

ANGLIA RUSKIN UNIVERSITY

RIO 2016, INCENTIVISED URBAN DEVELOPMENT AND EXCLUSION: SMALL BUSINESS AND PORTO MARAVILHA'S SPATIAL RENEWAL

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ii) Abstract

This thesis presents a case study focus of the Porto Maravilha and Rio 2016 Olympic Games-related urban development, and how this regeneration influenced the environment for micro and small businesses. Speculative and spatial urban planning in this context is inherently unevenly distributed and this flagship urban programme tactically distorted the promises for the local community. 24 exploratory and in-depth qualitative semi-structured interviews were conducted in January 2018 to empirically assess the impacts of these urban rejuvenation processes connected with the Games on small business communities in the port region. Analysis was supplemented by post-Games observational data taking the form of visual data through the collection of photos, a series of reflection vlogs, social media insights and mapped walking routes, in addition to reviewing official Olympic documents, urban planning policy and independent event reports. The theoretical position of the thesis is underscored through the works of Keller Easterling and how exceptional projects can act as levers for physical urban and zonal re-animations. Findings centre on the urban realities of the post-hosting micro and small businesses of Porto Maravilha and seeks to probe in detail the tangible impacts and legacies for those stakeholders. This thesis reveals the stark challenges and the inability of these urban plans to foster medium term micro and small business benefits, and the highly charged reality for these businesses in relation to being able to freely access and derive further business opportunities, driven by the processes of this key regeneration project. Observational analysis illustrates how the deployment of this urban development venture subjugated local communities to exclusionary urban space tactics. Practical contributions of the thesis advance a roadmap for host city organisers to realign and reconceptualise marginalised stakeholder interests to better incorporate small businesses. These processes are enlisted through the development of Mega Event Business Inclusion (MEBI) model and a manifesto proposition to leverage micro and small business mega sporting event outputs, in an attempt to stimulate more inclusive and integrative micro

and small business outcomes. As well as indicating a series of guidance points to harness the value of upgrading urban spaces driven by Games-related regeneration programmes. This examination shows how dilapidated industrial areas and buildings are fashioned into very mundane, stale and unusable urban places which therefore spark wider investment concerns for culturally significant sites and fail to generate additional tourism to a sporting host city or region.

Key words: Rio 2016, urban development, small business, Porto Maravilha, urban space, event impact, legacy, leveraging

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vii) Abbreviations and Key Terms Translations

AquaRio: Aquário Marinho do Rio (Rio de Janeiro

Marine Aquarium)

Boulevard Olímpico: Olympic Boulevard

BRT: Bus Rapid Transport

CEPAC: Certificates for Potential Additional
Construction

CDURP: Urban Development Company of the Port
Region

GBP: British Pound Sterling

IOC: International Olympic Committee

FIFA: Fédération Internationale de Football
Association

FGTS: Guarantee Fund for Time of Service

HCC: Host City Contract

HEZ: Host Event Zone

MAR: Museu de Arte do Rio (Museum of Art of Rio)

PPP: Public-Private Partnership

MSB: Micro and Small Business

MSE: Mega Sporting Event

NGO: Non-Governmental Organisation

OG: Olympic Games

R\$: Brazilian Real

Rio: Rio de Janeiro

SEBRAE: Brazilian Service of Support
for Micro and Small Enterprises

SME: Small and Medium Sized
Enterprise

UPP: Unidade de Polícia Pacificadora
(Police Pacification Unit)

Vila Olímpica da Gamboa: Gamboa
Olympic Village

VLT: Light Rail Vehicle

viii) Thesis Publication Outputs

Kirby, S. I., Crabb, L. A. H., (2019). Priming Host City Physical Legacy Plans: The Bidding Chronicles of Brazil's Derailed Sporting Event Infrastructure Projects. *Event Management*. 23 (4/5), 627-640.

Kirby, S. I., Duignan, M. B., (2020). Searching for Sites of Liminality in Giga-Events. In: Lamond, I. R., Moss, J., (eds). *Liminality and Critical Event Studies: Borders, Boundaries, and Contestation*. Cham: Palgrave Macmillan, 99-118.

Kirby, S. I., Duignan, M. B., McGillivray, D., (2019). Mega-sport Events, Micro and Small Business Leveraging: Introducing the "MSE-MSB Leverage Model". *Event Management*. 22 (6), 917-931.

