner, President Kim. (2000, October 14). JoongAng Ilbo. Retrieved from https://news.joins.com/article/3981573

Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation. (2011). Norads prinsipper for stotte tilsivilt samfunn. Retrieved May 5, 2020, from

http://www.norad.no/no/tema/demokrati-og-styresett/sivilt-samfunn/styrke-sivilt-samfunn

Nye, J. S. (1981). Maintaining a non-proliferation regime. *International Organisation, 35*(1), 15-38.

Nye, J. S. (1990). Soft power. *Foreign Policy, 80*(3), 153-171.

Nye, J. S., & Keohane, R. O. (1971). Transnational relations and world politics. *International Organisation, 25*(3), 329-349.

OCA. (2021). *Olympasia.* Retrieved June 30, 2021, from https://ocasia.org/council/olympasia/

ODA Korea. (2017). *2017 South Korea's ODA white paper*. International Development Cooperation Committee. Sejong, South Korea.

ODA Korea. (2019a). *Performance and change since joining the DAC of the OECD*. Retrieved September 1, 2019, from http://www.odakorea.go.kr/ODAPage_2018/category02/L00_S01_01.jsp#

ODA Korea. (2019b). *2ⁿᵈ basic plan for international development cooperation*. Retrieved September 2, 2019, from http://www.odakorea.go.kr/ODAPage_2018/category02/L02_S01_02.jsp

ODA Korea. (2020a). *Support performance*. Retrieved Dec 1, 2020, from http://www.odakorea.go.kr/ODAPage_2018/category02/L03_S02.jsp

ODA Korea. (2020b). *Comprehensive implementation plan for international development cooperation for 20 years.* International Development Cooperation Committee. Sejong, South Korea.

ODA Korea. (2020c). *ODA structure*. Retrieved July 19, 2020, from http://odakorea.go.kr/ODAPage_2018/category02/L02_S02_03.jsp

ODA Korea. (2021). *3ʳᵈ basic plan for international development cooperation*. Retrieved June 30, 2021, from https://www.odakorea.go.kr/ODAPage_2018/category02/L02_S01_01.jsp

Oden, C. (2020). *Understanding theoretical and practical implications in research paper.* Retrieved from https://www.projecttopics.org/understanding-theoretical-and-practical-implications-in-research-papers.html

OECD DAC. (1996). *Shaping the 21ˢᵗ century: The contribution of development co-operation.* Retrieved November 20, 2020, from https://www.oecd.org/dac/2508761.pdf

Oh, H. G. (2018). Uses of Taekwondo in strategies for improving Korea's international development cooperation projects. [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Keimyung University, Dae-gu, South Korea.

Oh, M. H. (1999). *Understanding of Korea's modern political history.* Seoul, South Korea: Book-Publishing Ohrm.

Oh, S. C. (2014). The era recognition and new development policy of Park Chung Hee: Focus on comparison and analysis from "the nation and revolution and I", "the strength of the nation", and "the road of national revival". [Unpublished master dissertation]. Dong-A University, Busan, South Korea.

Okada, C. (2018). Sport for development: Japan*. Journal of Sport for Development, 6*(11), 15-20.

Olympic Council of Asia. (2020). *OCA…who we are?.* Retrieved June 22, 2020, from https://ocasia.org/council/

Onuf, N. G. (1989). *World of our making: Rules and rule in social theory and international relations*. Columbia, USA: University of South Carolina Press.

Orenstein, M. (2008). *Privatizing pensions: The transnational campaign for social security reform.* New Jersey, USA: Princeton University Press.

Osamu, S. (2019). *Sport for tomorrow: Sport for all.* Retrieved November 10, 2019, from https://www.japanjournal.jp/diplomacy/international-cooperation/pt20190617165345.html

Oxford, S. (2017). The social, cultural and historical complexities that shape and constrain space in an SDP organization in Colombia. *Journal of Sport for Development, 6*(10), 1-11.

Papisca, A. (2008). International law and human rights as a legal basis for the international involvement of local governments. In A Musch, C. Valk, A. Sizzo & K. Tajbakhsh (Eds.), *City diplomacy: The role of local governments in conflict prevention, peace-building post-conflict reconstruction* (pp. 27-46). Hague, Netherlands: VNG international.

Park, B. J. (1996). Changes in the composition of the Korean family. *Korean Studies Quarterly, 19*(2), 39-58.

Park, C. J. (2015, April 5). WT president Cho Jung-won urged the UN and the IOC to join the creation of a sports peace volunteer corps. *Sports Chosun*. Retrieved from

https://www.sports.chosun.com/news/ntype.htm?id=2015040601000568600 03606&servicedate=20150405

Park, D. H. (2017, March 10). Failing points in the economic report card…474 vision of the Park's government. *Yonhap News.* Retrieved from https://www.yna.co.kr/view/AKR20170310128900002

Park, J. H. (2020). Unpopular sports events which won't go without the chairman. *Newsis.* Retrieved from https://newsis.com/view/?id=NISX20201013_0001195909&cID=10501&pI D=10500

Park, J. K. (2009). *Major economic policies of Korea's previous administration.* Seoul, South Korea: Korea Economic Research Institute.

Park, J. S. (2016). A research of Taekwondo official development assistance of Kukkiwon [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Sungkyunkwan University, Gyeonggi-do, South Korea

Park, J. S. (2018, November 7). The Moon Jae-in's government's economic record for one and a half years. *The Kyunghyang Shinmun.* Retrieved from http://news.khan.co.kr/kh_news/khan_art_view.html?art_id=2018110720460 25

Park, J. S., Kim, Y. E., & Koo, J. Y. (2018). A research of Taekwondo official development assistance of Kukkuwon. *Korean Society of Sport Policy, 16*(3), 159-189.

Park, J. W. (2011). Elite sport development in South Korea: An analysis of policy change in the sports of athletics, archery and baseball [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Loughborough University, Loughborough, UK.

Park, J. W., & Lim, S. Y. (2015). A chronological review of the development of elite sport policy in South Korea. *Asia Pacific Journal of Sport and Social Science, 4*(3), 198-210.

Park, S. P. (2012). The development of Korean civil society after 1990s. *Memory & Vision, 27*, 162-191.

Park, S. W. (2009, February 19). *PyeongChang will host the 2018 Winter Olympics*. Seoul: Radio Free Asia

Park, Y. J. (2008, July 1). Growth is under the Jeon Doo-hwan and inflation is under the Roh Moo-hyun. *Hankyung.* Retrieved from https://www.hankyung.com/politics/article/2008070120748

Park, Y. K. (2014). A study on the improvement of the suspension of the prosecution with the supervision for the juvenile in Korea. *Journal of Juvenile Protection, 25*(1), 139-164.

Paster, T. (2005). The new modes of EU governance: Combining rationalism and constructivism in explaining voluntarist policy coordination in the EU. *Österreichische Zeitschrift für Politikwissenschaft, 34*(2), 147-161.

Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods* (2nd ed.). CA, USA: Sage.

Patton, M. Q. (2002). Two decades of developments in qualitative inquiry: A personal, experiental perspective. *Qualitative Social Work, 1*(3), 261-283.

Peachey, J. W., Borland, J., Lobpries., & Cohen, A. (2015). Managing impact: Leveraging sacred spaced and community celebration to maximise social capital at a sport for development event. *Sport Management Review, 18*(1), 86-98.

Peachey, J. W., Cohen, A., Borland, J., & Lyras, A. (2013). Building social capital: Examining the impact of street soccer USA on its volunteers. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport, 48*(1), 20-37.

Perry, C. (1998). Processes of a case study methodology for postgraduate research in marketing. *European Journal of Marketing, 32*(9), 785-802.

Philip, L. J. (1998). Combining quantitative and qualitative approach to social research in human geography: An impossible mixture. *Environment and Planning A: Economy and Space, 30*(2), 261-276.

Poliakoff, M. B. (1987). *Combat sports in the ancient world: Competition, violence and culture*. London, UK: Yale University Press.

Polit, D. F., & Beck, C. T. (2012). *Nursing research: Generating and assessing evidence for nursing practice* (9th ed.). Philadelphia, USA: Williams & Wilkins.

Ponterotto, J. G. (2005). Qualitative research in counselling psychology: A primer on research paradigms and philosophy of science. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 52*(2), 126-136.

President Roh-Tae-woo's inauguration address. (1988, February, 25). *JoongAng Ilbo.* Retrieved from https://news.joins.com/article/2221172

Presidential Archives. (2019a). *The civil service administration: The 14th President Kim Young-sam.* Retrieved from https://www.pa.go.kr/research/contents/policy/index0606.jsp

Presidential Archives. (2019b). *Peaple's government: The 15th President Kim Dae-jung.*   Retrieved   from https://www.pa.go.kr/research/contents/policy/index0607.jsp

Price, J. L. (1997). Handbook of organizational measurement. *International Journal of Manpower, 18*(4-1), 305-558.

Price, R. (2003). Transnational civil society and advocacy in world politics. *World Politics, 55*(4), 579-606.

Price, R., & Reus-Smit, C. (1998). Dangerous liaisons? Critical international theory and constructivism. *European Journal of International Relations, 4*(3), 259-294.

Rajasekar, S., Philominathan, P., & Chinnathambi, V. (2013). *Research Methodology.* Retrieved from https://arxiv.org/pdf/physics/0601009.pdf

Reignition for 2014 Winter Olympics bid. (2004, February 14). *YTN.* Retrieved from https://news.naver.com/main/read.nhn?mode=LSD&mid=sec&sid1=115&oid=052&aid=0000027275

Reus-Smit, C. (2002). Imagining society: Constructivism and the English school. *The British Journal of Politics & International Relations, 4*(3), 487-509.

Richards, K. (2003). *Qualitative inquiry in TESOL.* New York, USA: Palgrave Macmillan.

Ridder, H. G. (2017). The theory contribution of case study research designs. *Business Research, 10*(2), 281-305.

Risse-Kappen, T. (1994). Ideas do not float freely: Transnational coalitions, domestic structures, and the end of the cold war. *International Organization, 48*(2), 185-214.

Risse-Kappen, T. (1995). Democratic peace-warlike democracies?: A social constructivist interpretation of the liberal argument. *European Journal of International Relations, 1*(4), 491-517.

Risse-Kappen, T., Risse, T., Ropp, S. C., & Sikkink, K. (1999). *The power of human rights: International norms and domestic change.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Roethig, P. (1992). *Sport-wissenschaftliches lexicon.* Schorndorf, Germany: Hofmann.

Rogowski, R. (1990). *Commerce and coalitions: How trade affects domestic political alignments.* New Jersey, USA: Princeton University Press.