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction to the thesis

At the 137th International Olympic Committee (IOC) session and to mark the closing report of the 2020 Olympic Agenda, Thomas Bach, IOC President, hailed the concerted efforts of the IOC and Rio de Janeiro to respond to the “unprecedented” pre-Games crisis in Brazil (IOC, 2021a). As well as highlighting how the Olympic Games created a more successful and improved Rio after the hosting period (IOC, 2016a, 2016b). Numerous commentators have criticised the short-termism thinking and the harsh realities for people of Rio de Janeiro from hosting the Games (e.g. Donahue, 2020; Wade, 2020; Zimbalist, 2017). Olympic Games host cities such as Rio de Janeiro, temporarily disrupt host communities in seeking to derive potentially favourable outcomes through formal vehicles like the Host City Contract (HCC). Cities and regions employ mega sporting events to corral speculative economic activity with the pipe dream of synergising a plethora of development outcomes. Purveyors of these large-scale sporting events such as organising committees and local authorities are frequently confronted with the challenge of how to deliver for a constellation of stakeholders, and which of those interests count in the scheme and veneer of creating a spectacle for the people of the hosting community (Grix, Brannagan, Wood and Wynne, 2017; Pappalepore and Duignan, 2016; Preuss, 2015). Local expectations normally envisage a series of permanent, beneficial effects to areas including improved sports facilities and the extension of urban mobility services. Yet, local populations tend to miss out on the fortunes which are supposedly plentifully conjured up by the political elites (de Almeida, Bolsmann, Júnior and de Souza, 2015; Gaffney, 2016). These perennial hopes are often dashed at the first hurdle particularly during the conception, bidding and host preparation phases. Global event authorities such as the IOC designate these flagship events as a party for the people, but economic and social gains are increasingly marginal at best with mega sporting events beset with operational and stakeholder challenges. Urban interventions prescribe and moulded by

the local organisers are an attempt to stimulate trade and tourism opportunities in the quest of optimising critical modes of commercial consumption in the era of neoliberalism (Brenner and Theodore, 2005; Peck, 2013; Silk, 2014; Souliotis, Sayas and Maloutas, 2014). Indeed, marginalised citizens are seen to be ignored and fall foul of wider disruption in the quest of policymakers enacting event propaganda which invariably leads to negative imagery for the hosting territory. This is critical to the nature of thesis as it seeks to establish to what extent claims of Games-related benefits through the regeneration of a specific area are garnered for community benefit, or whether these urban changes curtail small business activity in the medium term of the host city, Rio de Janeiro.

Significant to this thesis are the complex relationships associated with the realisation of an urban development project supported by the needs and demands of hosting a mega sporting event. Qualitative insights illustrate how local, small business communities are locked out of key zones and 'invisibilised' in the melee of control over urban space. Increasingly, local communities become valorised by rising rents, gentrification processes and ongoing displacement of business spaces. The experiences of micro and small businesses are symptomatic of other mega project related scenarios (e.g. Duignan and Pappalepore, 2019; Pappalepore and Duignan, 2016; Raco and Tunney, 2010; Vlachos, 2015). Using a case study approach this thesis examines how these volatile urban environments spurred by the territorialisation of live hosting space seize upon and restrict inclusionary measures for small businesses across project developments. As a result this diverts spending and business activity away from the hands of local communities in exchange for the pursuit of commercial players who seek to tap into increased levels of international visitation expected from the hosts and presented in the form of detached Olympic plans. In doing so, this thesis exposes the threats posed by the neoliberal tentacles of mega sporting events which override host communities, and particularly business spaces as well as eroding access using the catalyst of a temporary, industrial project. Within the global events system cycle the thesis proposes a realignment and recentering of micro and small business needs to redistribute and

counterbalance how local businesses are positioned and brought to the fore in the regional economic flows of a host city. This thesis explores planning and infrastructure concerns associated with the large scale urban development in the Porto Maravilha region of Rio de Janeiro. Small businesses central to the cities and regions are outcasted due to being viewed as peripheral to the successful hosting of these events. The local organising committee of Rio 2016, past and subsequent host city organisers invariably deploy considerable resources and forceful tactics to push out micro and small traders to make way for large corporates and international sponsors. Evidence illustrates the systematic dismantling of these traders and business networks from key port zones.