Roh, H. D. (2008, February 5). 'Small government and big market' state of the Lee Myung-bak administration blueprint. *The Hankyoreh.* http://www.hani.co.kr/arti/politics/politics_general/268018.html

Roh Moo-hyun Foundation. (2008). *Records are history.* Retrieved from http://archives.knowhow.or.kr/

Roh Moo-hyun government's performance and limitations of the welfare policies. (2009). *The Hankyoreh.* Retrieved from http://www.hani.co.kr/arti/society/rights/389474.html

Rostow, W. W. (1960). *The stages of economic growth: A non-communist manifesto.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Rubin, A., & Babbie, E. R. (2007). *Survey research methods.* CA, USA: Brooks/Cole.

Ruddin, L. P. (2006). You can generalize stupid!: Social scientists, bend flyvbjerg, and case study methodology. *Qualitative Inquiry, 12*(4), 797-812.

Ryu, Y. S. (2013, October 31). Shin-han bank selected as the official bank of the 2014 Incheon Asian Games. *MK.* Retrieved from https://www.mk.co.kr/news/economy/view/2013/10/1064572/

Sachs, W. (2010). *Preface to the new edition. The development dictionary: A guide to knowledge as power* (2nd ed.). London, UK: Zed Books.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2016). *Research methods for business students.* Munich, Germany: Pearson.

Scholte, J. A. (2010). Governing a more global world. *Corporate Governance, 10*(4), 459-474.

Schreiner, L., Mayer, J., & Kastrup, V. (2021). National sport for development and peace programmes in light of UN recommendations and national sports organisations' endeavours: A document analysis of the role of sports in Germany's development policy. *European Journal for Sport and Society, 18*(2), 114-134.

Schulenkorf, N., & Adair, D. (2014). *Global sport for development: Critical perspectives.* London, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Schulenkorf, N., Sherry, E., & Rowe, K. (2016). Sport for development: An integrated literature review. *Journal of Sport Management, 30*(1), 22-39.

Schulenkorf, N., Thomson, A., & Schlenker, K. (2011). Intercommunity sport events: Vehicles and catalysts for social capital in divided societies. *Event Management, 15*(2), 105-119.

Seong, W. Y. (2015, August 7). President Park's statement, why desperate but unsympathetic. *The Hankyoreh.* Retrieved from http://www.hani.co.kr/arti/politics/politics_general/703539.html

Seong, Y. B. (2018, May 10). Park Chung-hee keeps his mouth shut, and explicit press oppression. *The Hankyoreh.* Retrieved from http://www.hani.co.kr/arti/society/media/625108.html

Seoul National University. (2018). *2018 Dream Together Master.* Retrieved from http://rugby.org.ua/upload/files/02.Dream_Together_Master_Program_Broch ure_2018-2020.pdf

Sheppard, L. (2020). *Are sport interventions kicking the right goals for indigenous people?* Retrieved July 9, 2021, from https://habs.uq.edu.au/article/2020/09/sport-interventions-kicking-right-goals-indigenous-people

Sherry, E., Schulenkorf, N., & Chalip, L. (2015). Managing sport for social change: The state of play. *Sport Management Review, 18*(1), 1-5.

Shilbury, D., Sotiriadou, K. P., & Green, B. C. (2008). Sport development, systems, policies and pathways: An introduction to the special issue. *Sport Management Review, 11*(3), 217-223.

Shim, J. Y. (2013). *The history of political affairs in Korea.* Seoul, South Korea: Baeksan Seodang.

Shin, Y. (2013, October 21). Between the president's pledge and fraud. *MK.* Retrieved from https://www.mk.co.kr/opinion/columnists/view/2013/10/1012702/

Sidaway, J. D. (2008). Subprime crisis: American crisis or human crisis?. *Environment and Planning D: Society and Space, 26*(2), 195-198.

Sikkink, K. (1993). Human rights, principled issue-networks, and sovereignty in Latin America. *International Organisation, 47*(3), 411-441.

Sikkink, K. (1998). Transnational politics, international relations theory and human rights. *Political Science & Politics, 31*(3), 517-523.

Silverman, D. (2013). *Doing qualitative research* (4th ed.). London, UK: Sage.

Snape, D., & Spencer, L. (2003). The foundations of qualitative research. In J. Ritchie & J. Lewis (Eds.), *Qualitative research practice* (pp. 1-23). London, UK: Sage.

Sohn, H. S., Lee, J. Y., & Yeo, W. Y. (2014). The constructivist approach to the international development norm construction: The case of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the post-2015 framework. *Korean Journal of International Relations, 54*(1), 231-265.

Sohn, H. S., & Moon, K. Y. (2012). Norm internalization and political environment: Case studies on Sweden and Germany's policy coherence for development (PCD). *The Korean Journal of Area Studies, 30*(1), 7-38.

Song, B. N. (1990). *The rise of the Korean economy.* New York, USA: Oxford University Press.

Song, K. S. (1994). A study for definition on confused foreign physical education terms. *Journal of Sport and Leisure Studies, 2*, 209-215.

Sportanddev. (2020). *Vision, mission and goals.* Retrieved May 31, 2020, from https://www.sportanddev.org/en/about-platform/vision-mission-and-goals

Sportanddev. (2021). *UK sport.* Retrieved July 8, 2021, from https://www.sportanddev.org/en/organisation/uk-sport

Sportfordevelopment.NL. (2020). *Where we work.* Retrieved April 30, 2020, from https://www.sportfordevelopment.nl/waar-wij-werken/?lang=en

Sport Canada. (2021). *Sport in Canada.* Retrieved July 10, 2021, from https://www.canada.ca/en/canadian-heritage/services/sport-canada.html

Sport Exchange Australia. (2021). *Our reach.* Retrieved July 9, 2021, from https://www.sportexchange.gov.au/

Sport For Tomorrow. (2020). *What is sport for tomorrow?.* Retrieved March 7, 2020, from https://www.sport4tomorrow.jpnsport.go.jp/about/

Stake, R. E. (1995). *The art of case study research.* London, UK: Sage.

Statistics Korea. (2020). *Public sector.* Retrieved September 21, 2020, from http://kostat.go.kr/understand/info/info_lge/1/detail_lang.action?bmode=detail_lang&pageNo=2&keyWord=0&cd=SL3980&sTt=

Stone, D. (2004). Transfer agents and global networks in the transnationalisation of policy. *Journal of European Public Policy, 11*(3), 545-566.

Straume, S. (2012). Norwegian naivety meets Tanzanian reality: The case of the Norwegian sports development programme, Sport for All, in Dar es Salaam, in the 1980s. *International Journal of the History of Sport, 29*(11), 1577-1599.

Sun, D. I. (2012, December 14). 10 terrible graphs of the Lee Myung-bak government five years. *Media Today.* Retrieved from http://www.mediatoday.co.kr/news/articleView.html?idxno=106606

Svensson, P., & Woods, H. (2017). A systematic overview of sport for development and peace organisations. *Journal of Sport for Development, 5*(9), 36-48.

Team Up. (2021). *Team up programme design overview.* Retrieved July 4, 2021, from https://www.teamup.gov.au/resources/team-program-design-overview

Terre Blanche, N., & Burrheim, K. (1999). Histories of the present: Social science research in context. *Research in Practice: Applied Methods for the Social Sciences, 2*(1), 1-17.

Thomson, J. E. (1993). Norms in international relations: A conceptual analysis. *International Journal of Group Tensions, 23*(1), 67-83.

Todaro, M. P. (2000). *Economic development*. Boston, USA: Addison Wesley.

Tokyo 2020 (2020). *FAQ.* Retrieved August 13, 2020, from https://tokyo2020.org/ko/utilities/faq

TPC. (2020). *Introduction of foundation.* Retrieved June 14, 2020, from http://www.tpcorps.org/company/about

Trochim, W. M. K. (2002). *The research methods knowledge base* (2nd ed). New York, USA: Cornell University.

UK Sport. (2006). *Annual report 2005-2006.* Retrieved from https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/231757/1160.pdf

UK Sport. (2007). *Annual report 2006-2007.* Retrieved from https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/uk-sport-annual-report-2006-to-2007

Ulusoy, H. (2003). Revisiting security communities after the Cold war: The constructivist perspective. *Perceptions: Journal of International Affairs, 8*(3), 1-22.

UNICEF. (2019). *Sport for development and peace.* Retrieved from https://www.unicef.org/syria/stories/sports-development-and-peace

United Nations. (1986). *Declaration on the right to development.* Retrieved March 20, 2018, from https://www.ohchr.org/en/professionalinterest/pages/righttodevelopment.aspx

United Nations. (2003). *UN General Assembly Resolution 58/5: Sport as a means to promote health, education, development and peace*. Retrieved Jan 6, 2019, from https://www.sportanddev.org/en/document/un-reports-un-resolutions/un-general-assembly-resolution-585-sport-means-promote-health

United Nations. (2020). *Convention on the Rights of Person with Disabilities and protocol of choice.* Retrieved August, 10, 2020, from www.un.org/disabilities/documents/natl/korea.doc

United Nations Office on Sport for Development and Peace. (2013). *Annual report 2012.* Retrieved April 15, 2018, from https://www.sportanddev.org/sites/default/files/downloads/unosdp_annual_report_2012_final.pdf

USAID. (2020). *USAID history*. Retrieved Feb 15, 2020, from https://www.usaid.gov/who-we-are/usaid-history

Van Dyke, V. (1962). Values and interests. *The American Political Science Review, 56*(3), 567-576.

Van Eekeren, F., Horst, K., & Fictorie, D. (2013). *Sport for development: The potential value and next steps review of policy, programs and academic research 1998-2013*. Retrieved Jan 21, 2019, from https://www.sportanddev.org/sites/default/files/downloads/sfdpotentialvalueweb_1.pdf

Viotti, P. R., & Kauppi, M. V. (2010). *International relations theory (5th ed).* New York, USA: Pearson.

Vision Programme White Paper. (2015). *OCA-Incheon vision 2014 programme.* Incheon, South Korea: Department of Sports Promotion in Incheon City.

Wallace, H. (1999). Piecing the integration jigsaw together. *Journal of European Public Policy, 6*(1), 155-159.

Wapner, P. K. (1996). Environmental activism and world civic politics. New York, USA: Suny Press.

Watson, I. (2012). Paradoxical multiculturalism in South Korea. *Asian Politics & Policy, 4*(2), 233-258.

Weber, R. P. (1985). *Basic content analysis.* London, UK: Sage.

Weidenfeld, W. (2010). Die Bilanz der Europaischen Integration 2010. In *Jahrbuch der Europaischen Integration 2010* (pp. 12-27). Nomos Verlagsgesellschaft mbH & Co. KG.

Weiss, T. G., & Pasic, A. (1997). Reinventing UNHCR: Enterprising humanitarians in the former Yugoslavia, 1991-1995. *Global Governance, 3*(1), 41-57.

Welty Peachey, J., Cohen, A., Borland, J., & Lyras, A. (2013). Building social capital: Examining the impact of street soccer USA on its volunteers. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport, 48*(1), 20-37.

Wendt, A. (1992). Anarchy is what state make of it: The social construction of power politics. In J. D. Derian (Eds.), *International theory* (pp. 129-177). London, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Wendt, A. (1994). Collective identity formation and the international state. *American Political Science Review, 88*(2), 382-396.