1.2 Research objectives

This thesis has three primary objectives which have morphed and shifted over time, during the course of starting and the final write-up of the thesis (see Table 1). Firstly, the researcher seeks to provide an in-depth picture and analysis of how micro and small business communities were affected by the Rio 2016 Olympic Games. Attention is specifically drawn towards revealing the role of a large urban regeneration project enacted in Porto Maravilha region of Rio de Janeiro. Secondly, the study diagnoses how local space converted through the vehicle of Games-related infrastructure developments has been reconfigured using a divisive urban project tool. Lastly, the researcher binds together discussions to identify ways to better re-distribute and leverage commercial opportunities for marginalised small business communities in the context of this and future urban development projects.

Table 1: Research objectives overview

Research objectives	
Research objective 1	Examine the medium-term effects of hosting the Rio 2016 Olympic Games on micro and small businesses in Porto Maravilha
Research objective 2	Analyse how and why local space was transformed for micro and small business in response to Games-related infrastructure regeneration
Research objective 3	Identify ways to better re-distribute and leverage commercial opportunities for marginalised small business communities in the context of this urban development project

1.3 Structure of the thesis

The thesis is broken down into a number of constituent parts with five chapters overall. This includes an overview of the literature to connect up and provide a historical perspective of the changing make-up of mega sporting events and its relationship with areas including urban development, spatial impacts and changes in legislation for these large scale projects. Next, the case study context of Porto Maravilha is outlined, and a range of methodological approaches are operationalised, incorporating areas including the philosophical positioning of the thesis, sampling procedures and considerations around data collection and ethical practices. This chapter is followed by the findings and discussions which are broken down into parts accounting for urban networks and global Games factors. Findings emerging from frameworks such as network structures, global themes and the extension of urban

infrastructure development zones will be discussed and complemented by primary data collection. The findings and discussions chapter have been amalgamated in a logical way based on the coded themes to aid the readers understanding of the context and empirical data presented. In the thesis' conclusions and recommendations, contributions to knowledge from a theoretical and practical standpoint is the main focus for the chapter alongside making a series of recommendations based on business inclusion models developed throughout the doctoral process. Future research, limitations and a reflection note present an outlook for how mega sporting events can be steered towards more beneficial outcomes for local, business stakeholders.

1.4 Conceptual framework of the thesis

To wrap together and support the foundations of the thesis, a graphical representation of the key ideas and themes is contained in Figure 1. This is to demonstrate the symbiotic relationship between multiple phases of the mega sporting event life cycle (Kirby and Crabb, 2018; Kirby, Duignan and McGillivray, 2018; Preuss, 2015), and the role that neoliberal project devices like the urban development case play in this process. In addition to the logic behind decision-making and how this can shape the trajectory of a hosting city or region. The scope of the conceptual framework shows how stakeholders connect with one another or are cut out of the picture in relation to their local and global positioning. This is affected by policy, politics and legislative tactics and is often presented as beneficial event outcomes for a range of stakeholders. At the centre of the conceptual framework is the mega sporting event conditions and the execution of such events reflect a project with neoliberal tendencies which influences how this event develops over its full lifespan. The timespan refers to the time period and how close the event is to staging and the future project period outlines the projections of longer term legacy outcomes. The arrows pointing directly around the different stakeholders indicate a map of how actors engage, move between and occupy the city or region's spaces, as well as pertain to how particular stakeholders impart or transfer their knowledge. The strength of these relationship or bond between each stakeholder is also shown. Thus, representing an internal and external mega sporting event stakeholder map (Getz, Andersson and Larson, 2006; Hede, 2007). The context, conception and event bidding are impacted by a range of factors. This includes how Games budgets are controlled, the management of local development issues, and regional policy and political ambitions of the host city or region. Resembled on the framework are questions surrounding whether the event meets the reality of locals or is the true value of the event just political rhetoric. Connected to this are a range of temporary and permanent issues, such as the potential displacement of citizens and businesses, urban gentrification processes and the changing urban dynamics due to infrastructure, facility and transportation builds. All of these