Wendt, A. (1995). Constructing international politics. *International Security, 20*(1), 71-81.

Wendt, A. (1997). The agent-structure problem in international relations theory. *International Organisation, 41*(3), 335-370.

Wendt, A. (1999). *Social theory of international politics*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

WFK. (2017). *Let's take a look at IVCO forum.* Retrieved July 21, 2020, from https://m.blog.naver.com/PostView.nhn?blogId=wfk2012&logNo=22110199 9416&proxyReferer=http:%2F%2Fwww.google.co.kr%2Furl%3Fsa%3Dt%2 6rct%3Dj%26q%3D%26esrc%3Ds%26source%3Dweb%26cd%3D3%26ved %3D2ahUKEwjz7cSb6YrpAhXJGewKHcMmAnEQFjACegQIBBAB%26ur l%3Dhttp%253A%252F%252Fm.blog.naver.com%252Fwfk2012%252F221 101999416%26usg%3DAOvVaw2pt9YCULJSNFVFoHneok2I

WFK. (2020). *What is WFK?: Development aid and oversea volunteering corps*. Retrieved July 20, 2020, from https://m.blog.naver.com/PostView.nhn?blogId=wfk2012&logNo=14020829 3515&proxyReferer=http:%2F%2Fwww.google.com%2Furl%3Fsa%3Dt%2 6rct%3Dj%26q%3D%26esrc%3Ds%26source%3Dweb%26cd%3D4%26ved %3D2ahUKEwiHxZ740tPoAhV4QEEAHUnED0wQFjADegQIAhAB%26ur l%3Dhttp%253A%252F%252Fm.blog.naver.com%252Fwfk2012%252F140 208293515%26usg%3DAOvVaw0Upxa3gqgCfcCWCo8_Akfu

Whitley, M. A., Farrell, K., Wolff, E. A., & Hillyer, S. J. (2019). Sport for development and peace: Surveying actors in the field. *Journal of Sport for Development, 7*(11), 1-15.

Williams, C. (2007). Research methods. *Journal of Business & Economic Research, 5*(1), 65-72.

Willis, J. (1995). A recursive, reflective instructional design model based on constructivist-interpretivist theory. *Educational Technology, 35*(6), 5-23.

Won, D. H. (2018). Effect on Korea's national brand image according to satisfaction of participants in beneficiary countries of World Taekwondo Peace Corps activities [Unpublished master dissertation]. Korea National Sport University, Seoul, South Korea.

Won, H. J., & Hong, E. A. (2015). The development of sport policy and management in South Korea. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics, 7*(1), 141-152.

Woo-Cumings, M. (2001). Miracle as prologue: The state and the reform of the corporate sector in Korea. *Rethinking the East Asian Miracle*, 343-378. In E. S. Joseph & S. Yusuf (Eds.), *Rethinking the East Asian Miracle* (pp. 347-378). World Bank and Oxford University Press.

World Bank. (2006). *World development report 2007: Development and the next generation.* Retrieved December 18, 2019, from https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/5989

World Friends Korea. (2020). What is WFK?. Retrieved July 12, 2020, from http://www.worldfriendskorea.or.kr/view/intro.brand.do

World Research. (2016). *2016 ODA public awareness survey report.* Seoul, South Korea: World Research.

Yang, S. R. (2015, October 30). SNU, enhancing international cooperation for cultivating sports administrators in developing countries. *News1*. Retrieved from https://www.news1.kr/articles/?2473872

Yang, W. J. (2016, April 5). More than 200 "other public organisations"…trying to avoid management evaluation. *New daily.* Retrieved from http://biz.newdaily.co.kr/site/data/html/2016/04/05/2016040510057.html

Yang, Y. M. (2012). *Promoting ODA through public-private cooperation: Is it good or bad?*. Retrieved from http://www.peoplepower21.org/PSPD_press/990329

Yazan, B. (2015). Three approaches to case study methods in education: Yin, Merriam and Stake. *The Qualitative Report, 20*(2), 134-152.

Yeun, K. Y. (2008). Structure for the enactment of fundamental law of sport in Korea. *The Journal of Sports and Entertainment Law, 11*(4), 113-143.

Yim, G. B. (2014). A plan for advancement of Taekwondo in Malaysia through active official development assistance for sports [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Korea University, Seoul, South Korea.

Yin, R. K. (2003). *Case study research: Design and methods* (3rd ed.). CA, USA: Sage.

Yin, R. K. (2011). *Applications of case study research*. London, UK: Sage.

Yin, R. K. (2014). *Case study research: Design and methods* (5th ed.). CA, USA: Sage.

Yin, R. K., & Davis, D. (2007). Adding new dimensions to case study evaluations: The case of evaluating comprehensive reforms. *New Directions for Evaluation, 113*, 75-93.

Yoon, K. Y., Choi, H. S., & Hong, J. K. (2009, August 20). The DJ government's biggest current surplus…economic excellence. *Yonhap News.* Retrieved from https://www.yna.co.kr/view/MYH20090820002400038

Yun, J. W., Mun, Y., & Ju, S. T. (2011). The study on mediated effects of self-esteem and moderated effects of self-efficacy between sports voucher participation and self-leadership of low-income family adolescents. *The Korean Journal of Physical Education, 50*(1), 75-89.

Appendix A: Interviewee Information (N=14)

SfD Programme	Anonymous Name	Affiliation	Position	Method and Date
Dream Programme	Interviewee A	Department of Sports Promotion, Gangwon Provincial Government	Programme Manager	Face-to-Face (03/04/2019)
	Interviewee B	Department of Sports Promotion, Gangwon Provincial Government	Programme Manager	Face-to-Face (03/04/2019)
	Interviewee C	Department of Sports Heritage, Ministry of Sport, Culture and Tourism (MCST)	Programme Manager	Face-to-Face (02/04/2019)
	Interviewee D	Department of Fund Support, Korea Sports Promotion Foundation (KSPO)	Deputy General Manager	Face-to-Face (01/04/2019)
	Interviewee E	Department of International Cooperation, Korea Paralympic Committee (KPC)	Head of Department	Face-to-Face (29/03/2019)
Dream Together Master Programme	Interviewee F	Department of International Sports, MCST	Deputy Director	Face-to-Face (02/04/2019)
	Interviewee G	Department of Physical Education, Seoul National University (SNU)	Head of Programme	Face-to-Face (28/03/2019)
	Interviewee H	Department of International Sports, KSPO	Programme Manager	Face-to-Face (04/04/2019)
	Interviewee D	Department of Fund Support, KSPO	Deputy General Manager	Face-to-Face (01/04/2019)
Vision 2014 Programme	Interviewee I	Department of Sports Promotion, Incheon City Hall	Programme Manager	Face-to-Face (29/03/2019)
	Interviewee J	National Assembly	Former Incheon Mayer	Face-to-Face (10/04/2019)
TPC Programme	Interviewee K	Department of Sports Heritage, MCST	Programme Manager	Face-to-Face (02/04/2019)
	Interviewee L	Department of International Cooperation, World Taekwondo Peace Corps	Programme Manager	Face-to-Face (02/04/2019)
	Interviewee D	Department of Fund Support, KSPO	Deputy General Manager	Face-to-Face (01/04/2019)
WFK-KOV Programme	Interviewee M	Department of Development Cooperation, Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade (MOFAT)	Programme Manager	Face-to-Face (25/03/2019)
	Interviewee N	Department of International Cooperation, Korea International Cooperation Agency (KOICA)	Programme Manager	Face-to-Face (12/04/2019)
	Interviewee E	Department of International Cooperation, KPC	Head of Department	Face-to-Face (29/03/2019)
YPSC Programme	Interviewee E	Department of International Cooperation, KPC	Head of Department	Face-to-Face (02/04/2019)