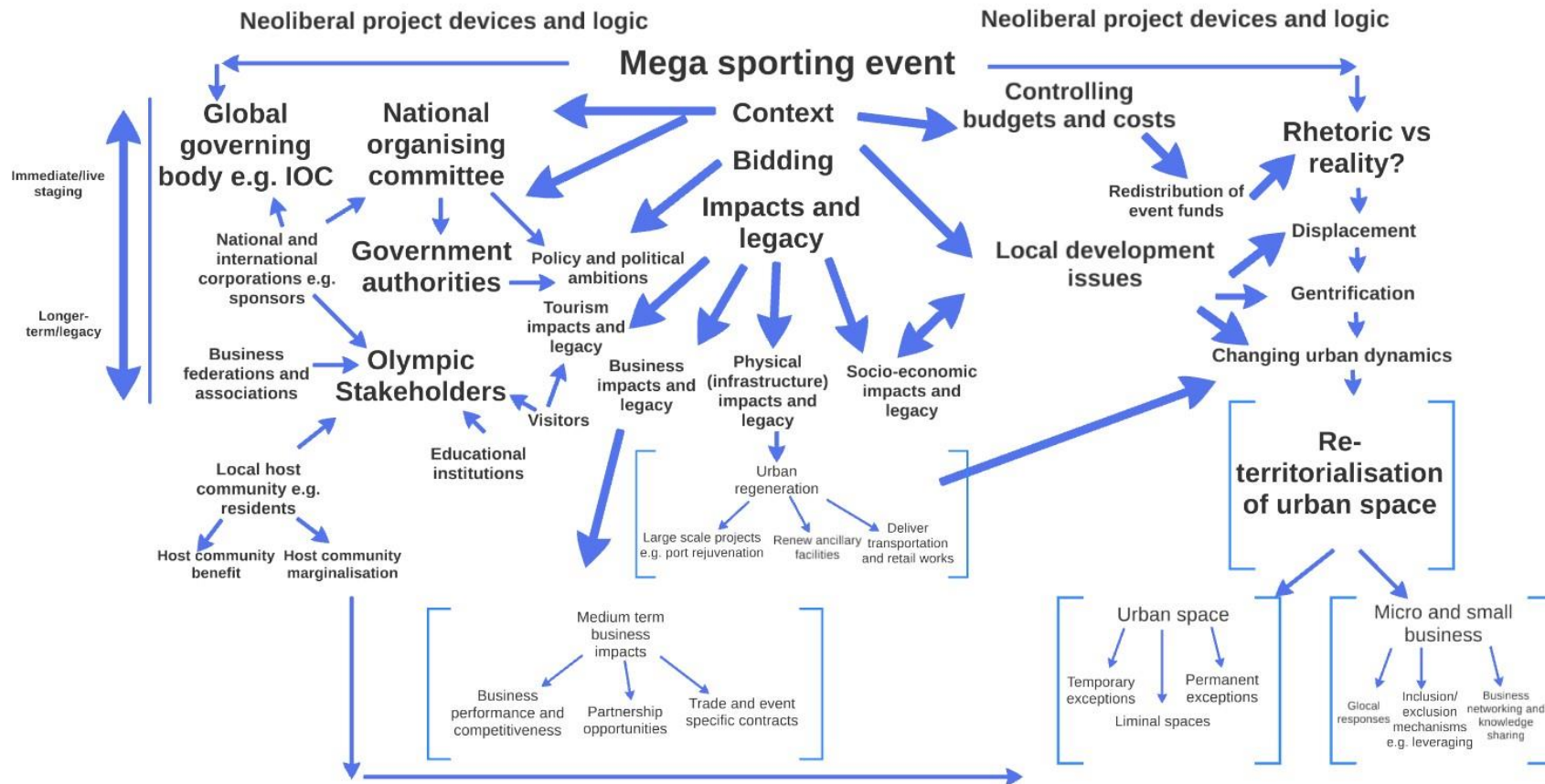
variables have the potency to constrain space and include or exclude local activity, effectively territorialising mega sporting event urban spaces through live sites (McGillivray and Frew, 2015). The study context acted as a live fan site during the Games and so fits into this category. Urban space developments can cause temporary and permanent states of exceptions (Gogishvili and Harris-Brandts, 2020), but also provide the opportunity for the inclusion and exclusion of business responses to the event (Kirby, Duignan and McGillivray, 2018). The post-event host timeline predominantly leads to a number of impacts and legacies associated with tourism, business, socio-economic and physical infrastructure outcomes (Kirby and Crabb, 2019). Large-scale urban regeneration projects such as the reconfiguration of the port (e.g. Porto Maravilha) were anticipated to deliver retail and transportation improvements. In the medium term, there is a possibility of local business performance be extended, new partnerships formed and trade to be stimulated due to increases in economic activity and enhanced visibility of the hosting territory.

The researcher sides with the perspective that a conceptual framework links all the key factors, constructs and relationships being studied (Miles, Huberman, and Saldaña, 2019; Ravitch and Riggan, 2017). But also provides the researcher with the opportunity to discuss the significance of policymaking in this context (Marshall and Rossman, 2015). To guide the conceptual understanding of the main themes of the project, this thesis is threaded together using the theoretical developments and practical observations of Keller Easterling's (2014) works on infrastructure and spatial zoning to provide a novel approach for interpreting how infrastructure projects assume control due to the event hosting rights. Forms of infrastructure space emphasised by Easterling have more recently been discussed in wide-ranging subject areas including political geography (e.g. McEwan, 2017; Nettelbladt and Boano, 2019), architecture (McEwen and Walker, 2015) and city development (e.g. Baker, 2020; Tan, Xue, Xiao, 2018). Under these conditions infrastructure space and the series of zones that constitute this space provide the legal exemption for these spaces to be re-imagined (Easterling, 2014). These exemptions create the many different forms of urban exception

(Gogishvili and Harris-Brandts, 2020). As such, new infrastructure developments facilitate complex urban arrangements.

Public space is seemingly eroded over time to create regional confined space filled with infrastructure controlled by the municipality (Easterling, 2014; Lauermann, 2018; Pemberton and Searle, 2016). Standalone spatial products like infrastructure space cultivated for mega sporting events here are perceived as the currency and provide the agency for organisers to seize upon these areas (Easterling, 2014). New spaces for urban development can be achieved through temporary legislation designed through the hosting of a mega sporting event. These new areas are turned into Olympic Games states of exceptions (Marrero-Guillamón, 2012; Gogishvili, 2021). In this sense, zones play their part as an 'economic instrument', strengthening the state or organisers power through hidden means (Easterling, 2014). Infrastructure space becomes the currency of software shaping the outlook of the city and enabling the further spread of urban developments. Thus, providing the mainstay for incentivising physical and built up urban mechanisms (Gogishvili and Harris-Brandts, 2020). The evolving land investments and takeovers of urban areas in Porto Maravilha will be assessed in the context of Rio 2016. In the upcoming review of the literature, the researcher will deal with a variety of interconnecting areas such as business and tourism impacts linked to these events as well as legacy and leveraging tactics undertaken by host cities, trade bodies, the business community and political entities more broadly.

Figure 1: Conceptual framework of the thesis



Chapter 2: Literature review

2.1 Introduction to the literature review

This chapter will present a thematic review to contextualise the role and impacts of mega sporting events. In the first section of this chapter the evolution of mega sporting events will be traced, alluding to where significant concepts have been conceived, and where they have influenced modern day mega sporting event research principles and practices. Applying a historical synopsis and reviewing developments in the field illustrates how the focus of mega sporting events has rapidly advanced over time. This proposition will be followed by exploring a number of other critical areas of discourse. This includes reviews around topics such as mega sporting event planning and policymaking, socio-economic impacts of mega sporting events, image, tourism and branding impacts of these types of events, the role of host cities as tourist attractions and destinations, mega sporting event legacies and their typologies, long term mega sporting event legacy propositions, host city leveraging of mega sporting events, host community perceptions and attitudes such as small business impacts, tourism host communities and their development, urban regeneration and space, urban governance, and the role of business networks associated with the Olympic Games.