Appendix B: Example of Field Notes
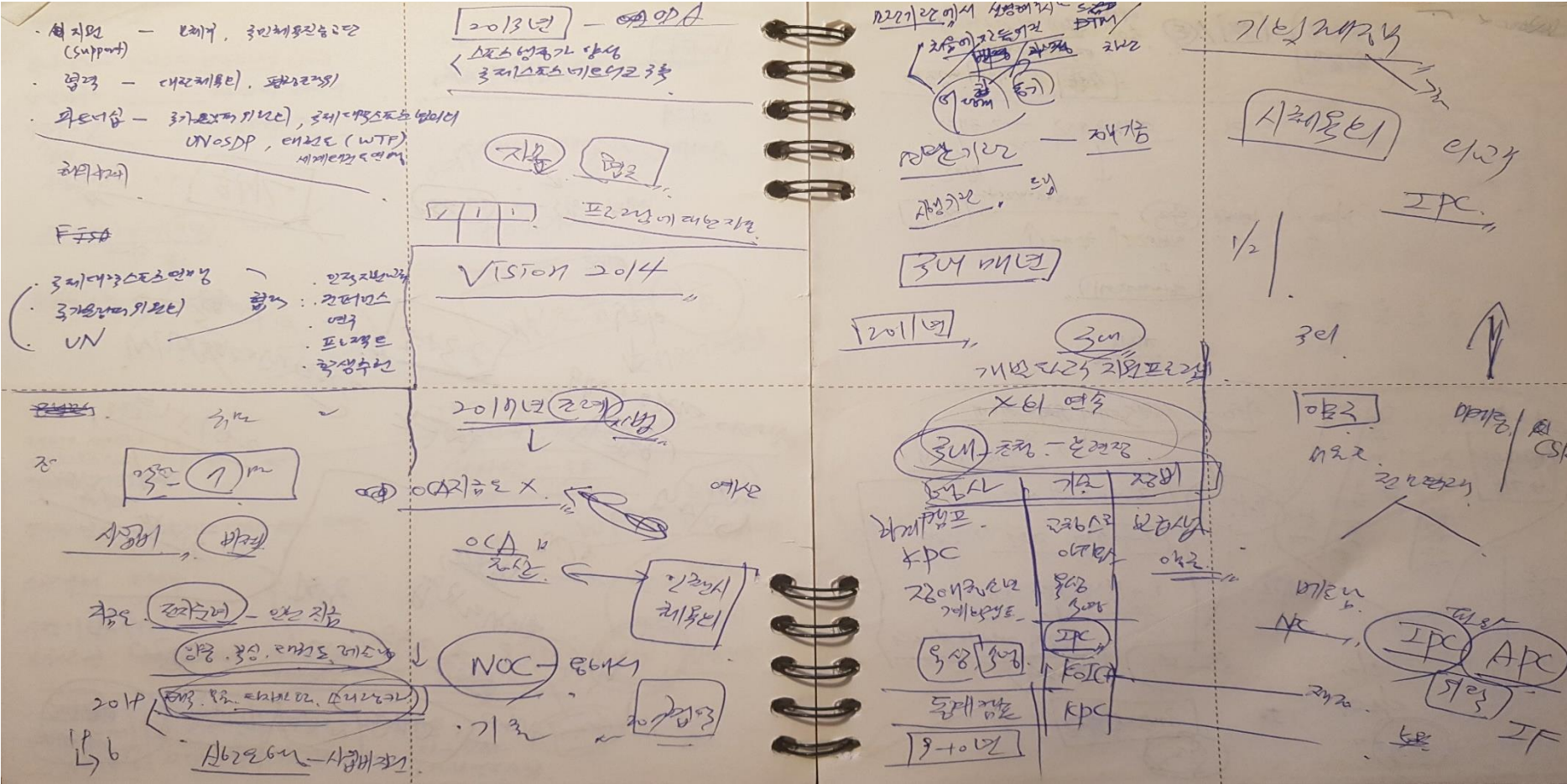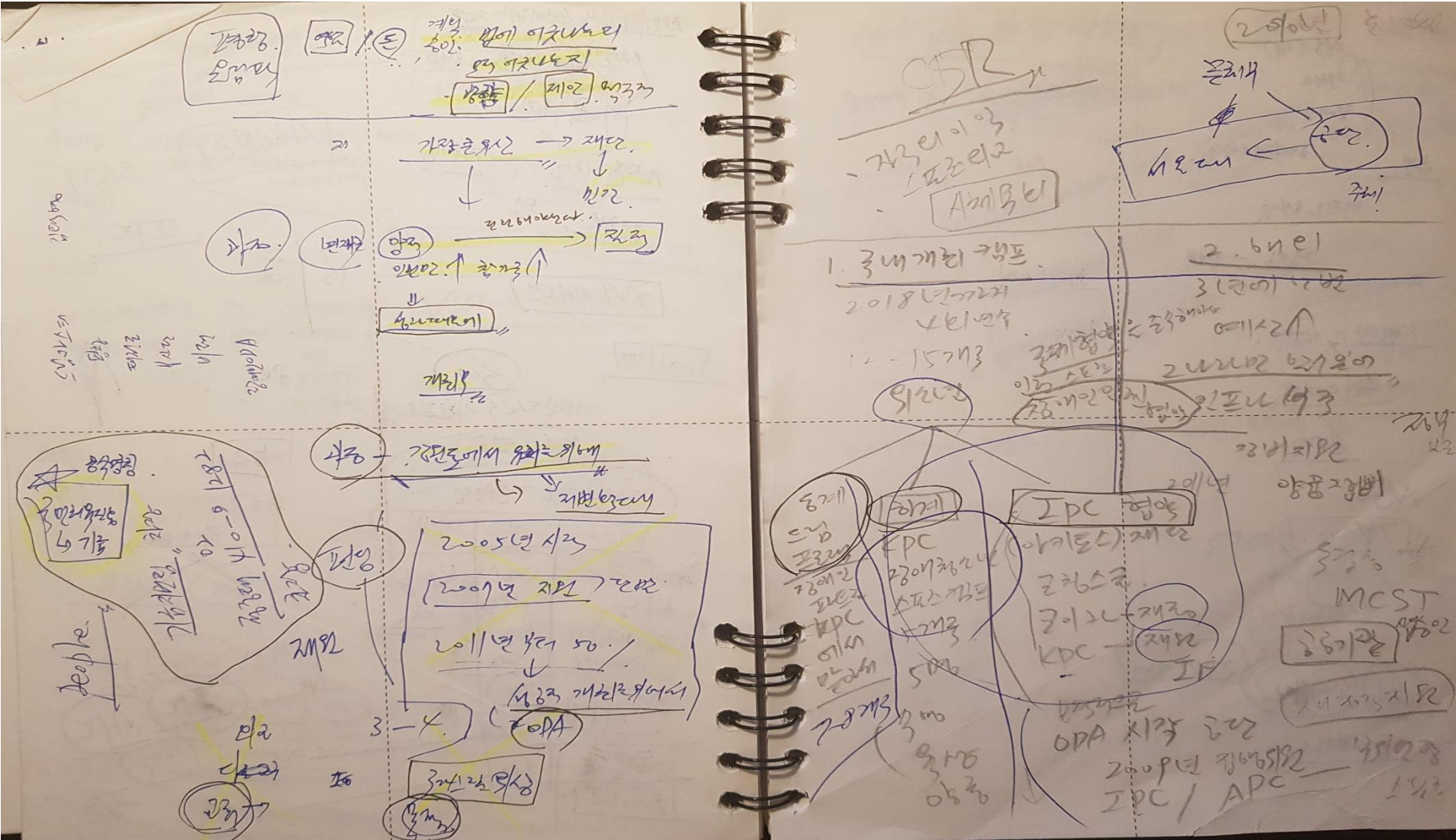
Appendix C: Example of Letter for Recruitment of Participants
(English Version)

Dear Professor XXX,

I am Jongchul Park, who is studying a Ph.D. programme under the supervision of Prof. Dr. Jürgen Mittag in the European Sport Development and Leisure Studies at German Sport University Cologne. I would appreciate if you kindly understand that it is my duty to visit and speak to you in person to ask for an interview.

To briefly introduce myself, I finished my bachelor's course at Korea National Sport University, and completed my master's course under the supervision of Prof. Dr. Kim at the university. After that, I graduated from Loughborough University with a master's degree in Sport Management in the UK, and now I am studying in Germany.

I am currently working on a Ph.D. study on 'Sport for Development approach in South Korea'. Through this study, I would like to conduct an in-depth and empirical investigation into Korea's SfD phenomena, such as actors, development process, role of government, support and motive) based on various SfD programmes in Korea. In addition, the purpose of this study is to identify if national preference formation theory and constructivism are applicable to the context of the Korean SfD approach.

As you know, the Dream Together Master Programme is regarded as a very important and representative SfD programme in Korea, so I believe that it would be essential for me to examine the programme in detail. In particular, you have actually led the programme, and your experience and knowledge on the programme are very important for my study so that my multiple case studies can help me identify diverse phenomena on SfD approach. Therefore, I am looking forward to hearing your advice for a moment.

Lastly, I am going to stay in South Korea from March 24 to April 18, 2019 for the collection of data. If you can spare some time (expected interview time: 30 minutes to 1 hour), I will be able to come at your convenience.

Thank you again for reading while you are busy.

Kind regards,

Jongchul Park from Cologne (Mar 5, 2019)

Appendix D: Information Sheet (English Version)

Research Title: Sport for Development Approach in South Korea

	Supervisor	**Researcher**
Name	Prof. Dr. Juergen Mittag	Jongchul Park
Affiliation	Institute of European Sport Development and Leisure Studies, German Sport University Cologne	
Contact	mittag@dshs-koeln.de	j.park@dshs-koeln.de

1. Purpose of This Study: Since the adoption of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in 2000 and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in 2015 in the UN, SfD approach has been active around the world. In line with this situation, Korea is conducting various SfD programmes as sport ODA with the aim of promoting social development and sport development in developing countries. At a time when the awareness and importance of SfD approach is increasing, I think that we need to conduct empirical research to investigate in depth the progress and motivation of the SfD approach in Korea. Through this study, I would like to contribute to understanding SfD phenomena in Korea, and to establish relevant policies in the future. Therefore, I would like to conduct an interview with people who are deeply involved in or in charge of Korea's representative SfD programmes.

2. Key Guidelines for Interview

➢ This study has been approved by IRB at German Sport University Cologne

➢ I will conduct a semi-structured interview for about 30 to 1 hour

➢ This study will be recorded with your consent, but you can reject if disagree

➢ Your personal information will never be used for any other purpose in the future

➢ Your information will be recorded anonymously

➢ There is no obligation to participate in the interview, and you can stop it at any time

➢ If you have any further questions, you can contact me and supervisor at any time

3. Key Interview Questions

➢ Actors: What role has your organization or agency played in the SfD programme?

➢ Development Process: How has the programme been promoted and developed?

➢ Role of Government: What role has the government played in the programme?

➢ Support: Who has supported the programme in financial and material aspects?

➢ Motive: What was the motivation and background for developing programme?

Appendix E: Consent Form (English Version)

Consent form

Project title: Sport for Development (SfD)in South Korea: National Preferences and Transnational Interaction in view of SfD Programmes

Project manager: Park, Jongchul, Deutsche Sporthochschule Köln, Institute of Eurepean Sport Development and Leisure Studies, Äußere kanalstraße 79, 50827, Köln, Telefon +49 178 1137046.

Supervisor: Univ.-Prof. Dr. Jürgen Mittag, Deutsche Sporthochschule Köln, Institute of Eurepean Sport Development and Leisure Studies, Am Sportpark Müngersdorf 6, 50933 Köln, Telefon 4982-2410.

- ✓ I have been working on this study to investigate a new international development and cooperation paradigm in terms of various SfD programme in Korea.
- ✓ For this study, the main role of interviewee is to provide the interviewer with comprehensive information and knowledge on each SfD programme to answer the interviewer's research questions.
- ✓ Specifically, I would like to conduct an in-depth and empirical study on the phenomenon, such as main actors, process, motivation, role of government and support.
- ✓ This study is expected to help understand the SfD phenomenon in Korea, and further suggest policy directions. Also, this would contribute to analytical generalisation based on current national preference formation and transnational constructivism theories.

The examination should be neither painful nor uncomfortable for you. You have the right to ask questions at any time and to stop the investigation at any time without risk or other disadvantages.

The German Sport University Cologne has no probation insurance for this project.

A liability for material damage against the sports university and its employees is excluded, unless the damage caused is based on intent or gross negligence.

Consent to the processing of personal data:

A processing of your personal data in the context of the above-mentioned research project is only possible with your express and voluntary consent.

Hereby you expressly agree that the German Sport University Cologne may collect, store and use the following personal data for the purpose of the research project: [List of personal data, e.g. Name, first name, address, date of birth, telephone number, e-mail address, biometric data, genetic data, health data, etc.]. [Only if intended for transfer to third parties: The German Sport University Cologne may transmit the above-mentioned data [alternatively: restriction on certain data (for example, only the e-mail address etc.] to ... for the purpose ...].

A publication of your data takes place only in anonymous form, so without the possibility to draw a conclusion on your person.

You can revoke this consent at any time with effect for the future without disadvantages. In this case your personal data will be deleted immediately. The revocation of consent does not affect the legality of the processing carried out on the basis of the consent until the revocation. A (further) participation in the research project is only possible with the consent.

By signing, you confirm that you have volunteered to participate in this research.

Participant (Date, Name):   2018. 4. 1

Researcher (Date, Name):   12/04/18   Jongchul park

Appendix F: Example of Main Questionnaire (English Version)

Interview Questions with a Participant in Charge of the Dream Programme

Category	Questions
Actors	1-1. What was main role of Gangwon Province and PyeongChang Legacy Foundation in the programme?
	1-2. Who were the other actors involved in the programme, and what role did they play?
	1-3. What were the roles of countries and the NOCs participating in the programme?
Development Process	2-1. How was the programme promoted and developed?
	2-2. How was the influence or preference of state actors and societal actors reflected in the programme?
	2-3. Were there conferences or public hearings for the promotion and development of the programme? If so, has the opinions there been reflected in the programme?
	2-4. In the 2000s, how did non-material factors, such as international norms and expectations, and joining the committee on international development cooperation affect the promotion and development of the programme?
	2-5. How did non-state actors and other countries affect the promotion and development of the programme?
Role of Government	3-1. What role did the Korean government, especially the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (MCST), play in promoting and developing the programme?
	3-2. Did the MCST reflect societal actors' opinions and non-material factors or agenda into the programme?
Support	4-1. Who and how much provided financial support for the programme?
	4-2. Who domestically provided financial, material and human support for the programme?
	4-3 Who internationally provided financial, material and human support for the programme?
Motive	5-1 Why did Gangwon Province engage in and promote the programme?
Is there anything else you would like to add?	

Appendix G: Structured Analysis Matrix

RQ	Main Category	Sub-Category	Code
RQ 1-1	Actors	State actors (central government, MCST, MOFA, KOICA, etc)	
RQ 2-1		Non-state actors (local government, sport organisations, civil society, etc)	
RQ 1-2	Development Process	Interaction between state actor and non-state actor	
RQ 2-2		Non-material factors or agenda in the international community	
RQ 1-3	Role of Government	Reflecting preferences and opinions of societal actors	
RQ 2-3		Reflecting non-material factors or agenda in the international community	
RQ 1-4	Support	Financial, material and human support by state actors	
RQ 2-4		Financial, material and human support by non-state actors	
RQ 1-5	Motive	Seeking national interests	
RQ 2-5		Seeking Humanitarian value	

Appendix H: Example of Coding in NVivo 12

Actors in the Dream Programme

Development Process in the Dream Programme

Role of Government in the Dream Programme

Support in the Dream Programme

Motive in the Dream Programme

Appendix I: Letter Approved by IRB

Deutsche Sporthochschule Köln
German Sport University Cologne

Institut für Pädagogik und Philosophie
Institute of Pedagogy and Philosophy

Deutsche Sporthochschule Köln · 50927 Köln

Deutsche Sporthochschule Köln
Institute of European Sport Development and Leisure Studies
Herrn Jongchul Park
Äußere Kanalstraße 79
50827 Köln -

Prof. Dr. Dr. h.c. Eckhard Meinberg
Vorsitzender der Ethikkommission

Am Sportpark Müngersdorf 6
50933 Köln · Deutschland
Telefon +49(0)221 4982-4520
Telefax +49(0)221 4982-8450
meinberg@dshs-koeln.de
www.dshs-koeln.de

Ethikantrag Nr. 042/2019   Köln, den 27.03.2019
„Sport for Development (SfD) in South Korea: National Preferences and
Transnational Interaction in view of SfD Programmes"
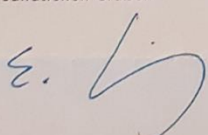
Sehr geehrter Herr Park,

hiermit darf ich Ihnen mitteilen, dass die Ethikkommission gegenüber Ihrem
geplanten Forschungsvorhaben keinerlei Bedenken erhebt.

*Hinweis: Die Ethikkommission beurteilt nicht die Einhaltung gängiger Datenschutz-
Vorschriften!*

Ich wünsche Ihnen für die Durchführung viel Erfolg!

Mit freundlichen Grüßen

Prof. Dr. Dr. h.c. E. Meinberg

- 1 -

Appendix J: Interview Script

Interviewee A and B for the Dream Programme

Main Actors

I: What has been the role of Gangwon province in the PyeongChang Dream Programme?

R: *It is no exaggeration to say that Gangwon Province is the main department of the Dream Programme, and we have taken charge of everything from the Programme.*

I: Which ministries in the government have been involved in the Dream Programme, and what roles have they played in the Dream Programme?

R: *MCST is mainly involved in the government because Gangwon Province succeeded in hosting the Olympics, which means that it becomes a project which is funded by the national government. We are cooperating with the MOFAT in order to request the cooperation from foreign countries and recruit participants for the programme smoothly.*

I: Are there any other actors involved in the Dream Programme?

R: *When we carried out the programme, we are working with the cooperation of more than 20 relevant organisations, including the KSOC, KPC, emergency medical service and police station.*

I: Are there any other international actors involved in the Dream Programme?

R: *We know that we have communicated with UN in the past, and recently, there has been no close communication with the UN.*

Process

I: How was the Dream Programme promoted?

R: *We think that the Committee for the hosting of the Winter Olympics proposed and promoted Dream Programme to appeal to the IOC and its members. We are working closely with Gangwon Athletic Association to share their opinions on the development of the programme. Especially after the addition of programme for people with disabilities, we are conducting exchanges with KPC.*

I: How have the international organisations or other countries involved in the promotion and development of the Dream Programme?

R: *From the outset, the IOC favourably supported the programme, and the efforts of Gangwon Province. If necessary, we also communicate with the NOC, NPC or Department of Sports in each country for the programme.*

I: Has the Dream Programme reflected various opinion of civil society?

R: *We do not hold public hearings for the development of the programme, but at the end of each year, we conduct a satisfaction survey with participants, volunteers and coaches, and then try to reflect those opinions as much as possible on the improvement of the programme for the future*

I: How other actors been involved in the process and development of the Dream Programme?

R: *After the Olympics, there were uncertain rumour and talk about the operation of the Dream Programme, especially Gangwon Council, which pushed for the suspension of the programme for financial reasons. However, the governor of Gangwon Province*

expressed his intention to proceed with the programme since it has been well-known and supported by budget from central government. The Dream Programme has been well received by the IOC and the UN, so it has been a positive driver to carry out the programme even after the Olympics.

Role of Government

I: What has been the role of the government in the Dream Programme?

R: *Since MCST is the department in charge of the programme, they set a budget and present the programme's development plan. MCST collected our opinions as much as possible, and incorporates those opinions into the programme, and then reflected the opinions into the basic plan.*

I: What has been the role of the MOFAT in the Dream Programme?

R: *In order to recruit participants in our programme, it is necessary to provide practical assistance from the MOFAT and the Embassy of Foreign Affairs. Therefore, we are in close consultation with the MOFAT whenever necessary.*

Support

I: How have financial, physical and human support worked for the Dream Programme?

R: *At first, we started the programme independently in 2004. In 2011, MCST began to engage in the programme on behalf of the government. As time passed, the government's funding increased, and KSPO as a fund-manged quasi-government organisation executed the budget. After the Olympics, the budget scale did not decrease. Through Gangwon Province Athletic Association, we received professional people necessary who have an ability in winter sports activities, such as skating or ski. At the beginning of the Programme, we asked the private sector for assistance, but*

very little was done. After success in hosting the Olympics in 2011, there was a bit of financial and equipment support. There were about once or twice cash support, and recently there was a garment support.

Motive

I: What has been the decisive motive for promoting and developing the Dream Programme?

R: *We launched the programme to provide opportunities for youth and young children in countries where they cannot experience winter sports. Naturally, at first, hosting the Olympics was the most decisive backdrop. It is no exaggeration to say that without the Olympics, there was no Dream Programme.*

Interviewee C for the Dream Programme

Process

I: The Olympics is over, how is the government going to develop the Dream Programme?

R: *We are currently preparing to move to the PyeongChang Legacy Foundation, so we will continue to develop the programme through cooperation with civil society or private organisations.*

Role of Government

I: What has been the role of the government in the Dream Programme?

R: *We are responsible for identifying and approving whether the plan for the Dream Programme is contrary to the law and purpose of Korea's ODA. Since the central government has actively participated in and followed international development cooperation, like ODA-related activities and international norms, such as MDGs and SDGs, MCST also seemed to support the programme in accordance with the central government's plan and direction. We actively set out the direction of the Dream Programme and propose ideas. For example, we thought that the Gangwon Province only focused on quantitative growth to increase the number of participants and countries, but we offered some opinions on how to improve the programme in quality.*

Support

I: How have financial, physical and human support worked for the Dream Programme?

R: *In 2007, the MCST provided one-off support and has been supporting about 50% of the budget for the Dream Programme since 2011.*

Motive

I: What has been the decisive motive for promoting and developing the Dream Programme?

R: *The government wanted to provide support to the programme in hopes of making world aware which Korea is a sport advanced country, and the PyeongChang Olympics will be held successfully. As you know, Korea has a sense of gratitude and responsibility as the first country to become a donor country from a recipient country. That's why we want to repay the past support which we have received from the international community toward developing countries. We hope that those programmes will be of some help in mutual diplomatic relations through exchanges with participating countries.*

Interviewee F for the Dream Together Master Programme

Main Actors

I: What has been the role of the MCST in the Dream Together Master (DTM) Programme?

R: *We budget for Korea's sport ODA programme, and determine whether the programme has a proper institutional and legal basis as ODA project. The reason why we commissioned the Sports Talent Development Foundation and KSPO to operate the programme is because the MCST has already engaged in many international sports cooperation activities, so we cannot run everything in detail directly. We also thought it would be good for them to do networking and practical work with developing countries based on their work and experience.*

I: Are there any other actors involved in the DTM Programme?

R: *The International Development Cooperation Committee, and the Office of State Coordination and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, which oversee and coordinate Korea's ODA activities, are naturally involved in the DTM programme in the process of setting the annual plan, and the Ministry of Economy and Finance (MOEF) is also connected in the process of drawing up the budget. We are also cooperating with the KSOC if necessary.*

Process

I: How was the DTM Programme promoted?

R: *In 2013, the Korean sport ODA planned a five-year programme, including the DTM programme. After working-level consultations with the International Development Cooperation Committee and the Office of State Coordination, and consultations with the MOEF to secure the budget, we finally decided to carry out the project.*

I: Has normative factors of the international community affected the promotion and development of the DTM Programme?

R: *Complying with MDGs and SDGs in relation to sport ODA is the basic principle of our government in international development cooperation.*

Role of Government

I: What has been the role of the government in the DTM Programme?

R: *We play a role in determining what programmes are needed and how much budget we need. For example, we consider whether a programme plan conforms to the purpose and budget originally planned. When SNU asks for cooperation, we usually come forward and help. For example, when SNU recently needed cross-border cooperation for recruiting students, so we play a role in conducting consultations between the countries with the cooperation of the MOFAT and the embassy since the MCST has the authority to ask for assistance on behalf of the government. We hope to maintain friendly relations with through projects which fit the situation of the other countries, and ultimately help the sports diplomacy between countries. There are 24 ODA-focused countries where the government encourages us to select participants for the programme among them. Recently, the government is pursuing a new Southern Policy for a wide range of cooperation with Southeast Asian countries, which could be reflected in the recruitment of the programme participants.*

Motive

I: What has been the decisive motive for promoting and developing the DTM Programme?

R: *One of the biggest motivations of the programme is to contribute to the development of developing countries themselves through sports. While other programmes are*

weighted toward development through elite sport, the programme is the only one which promotes development by nurturing talent in the sport industry and administrative sectors of developing countries.