2.2 Commodifying mega sporting events: context and structure

Mega sporting events are often characterised as one-time, fixed duration occasions that attract a large number of visitors and worldwide reach (Müller, 2015a). There are a number of common themes and impacts linked to the hosting of mega sporting events. Mega sporting events can be distinguished by the scale of their audiences and their social and economic impacts, which can spark wider tangible or intangible effects on the host city (Arnegger and Herz, 2016; Lim and Lee, 2006). Müller (2015b) identified four key dimensions of mega sporting events. These characteristics include visitor attractiveness, mediated reach, cost and transformative impact. Mega sporting events are influenced by a range of internal and external organisational characteristics, such as media exposure, effectiveness of leadership and event resources (Frawley, 2016). The costs consumed and associated with the hosting of mega sporting events are colossal in terms of their scale, magnitude, exposure and expenditure. A number of studies completed by Flyvbjerg, Budzier and Stewart (2016) and Flyvbjerg, Budzier and Lunn (2021) provided systematic comparisons of prior Olympic Games hosts demonstrating how each of the Olympic Games since the 1960s have vastly overrun in terms of costs and infrastructure demands for host cities and nations.

Commentators have referred to the 'first-order', 'second-order' and 'third-order' classifications of mega sporting events (Black, 2007; Black, 2008; Black, 2014; Black and Van Der Westhuizen, 2004; Cornelissen, 2004; Horne, 2015). The former comprises the Summer Olympic Games and the FIFA Men's Football World Cup (Cornelissen, 2004; Horne, 2015). Black (2017) highlighted how the political form and dynamics of what is denoted as 'first-order' mega sporting events has dramatically shifted between recent Games. The breadth and capacity of these widely regarded 'first-order' events are comprised of the Olympic Games and the Men's FIFA Football World Cup, underlined by their extensive scope, audience size, geographical location and appeal (Cornelissen, 2004;

Horne, 2015). Indeed, many cities and nations continue to be engaged in the rapacious bidding and competing to stage these type of events (Gruneau and Horne, 2015; Nauright, 2004; Preuss, 2007). Globally, this can be attributed to a rise in fast-growth developing nations assembling formal bids and applying to host the most prestigious showcases. Recent BRICS (Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa) city bidders and host nations included Delhi's (India) 2010 Commonwealth Games, the 2010 World Cup hosted by the first African nation - South Africa, Brazil's 2014 World Cup and Rio de Janeiro's (Brazil) 2016 Olympic Games (Cornelissen, 2008; Giampiccoli, Lee and Nauright, 2015; Maharaj, 2015; Wise, 2019). This has been coupled by the emergence of other players increasingly known as MINT (Mexico, Indonesia, Nigeria and Turkey) or the Next Eleven (N-11) countries (Bangladesh, Egypt, Indonesia, Iran, Mexico, Nigeria, Pakistan, South Korea, the Philippines, Turkey and Vietnam) submitting applications to become prospective candidates. For example, Pyeongchang's (South Korea) 2018 Winter Olympic Games, Indonesia and Mexico's 2022 FIFA World Cup cancelled bids, South Korea's 2022 FIFA World Cup failed bid, Istanbul's (Turkey) 2020 Summer Olympic Games formal candidature, in addition to Erzurum (Turkey) dropping out the 2026 Winter Olympic Games as a candidate city. In this regard, the frequency of ambitious joint inter-region bids has gained interest, originally initiated by the hosts of the 2002 FIFA Men's Football World Cup - South Korea and Japan.

As emphasised above, there has been a succession of developing nations accruing the rights to host these spectacles, which is the focus of the case in question for this paper. However, a shift has also been noted by cities and nations fervently challenging awarding bodies like the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA). This is linked to a number of reasons, including international governing bodies (e.g. IOC) top heavy bargaining power over potential bidders (Giampiccoli, Lee and Nauright, 2015), costly bidding models and the inadequate long-term results that can be obtained or realised from these events. For example, the likes of small to medium-sized organisations located in the host city. Protest and resistance are now commonplace

led by grassroots and opposition groups who seek to overturn possible deficient impacts frequently associated with the undemocratic event bidding campaign, process and eventual implementation of the host city contract (McGillivray and Turner, 2017: 91). This has culminated in the recent spate of cities declining to bid for these types of events (Kassens-Noor and Lauermann, 2018; Stow and Bason, 2021).