Interviewee G for the Dream Together Master Programme

Main Actors

I: What has been the role of Seoul National University (SNU) in the Dream Together Master (DTM) Programme?

R: *Basically, we thought that it would be the role of SNU to train sports administrators because we are not capable of raising athletes or coaches. We were selected as an educational institution for the first DTM programme designed for five years. Due to the nature of the programme, all classes must be conducted in English, but in reality, one or two professors cannot operate it. SNU has more than five professors who have taught abroad, so this is feasible.*

I: How has your relationship been with the KSPO, the assistant operator of the DTM Programme?

R: *The budget is a bit smaller than the first five years project. I don't know the exact reason, but the KSPO seems to have reduced the budget a little. As it is an educational programme, we are actually running it, but the KSPO is trying to intervene in various parts of the programme, engage in many things in person.*

I: Are there any other actors involved in the DTM Programme?

R: *In 2015, we signed MOU with the Gwangju 2015 World Swimming Championships Organising Committee to help master students participate and volunteer during the competition.*

I: Are there any other international organisations or countries involved in the DTM Programme?

R: *We have partnerships with various foreign sports-related organisations. For example, ANOC and FISU, which have MOU with SNU, recommend students interested in master's course to the DTM programme. DTM programme is also a course which is accredited to the IOC, and has signed MOU with the UNOSDP. We are also working with the World Taekwondo Federation if necessary. Several countries, including Ecuador and Vietnam, have been contracted first, and have expressed their desire to form partnerships with the DTM programme. However, there has been no concrete cooperation yet.*

Process

I: How was the DTM Programme promoted?

R: *At first, I guess that the MCST was not interested in sport ODA or international development cooperation at all, and probably did not even know there were a kind of activities. It seems that the MCST was simply interested in international sports cooperation. At that time, I had a chance to meet with newly inaugurated Vice Minister of the MCST, and introduced various ideas while talking about various sports fields. One of them was fostering sport administration. These days, I thought it is more important for Korea to strengthen sports cooperation by cultivating sports administrators and also to play an important role within the global sports network than to win medal in international competitions. It is true that I have propose many things, but the Vice Minister of the MCST has created an environment for the promotion of international development cooperation within the ministry. In my memory, the Vice Minister visited London around the time of the London Olympics, and made a public announcement about these plans.*

I: What has SNU emphasised, especially for the DTM Programme?

R: *To be honest, I think that Korea has a system for teaching sport administration to boast about in other countries. Thus, it took about 10 years to set up a proper domestic system. I made a proposal to the MCST which the DTM programme should provide some places for cultivating domestic sports administration. Therefore, the DTM programme has been adjusted to about 5 people for Korean, and about 25 for overseas students. The government only talked about the curriculum on master's course, but we added a variety of other activities to the plan. In fact, there are the Dream Together Forum, a field trip and special lectures. The Forum was not requested by the government, but it is held once a year by our proposal. Basically, we suggested various things, and we told them that we should not limit the DTM programme to the master's course, but develop it so that it can play a central role in the international sports network.*

I: How have the international organisations, other countries or normative factors involved in the promotion and development of the Dream Programme?

R: *MDGs and SDGs may be seen as major reasons for starting and continuing the programme at the government.*

I: Are there any conferences or forum in the process and development of the Dream Programme?

R: *The Dream Together Forum selects an important discourse in the international sports community, and hosts renowned sports scholars. In 2018, it was held under the theme of 'Sport and Peace' since it was a period of high interest and importance for peace on the Korean Peninsula. Students of the DTM programme participate in the Forum, and have a conversation with each other as a debater.*

Role of Government

I: What has been the role of the government in the DTM Programme?

R: *Basically, the MCST designed the specific purpose and direction of the DTM programme. SNU hold talks with the MCST about the DTM programme about twice a year. I hope that good relations with developing countries would help us enter the countries' sport market in the future, and contribute to our job creation. I hope that sport industry, which is the future growth engine under the current low growth trend in Korea, can promote a growth and development through the DTM programme.*

Support

I: How have financial, physical and human support worked for the DTM Programme?

R: *The budget covers 100 percent from the KSPO's National Sport Promotion Fund. The faculty of the DTM programme is formed by SNU's own human network.*

Motive

I: What has been the decisive motive for promoting and developing the DTM Programme?

R: *The DTM programme is focused on educating people. We thought it was more meaningful to develop human that to just build facilities or support grant-type aid. If the student return to their countries after finishing DTM course, I hope that they try to maintain friendly relations with our country, which in turn will help sports diplomacy. In my memory, Vice Minister of the MCST said during the London Olympics that we would try this development cooperation programme since we are the only country which has become a donor country from a recipient country in international society, and even become the sport advanced country. I don't know what it means for the nation to win another medal in international competitions these days. I think it would be better to help other countries with sincerity and then gain recognition from them, which means*

that we would like to exert good influence and value through sports. Since SNU has a responsibility to make social contributions, and the DTM programme is a national project with a special purpose, I thought that it would be important to contribute internationally on behalf of the nation. I thought that it would be more effective to improve the sports system of developing countries in the long run than supporting sports supplies and facilities. In the past, when Korea returned from education in the US, it naturally served as a pro-American group in the international community. Like that, we also believe that if the country's sports sector develops in the future by fostering the next generation of sports administrators, we can win each other by expanding exchanges and forming friendly sports networks in the international sports community.

Interviewee H for the Dream Together Master Programme

Main Actors

I: What has been the role of KSPO in the Dream Together Master (DTM) Programme?

R: *The DTM programme is a course for master's degree. The MCST has designated us as an assistant operator for the use of the National Spots Promotion Fund and the programme, but we cannot proceed with the master's degree programme. Therefore, we are also in charge of selecting and contracting universities for operating the programme. Although Seoul National University is currently in charge of recruiting master's students mainly from developing countries, we think it would be more in line with the purpose of the programme to select those who engage in sport policy and administration in sports-related government departments in developing countries. Thus, we along with the MCST have a plan to select those directly within the government and NOC through exchanges with governments in developing countries. Since 2017, the KSPO has entrusted outside agencies with an assessment of the DTM programme's business detail, and whether the project meets the UN's SDGs. We send the results to Seoul National University, and then get feedback on the assessment.*

I: Are there any other international organisations or countries involved in the DTM Programme?

R: *As we know, SNU has an exchange relationship with Tsukuba University in Japan, and we are working with the Ministry of Education in Taiwan and FISU. Through the DTM programme, 108 students graduated from a total of 48 countries, and you can say that there have already been cross-border exchanges through the DTM programme.*

Process

I: How was the DTM Programme promoted?

R: *At that time, sport ODA programmes were designed to prepare and support the 2018 PyeongChang Olympics, which were usually implemented by the MCST.*

I: How are you going to develop the DTM Programme for the future?

R: *As it is a programme for a master's degree, education is being conducted intensively at SNU, and it would be difficult for other organisations to engage in. In the long run, however, the programme seems to require joint operation with several universities, not one, and links to civil society and domestic and international sport organisations for an effective operation of the programme. As the DTM programme is overseen by the MCST, the International Development Cooperation Committee and the Office of State Coordination, we are making efforts to improve the programme in line with the evaluation indicators of the government. In particular, it has been entrusted to outside agencies since 2017 in order to assess whether it meets the UN's SDGs.*

Role of Government

I: What has been the role of the government in the DTM Programme?

R: *Because the MCST has the right to approve the entire programme, it serves to manage and supervise the programme as a whole. The KSPO draws up a business plan and receive its approval from the MCST. In other words, the MCST reviews the project plan and budget to assess feasibility and make efforts to secure the budget.*

Support

I: How have financial, physical and human support worked for the DTM Programme?

R: *The programme is a project carried out through the government's National Sport Promotion Fund, so there is no case of funding from other agencies. SNU, which operates the curriculum, supports educational facilities for the DTM programme.*

Motive

I: What has been the decisive motive for promoting and developing the DTM Programme?

R: *The DTM programme was planned on the occasion of the preparation and support for the PyeongChang Olympics. Through the programme, we wanted to strengthen Korea's sport status and sport network with developing countries. Also, the DTM programme was promoted as part of the sport ODA to meet the international trends, such as the MDGs and SDGs declared afterwards.*

Interviewee I for the Vision 2014 Programme

Main Actors

I: What has been the role of Incheon City in the Vision 2014 Programme?

R: *Currently, the department of sports promotion in Incheon Metropolitan City is in charge of Vision programme. We play the role of planning and implementing the programme every year. At first, the programme also dispatched sports coaches to foreign countries and provided equipment in addition to inviting field training.*

I: Are there any other actors involved in the Vision 2014 Programme?

R: *We have been actively interacting with Incheon Athletic Association for the operation and development of the programme so far. It is a very important organisation for us.*

I: Are there any other international actors involved in the Vision 2014 Programme?

R: *The OCA did not play a role in the programme anymore since 2015. In 2017, the budget allocated to the Incheon was recovered from the joint account among the remaining costs of the programme.*

Process

I: How was the Vision 2014 Programme promoted?

R: *After hosting the Asian Games, the OCA signed an agreement with the OCA in November 2007 to organise the OCA-Incheon Vision 2014 programme. We send letters at the beginning of the year for demand survey through NOCs in each Asian country. The selection criteria are limited to countries with less than 10,000 dollars of*

GDP. Incheon makes the final decision with Incheon Athletic Association after reviewing the participating countries and events. Usually, four to five countries a year visit Incheon, while events are mainly selected sports, such as archery, boxing, taekwondo and wrestling, where Korea has a relatively competitive advantage over other countries.

I: How other actors been involved in the process and development of the Vision 2014 Programme?

R: *We work with Athletic Association on a regular basis since we have to match training events and get cooperation from the training ground. The Athletic Association is very active and cooperative about the programme. Their advice of the Athletic Association is of great help, especially since we often have a change in the person in charge, which often cuts off the continuity of our work. Thanks to the publicity of the media related to the programme, many citizens are positively evaluating the programme. It is also true that this has been a driving force for us to continue our programme after the Asian Games.*

I: Are there something affecting the development of the Vision 2014 Programme?

R: *Incheon has established a firm legal basis for implementing the programme. In 2017, Incheon proposed an ordinance and expressed its willingness to continue the purpose of the existing programme by enacting it in the Incheon Council.*

Support

I: How have financial, physical and human support worked for the Vision 2014 Programme?

R: *We received the rest of money from the OCA by allocating the project costs in 2017.*

Motive

I: What has been the decisive motive for promoting and developing the Vision 2014 Programme?

R: *Currently, it would be more important for the programme to contribute to promoting Incheon to Asian countries, and build a good image.*

Interviewee J for the Vision 2014 Programme

Main Actors

I: Are there any other actors involved in the Vision 2014 Programme?