At the beginning of the Millennium, Roche (2000) explored the historical perspectives and social significance of the mega sporting events phenomenon. Scholarship has evolved and caused the focus to shift into new areas of assessment. The origins of mega sporting event research initially explored narrow economic impact outputs and development impacts (Roche, 1992), and this has more recently moved on to focus on socio-economic impacts and triple bottom-line (TBL) impact. Contemporary mega sporting events display their ability to simultaneously promote globalisation, attract considerable media coverage and commercial partners and are deemed to have significant consequences on the host city holding the event (Horne and Manzenreiter, 2004; Horne and Manzenreiter, 2006). For instance, now more than ever before multinational brands, companies and conglomerates use these events to stimulate business opportunities (Horne, 2010). Globally mediated events such as the Olympic Games have been transformed by rapid commercialisation which has added additional layers of complexity to the event (Moore, 2017). The preparation of a global Olympic Games causes host cities to reinforce their nationalistic identities, to conjure up shared cultural experiences and provides opportune market penetration and exposure for global brands (Short, 2008). Mega sporting events illustrate that there are multi-dimensional urban and social processes in action, and this interplay is an important driver in understanding structure and change in modern society (Hiller and Wanner, 2011; Roche, 1992; Roche, 2000). To this end, mega sporting events reflect the broader dynamics and common concerns affecting the wider population such as patterns of identity, poverty and inequality of residents which proliferate throughout the host city. Leonardsen (2007) elucidates that mega sporting event planning promotes and implies an elitism vision and

values on a city or region. These events also reflect contemporary socio-economic conditions, and at the same time provide the host city with the opportunity to mould and re-assert fresh new identities and national narratives (Horne and Manzenreiter, 2006; Traganou, 2010). The realities of commercialisation and commodification feed into the debate regarding how mega sporting events assert their power on a global destination and on local societal constructs. In today's global culture and capitalist embracing society, these events are central to a nation's symbolic, economic, and political capital (Horne, 2015; Horne and Manzenreiter, 2006). Although, many argue that the hosting of such events is thought to only serve narrow purposes (e.g. Burbank, Andranovich and Heying, 2001).

The proliferation in the interest of hosting mega sporting events can be understood in relation to the promotional and branding opportunities that such an event can offer to a city or nation (Horne, 2015). In this regard, events of this scale offer an opportunity to improve economic and social aspects of a city through the accumulation of inward investment, and accomplishment of urban renewal objectives (Hiller, 1998; Hiller, 2006; Minnaert, 2012). The staging of such events can be used as a catalyst to amplify long-term outcomes in the host region and its locality (Rogerson, 2009). Mega sporting events assert their power and dominance on a destination and on local populations. This can be reflected in the manner that organisations such as the IOC have been able to direct and increase their power and wealth on a global scale (Horne, 2015). Müller (2017) has dubbed this as a process of 'event seizure', whereby the elites and the mega sporting event more quintessentially impose their development agendas and priorities on its cities, citizens and beyond. As a consequence, external stakeholders generate a 'takeover' of host cities often sparked by the role of international authorities (e.g. IOC) and contractual requirements, leaving cities and regions being unable to impart their influence on the outcome of the event. Additionally, this can exacerbate imbalances in the host's society and inevitably spurs the marginalisation of its communities.

2.3 Global bidding intentions and policymaking drivers

There has been an overarching urban planning shift with host cities now pursuing mega sporting event bidding as strategic tools for economic growth, coupled with repositioning their political economy and encouraging new urban and regional development regimes (Andranovich, Burbank and Heying, 2001; Andranovich and Burbank, 2011; Burbank, Andranovich and Heying, 2002; Essex and Chalkley, 2004; Jones, 2005). In this sense, host cities, particularly the political elites are viewed as the major actors in the pursuit of economic development. One area that is significant for hosting territories are manipulations in spatial planning in the construction of a mega sporting event. They not only hold the ability to be able to influence host cities spatial restructuring but even trigger urban accumulation as a result (Shin, 2012). As such they can be used as a vehicle to improve urban spatial functioning of host city (Chen, Qu and Spaans, 2013). This has seen the unprecedented rise of many of developing nations such as the BRICS nations hosting these events (Maharaj, 2015), showing a clear ambition towards instigating and activating 'event-driven economies' (Cornelissen, 2004; Nauright, 2004). Post-socialist hosting nations and cities such as Sochi (2014 Winter Olympic Games host city) have concentrated their concerted efforts on event-led modernisation and infrastructural development rather than regeneration (Golubchikov, 2017; Müller, 2015a; Müller and Pickles, 2015). Recent hosts of mega sporting events might inexplicably be seen as common indicators of global power shifts, moving from traditional bases in the west to emerging economic powerhouses who are using these transformational moments to strengthen their national and international prestige and profile (Curi, Knijnik and Mascarenhas, 2011; Deng, Poon and Chan, 2016; Grix and Kramareva, 2017; Horne, 2015; Müller, 2012).