R: *The Incheon International Cooperation Foundation is an organisation created to lead the Incheon's globalisation apart from the Asian Games. Although the organisation was mainly based on expertise in economic, cultural and social fields, it was cooperative with the Asian Games Bid Committee, and played an important role in the early stage of the Vision programme.*

Process

I: How was the Vision 2014 Programme promoted?

R: *The City of Incheon has sought more practical and sustainable programme to counter the supply offensive in Delhi, India. We tried to appeal to Asian Countries through an activity for balanced sports development in line with the purpose of the Asian Games. From the OCA perspective, it was a great value for Asia to become one and co-prosperity since they thought that the Asian Games are considered one of the three major sports events in Asia along with the Olympics and the World Cup. Delhi, which competed with us for what the OCA had expected and demanded, was passive and uncooperative. Perhaps at that time, Delhi thought that they were the most likely to host the 2014 Asian Games. At that time, the chairman of the OCA had a strong desire and vision for the Asian Games, so he had a high interest in exchanges and revival among Asian countries through sports. Therefore, cities to host the Asian Games naturally became interested in the values, visions and agenda which the OCA pursues. We have pushed for Vision 2014 programme in order to gain positive response from the OCA and other countries to host the Asian Games. After the bidding decision, we formed a desk force for the Vision 2014 programme with the OCA to*

begin consultations on detailed plans for the programme. From then on until 2014, we teamed up with the OCA to discuss the promotion and support matters together.

Role of Government

I: What has been the role of the government in the Vision 2014 Programme?

R: *As far as I know, the government was not interested in the relatively small Asian Games as hosting of the 2014 Asian Games and the 2014 Olympics were carried out simultaneously. The government was concerned that Incheon's move would have a negative impact on the PyeongChang's bid. I think the government was a little more passive in supporting me and those on the bidding committee since we were politically opposed to the government at that time. After winning the bid, the Asian Games Bidding Committee was renamed the Asian Games Organising Committee, becoming a pan-governmental organisation which can begin close cooperation with each other. The government was in charge of the organising committee, cooperating with the Asian Games preparation and hosting of the Games. In the administration of Lee, Myung-bak, I knew that Korea is great to have a policy priority of international development cooperation. There was no direct support from the government for the Vision 2014 programme. However, the government seems to have thought that the programme was a good thing for the nation as a result of its humanitarian contribution to the development of Asian sports and cooperation between cities in Asia. The government tried to substantially reflect the opinions and demands of the organising committee in its support for the Asian Games. I think that the government's pan-national support includes the interest and cooperation in the Vision 2014 programme.*

Support

I: How have financial, physical and human support worked for the Vision 2014 Programme?

R: *I made the decision because I thought the Asian Games would have a much more added value effect than about 20 million dollars. The 20 million includes financial support from Shin-han Bank. Shin-han Bank seems to have applied for the Asian Games in hopes of promoting the bank to Asian countries.*

Motive

I: What has been the decisive motive for promoting and developing the Vision 2014 Programme?

R: *I think It was most important to host Asian Games through our commitment to contribute to the balanced development of Asian sports. We expected synergy effects between Asian cities through sports exchange with developing countries, and thought that this would contribute to Incheon's economic development and urban marketing. In particular, Incheon International Airport enabled to plan large-scale projects to attract athletes and executives from other countries. Also, there are three main free economic zones in Incheon, and the Vision 2014 programme would play a role in promoting Incheon's development into an international city. It seems to have helped our purpose to some extent. The OCA hoped that cities wishing to host the Asian Games would lead the way and play this role. When we made these pledges, the OCA deeply sympathised with the programme's purpose, and expressed its willingness to cooperate if we host the Asian Games*

Interviewee K for the TPC Programme

Main Actors

I: What has been the role of the TPC Foundation in the TPC Programme?

R: *The TPC Foundation selects countries to dispatch the TPC. Also, they are in charge of managing and supporting the TPC in the field. At the end of each programme, the TPC Foundation reports the budget details to the MCST.*

I: Which ministries in the government have been involved in the TPC Programme, and what roles have they played in the TPC Programme?

R: *The practical part is handled by the TPC Foundation, and if any changes are made in the execution process of the programme, it is approved by the MCST.*

I: Are there any other actors involved in the TPC Programme?

R: *For a demand survey for the dispatch of TPC, the TPC Foundation consults with the WT, each government and Taekwondo association of each country.*

Process

I: How was the TPC Programme promoted?

R: *The TPC Foundation basically operates an international cooperation programme on behalf of the government. We consult with the TPC Foundation so that the programme can develop in the direction of the Korean government.*

Role of Government

I: What has been the role of the government in the TPC Programme?

R: *The TPC Foundation reports to us on how it executed the budget when it completes the TPC programme every year. When selecting countries to dispatch the TPC, the TPC Foundation consult with us. There are several Taekwondo-related organisations in Korea, and since Kukkiwon mainly dispatches Taekwondo instructors, and the Taekwondo Promotion Foundation provides overseas support projects for Taekwondo supplies, we determine the country to dispatch the TPC by judging whether the TPC programme overlap with other projects. Although I don't know how much the MDGs and SDGs affected the start and development of the TPC programme, all governments in Korea have recently shown great interest in international development cooperation. As a responsible member of the international community, our governments seem to be trying to faithfully implement it since we pursue actions consistent with international movement.*

Support

I: How have financial, physical and human support worked for the TPC Programme?

R: *About 2 million dollars of budget for the TPC programme is paid by the government. Therefore, the TPC Foundation asks us to approve the plan of the programme every year, and they apply for budget issuance to the KSPO in accordance with the approved plan of the programme.*

Motive

I: What has been the decisive motive for promoting and developing the TPC Programme?

R: *Although the number of Taekwondo countries in the WT has increased in numbers due to the growing population of Taekwondo around the world, not many countries are*

still active in Taekwondo. Since we are the birthplace of Taekwondo, we have been supporting this programme to promote Taekwondo to underdeveloped countries. So, I think the WT would have pushed for it in the beginning. I hope it would help build a global network and national brand through Taekwondo. Also, some of the Corps are employed in the countries. As a result, I think it is also helpful for Korean young people to advance into overseas markets, which is in line with the purpose of the government's international development cooperation policy.

Interviewee L for the TPC Programme

Main Actors

I: What has been the role of the TPC Foundation in the TPC Programme?

R: *At present, we think that our main role is to safely and effectively dispatch the Taekwondo Peace Corps overseas. For this reason, we conduct pre-education so that they can quickly understand and adapt to the local cultures.*

I: Which ministries in the government have been involved in the TPC Programme, and what roles have they played in the TPC Programme?

R: *The government is in charge of managing and supervising the TPC Foundation. However, it should not be deeply involved in the details of the subsidised private organisation.*

I: Are there any other actors involved in the TPC Programme?

R: *Domestically, Kukkiwon, the Taekwondo Promotion Foundation and KOICA are our service-related organisations. Also, currently Lee, Joong-keun, chairman of Booyoung Construction, a construction company, is the president of the foundation, so Booyoung Construction is providing overall support for the foundation.*

Process

I: How was the TPC Programme promoted?

R: *At first, the WT has long been providing support for refugees and dispatching Taekwondo masters to developing countries. It was one of the election campaigns of Cho, Jung-won, who took office in the WT in 2005. Like the Peace Corps in the US,*

he suggested that we should contribute to world peace with Taekwondo. The TPC programme was created at the WT in 2008, and the response was good overseas, so the governor thought of creating a foundation which could only be specialised and focused on the TPC programme. The TPC Foundation, which specialises in Taekwondo volunteering, was established on September 17, 2009.

I: How did the TPC Programme belong in the WFK in the Korean government?

R: *At that time, various government ministries were running overseas Volunteer Corps. However, since it was operated individually, efficiency has been reduced, and budgets have often been duplicated. The government created an integrate brand called WFK to integrate these Volunteer Corps, and in 2010, the TPC finally joined the WFK.*

I: Has the TPC Programme reflected various opinion of civil society?

R: *It was a place where I heard about the suggestions and difficulties of people experiencing the TPC programme before. There are some parts where we have reflected in the programme. Although the media does not often mention the TPC Foundation, it seems to promote it every time which it is launched or disassembled. I don't know if it helps us directly, but thank you for promoting the necessity and effectiveness of our foundation's presence.*

I: How other actors been involved in the process and development of the TPC Programme?

R: *President Lee was very interested in the activation of overseas service activities to be able to contribute to the international community, and he has also announced it as an election pledge. We mainly interact with Korean cultural centres and international school in each country, as well as Taekwondo associations which have joined the WT.*

Role of Government

I: What has been the role of the government in the TPC Programme?

R: *We are managed and supervised by the MCST as we are funded by the KSPO's National Sports Promotion Fund. In general, we hold annual consultations with the MCST on the programme. In particular, since the main goal of the TPC programme is public interest, the government and we discuss whether the direction of the programme is appropriate for the government's goal of dispatching overseas volunteering.*

Support

I: How have financial, physical and human support worked for the TPC Programme?

R: *Although there is a separate donation for the operation of the Foundation, the budget for the programme is provided only by the government. Members of the TPC programme are provided accommodation and transportation from local countries while carrying out the programme.*

Motive

I: What has been the decisive motive for promoting and developing the TPC Programme?

R: *We launched the programme to provide opportunities for youth and young children in countries where they cannot experience winter sports. Naturally, at first, hosting the Olympics was the most decisive backdrop. It is no exaggeration to say that without the Olympics, there was no Dream Programme. As Taekwondo competes with Karate and Kung fu to be selected as an official Olympics, the programme helps promote Taekwondo. If Taekwondo develops in many countries and wins in more diverse countries than now, it would prove that the base of Taekwondo has expanded around the world. Secondly, Taekwondo contributed to the establishment of a global network*

between countries, and to strengthening national brand and status through Taekwondo. This was one of the reasons why we pushed ahead with the programme. From the ODA point of view, the background of the programme is to practice sharing and service through Taekwondo.

Interviewee M for the WFK-KOV Programme

Main Actors

I: What has been the role of the KOICA in the WFK-KOV Programme?

R: *The WFK is the new name for volunteers dispatched overseas by the Korean government. Until then, many government ministries carried out projects, which resulted in many side effects, so government consolidated the budgets of each Corps, and made it a brand. The KOICA serves as the general implementation agency.*

I: Which ministries in the government have been involved in the WFK-KOV Programme, and what roles have they played in the WFK-KOV Programme?

R: *We make a comprehensive plan of the WFK-KOV programme. The first basic plan for international development cooperation, which was established shortly after the launch of the WFK, focused on securing the budget and managing the organisation efficiently. The second basic plan, which began in 2016, had focused on follow-up management of projects, and strengthening safety management of the problems which may arise while volunteering abroad. If the nature and content of the project overlap, we intervene and coordinate the project properly.*

Process

I: How was the WFK-KOV Programme promoted?

R: *Since then the MOFAT and the KOICA have become general implementation ministry and general implementation agency, respectively. Also, within each programme, there are separate implementation ministries and agencies. The KOICA acts as a kind of general manager who manages all programmes. The International Development Committee is the general review body of Korea's international*

development cooperation activities, and it coordinates the size and ratio of a grant aid and credit assistance.

Role of Government

I: What has been the role of the government in the WFK-KOV Programme?

R: *Normative factors created in the international community, such as MDGs and SDGs, are largely reflected in government policies. The field of international cooperation itself will bring together the opinions of the international community, and spread to each country. When our government designs our ODA policy, we consult the agendas and norms pursued by the UN or the OECD. we also use a lot of statistics or indicators related to international development cooperation issued by such international organisation.*

Motive

I: What has been the decisive motive for promoting and developing the WFK-KOV Programme?

R: *The WFK-KOV programme seems to have a strong aspect of contributing to the international community. It is meaningful to return and reciprocate what we received from the international society in the 1960s and 1970s. Since we are members of the OECD, we cannot passively cooperate in development cooperation programmes. We cannot conduct international development cooperation with all countries, but we make plans with some considerations of the economic aspect.*

Interviewee N for the WFK-KOV Programme

Main Actors

I: What has been the role of the KOICA in the WFK-KOV Programme?

R: *Various overseas volunteer programmes are included within the WFK programme. There are Korea Overseas Volunteer programme, NGO Volunteer programme, KOICA-UNV Volunteer programme, Science-Technology Support programme and International Development Professional programme. The KOICA became the general implementation agency which operates the budget as it was integrated into the WFK programme. We play a role in establishing the project plan of the WFK programme and supporting the budget. Also, we provide various guidelines related to the smooth operation of the programme. In the WFK-KOV programme, it includes physical education, Taekwondo and physical education for those disabled within the education sector. They are mainly responsible for sports activities and education, but sometimes responsible for renovating sports facilities.*

I: Which ministries in the government have been involved in the WFK-KOV Programme, and what roles have they played in the WFK-KOV Programme?

R: *The MOFAT is the general ministry of Korea's free cooperation projects, while the KOICA is the general implementation agency. Each government department which implements each international development cooperation programmes is considered an implementing agency.*

I: Are there any other actors involved in the WFK-KOV Programme?

R: *The KOICA's local offices and coordinators play a role in conducting feasibility procedures for dispatching Volunteer Corps. We know that it is not easy for the volunteer activities of each country to be shown as a direct effect. Through the Forum,*

they agreed to make efforts to measure the actual contribution of the Volunteer Corps. We also submitted our activity report to the UN.

Process

I: How was the WFK-KOV Programme promoted?

R: *Once each ministry submits a plan of the projects to be implemented next year, the MOFAT will coordinate and review them, and the Council of the Grant Aid Agencies will consult and coordinate them.*

I: Has the WFK-KOV Programme reflected various opinion of civil society?

R: *We set up an agenda every quarter to hold forums and conferences. The forum's theme is in line with the government's foreign policy stance. For example, we hosted the Forum on the New Southern Policy and Peace which has been emphasised by the government*

I: How other actors been involved in the process and development of the WFK-KOV Programme?

R: *As international organisations like the UN hope to make joint efforts with MDGs and SDGs, I think we should naturally comply the movement as Korea's official international cooperation agency. In the MDGs period, which was completed in 2015, we designed our programme focusing on health and education. Soon after, in the SDGs period, we focused on gender equality, environment and governance. In fact, SDGs are composed of 17 areas, but there are many detailed fields, so we selected areas in 2017 which we can focus on, and created a programme and programme performance index. There is a forum in an international organisation called IVCO which represents overseas volunteer agencies in each country, including Japan and Australia. We meet every year to discuss how to develop Volunteer Corps in each country. For example, they agree on whether to run Volunteer Corps on ODA or set*

goals for the development and growth of their own people. At the IVCO Forum held in Korea two years ago, we agreed that the role of Volunteer Corps was significant in the SDGs era, and then we share common values to achieve SDGs.

Role of Government

I: What has been the role of the government in the WFK-KOV Programme?

R: *The MOFAT gives us annual guidelines in January, and based on that we formulate annual plans. At that time, it was not an environment to cooperate with civil society, and such a system was not in place. The basic direction for the basic international development plan is to comply with international norms. We play a role in setting the direction of programme according to it.*

Support

I: How have financial, physical and human support worked for the WFK-KOV Programme?

R: *The MOEF reviews the details of the programme, and allocates the budget to the MOFAT. The MOFAT arranges the budget in the KOICA.*

Motive

I: What has been the decisive motive for promoting and developing the WFK-KOV Programme?

R: *We are sending the Volunteer Corps mainly to the ODA-focused partners selected by the government. In particular, these days, the government is emphasising the New Southern Policy. We intend to reflect the foreign policy of each government into our plan of the programme.*

Interviewee E for the YPSC Programme

Main Actors

I: What has been the role of the KPC in the KPC YPSC Programme?

R: *The KPC is not an organisation which carries out its own profit-making activities since it is a public institution. We are entrusted with some works related to sports for the disabled by the government. The International Sports Department of the KPC plays a role in carrying out the programme, and the annual planning and implementation of the programme are all led by the KPC. We have held the programme four times in a row until 2018, and we will continue to do it once a year. Usually, programmes invite youth from 12 to 15 countries. A coach and several athletes from each country visit. The sports of Sports Academy are chosen in a simply way. The sports which participating countries want to learn the most are swimming and athletics. Perhaps, this is because they cost less in the early stages and are easier to cultivate athletes. We often add archery which is a strong sport in Korea. Usually, the KPC YPSC programme is carried out with three to four sports.*

I: Which ministries in the government have been involved in the KPC YPSC Programme, and what roles have they played in the KPC YPSC Programme?

R: *The MCST reviews the feasibility and direction of the programmes planned by the KPC every year, but rarely engages in detailed planning and activities of the programme.*

I: Are there any other actors involved in the KPC YPSC Programme?

R: *In 2016, Daegu City was selected through the public contest screening process. At that time, Daegu Sports Association for the Disabled and Daegu University jointly organised the programme.*

I: Are there any other international actors involved in the Dream Programme?

R: *We work with the International Paralympic Committee (IPC), Agitos Foundation, Asian Paralympic Committee (APC) and International Federations (IF), whenever necessary to proceed with the programme. However, with the exception of Coaching School jointly conducted with the IPC, there aren't any organisations which cooperate with the KPC YPSC programme.*

Process

I: How was the KPC YPSC Programme promoted?

R: *Since we are public institution which is operated by government's budget, we should consult with the MCST on the feasibility and direction of the programme on international development cooperation programmes requiring a large amount of budget. We have participated in the Pyeong Chang Dream Programme since 2011, and are also involved in the KOICA Volunteer Corps. However, on the occasion of the 10th anniversary of the founding of the KPC, we had a desire to lead the international development cooperation programme for disabled sports. So, we proposed the plan to the MCST, and it was accepted. Until 2010, we received enough budget from the government, but we were not interested in international cooperation. Rather we focused on building a foundation for sports for the disabled in Korea. It is true that we don't feel much need for these kinds of programmes. In fact, hosting the International Youth Camp jointly with the IPC in 2011 at the Icheon Training Centre was the start of the KPC's ODA activity. The Icheon Training Centre opened in 2010, and we had enough facilities, vehicles and accommodations for the disabled. We can use dormitories which can accommodate nearly 300 people at the same time. The Training Centre played more than that, and allowed us to perform many events and activities. Without the Training Centre, we wouldn't even have planned this programme. Because we should comply with the direction and vision government's MDGs and subsequent SDGs as a public institution of the government, we usually take the government's relevant policy into consideration when we plan SfD programme. Thanks to the*

government's interest and support, we were able to start the programme easily. Currently, about 55 people from 10 countries visit each year, and we provide all the airfare, accommodation and lodging expenses. Frankly speaking, there are few countries in the world which can do this. With the creation of the Training Centre which can accommodate large numbers of people, there have been many inquiries from other countries about the operation of the programmes, such as sports camps for the disabled or joint training. The international community's expectations and demands were also reflected when planning and preparing these programmes

I: How have the international organisations or other countries involved in the promotion and development of the KPC YPSC Programme?

R: *Since 2010, when we started ODA, our entry into international organisations has become active. In doing so, we think that we should do more programmes to spread the movement of the Paralympics and foster disabled athletes. Also, international organisations acknowledge that Korea practices what it has promised.*

I: Has the KPC YPSC Programme reflected various opinion of civil society?

R: *We are a sport organisation for the disabled, but we are not linked to civic groups or organisations related to the disabled since we focus only on sport itself.*

Role of Government

I: What has been the role of the government in the KPC YPSC Programme?

R: *The MCST respects our roles and authority, and guarantees autonomy in running the programme. The MCST serves to offer us suggestions and directions for future projects. In this process, the MCST could reflect our opinions into the annual plans or mid- to long-term plans. Although it is not directly encouraged by the Korean*

government, Korea has already signed vital international agreements related to our programmes, such as human rights, physical education, and diplomacy. This leads to engaging in international exchanges. Therefore, when we plan these kinds of international projects, the government is not against them if it is possible. The UN CRPD includes information on sports for people with disabilities. In the government's position, if we plan or carry out the disabled sports ODA programmes, the government prefers it since it can be seen as implementing these agreements made by the UN. Because we are the public institution, we intend to follow the direction and intention of the government. Since the MCST and MOEF are favourable to international sports programmes for the disabled with developing countries, such as the KPC YPSC programme, related budgets are rarely cut or scrapped.

Support

I: How have financial, physical and human support worked for the KPC YPSC Programme?

R: *If we discuss the budget with the MCST, and request which we need some budget this year, the budget is supported by the KSPO. We support all the airfare, transportation and accommodation costs of the participants to run the programme. Few countries can support everything like this. Because the budget is steadily increasing and fully supported by the government, we can proceed with this kind of SfD programme every year.*

Motive

I: What has been the decisive motive for promoting and developing the KPC YPSC Programme?

R: *In fact, other countries may not feel the need to carry out the KPC YPSC programme. However, we introduced sports for the disabled from Japan in the 1970s, and used second-hand equipment thanks to the help of Japan. In this context, the first generation of disabled sports seems to have a strong desire to contribute to the*

development of disabled sports by supporting developing countries. So, I think we planned this meaningful programme on the 10th anniversary of the foundation of the KPC, and I understand we have been doing it so far. Since Jang, Hyang-suk, president of the KPC, was selected as the IPC executive committee member in 2009, Korea has produced its executive committee members for the third consecutive time. This is not an easy case. The production of executive members is thought to have a significant impact on launching these kinds of programmes. We were able to make the programme-related countries our strong support base by implementing the pledges we made while running for the executive committee. Sports exchanges, such as the KPC YPSC programme, and sports diplomacy between countries seem inseparable. Fortunately, other countries and the IPC believe that if we make various pledges, we must practice them. The strengthening of the status of disabled sports through these programmes can be felt to some extent by the fact that many executives have entered international organisation.