Mega sporting events like the Olympics reflect urban and global processes and represent a form of public policy (Hiller and Wanner, 2011). Debates concerning the role of public participation has seen an evolution in the number of mega sporting event anti-bid movement

cases. Boston (No Boston Olympics) and Chicago (No Games Chicago) acting as prime examples, representing largely the failure of public participation who have resorted to opposing and protesting the candidature of a host city in the planning stages (Bennett, Bennett, Alexander and Persky, 2013; Lauermann, 2016a; Mowatt and Travis, 2015; Rundio and Heere, 2016). Oliver (2017) implied that during mega sporting event bidding phases there had been alarming erosion of public involvement. Gaining victory during the nomination phase of the bidding process is said to act as a bonus in the deployment of the host city or nation's comprehensive overarching urban strategy (Oliver, 2014). When discussing power and politics at the Games there are wider ramifications for the host nations adopting policies for local change. These policies and the global willingness to bid and host these events can undoubtedly be linked to attempting to seize upon the unprecedented economic and tourism outputs, by means of encouraging inward investment and commercial activity, accelerating shifts in the urban economy and stimulating international tourism visitation in the region (Essex, 2010; Gursoy, Yolal, Ribeiro and Netto, 2017; Shoval, 2002). These impacts can be notable in the short term for the host destination. The competition to bid and acquire rights to host such large scale events is global and competitive, as well as being considered a prestigious and poignant moment for host city candidates (Barclay, 2009; Gold and Gold, 2008; Kim, Jun, Walker and Drane, 2015; Müller and Pickles, 2015; Nitsch and Wendland, 2017; Preuss, 2005; Preuss, Seguin and O'Reilly, 2007; Short, 2008). This has seemingly sparked an Olympic urban growth machine, accelerating the erosion of local policies and politics that reflect the neoliberal values and ideologies of city development (Surborg, VanWynsberghe and Wyly, 2008; VanWynsberghe, Surborg and Wyly, 2013).

2.4 Event-led policy and urban development

Wholesale concentrated urban development adjoined to the mega sporting event hosting process is commonplace and predominantly rendered using event-driven policy and contractual bidding agreements e.g. the host city contract (HCC). As such, hosting the Olympic Games has been viewed as a form of boosterism for cities and regions to enact and explicitly plough through their development agenda in an attempt to progress specific urban investment goals (Hiller, 2000; Hiller and Wanner, 2018; Lauermann, 2014; Smith, 2010). Governments and local organising committees justify this additional spending on infrastructure extended in preparation for a sporting event (Carlsen and Taylor, 2003). Müller (2017) argues that political-economic elite figures seize upon and impose their development priorities on its cities, citizens and on the evolution of the project's modernisation goals. The desire to host these gold-standard events can shift the emphasis away from the sporting spectacle and onto earmarking plans for catalysing urban regeneration and re-imaging (Cuffy, Bakas and Coetzee, 2021; Jones and Stokes, 2003; Misener and Mason, 2006). However, critics assert the reality of local development for the disadvantaged host communities is considerably different to the rationales and rhetoric deployed by the political elites and organising committees - whom are more favourably the beneficiaries of such development (de Almeida, Bolsmann, Júnior and de Souza, 2015). Planning and preparing to host this scale of events inevitably leads to a variety of urban impacts, such as the redevelopment of brownfield sites and the reconfiguration of the city's infrastructure beyond sports (Müller and Gaffney, 2018). The prominence of strategies designed to blend flagship urban development programmes with city or region infrastructure requirements is featured heavily in the literature (e.g. Carlsen and Taylor, 2003; Davis and Thornley, 2010; García, 2004; Gold and Gold, 2008; Gray and Porter, 2015; Lauermann, 2014; Lauermann, 2016b; Mills and Rosentraub, 2013; Müller, 2012; Sadd, 2010; Sánchez and Broudehous, 2013; Scherer, 2011; Searle, 2012; Smith, 2012; Smith and Fox, 2007; Thornley, 2002). Therefore,

this places the critical role of urban regeneration and renewal processes front and centre for delivering and accelerating change in those host areas.

Mega sporting events are a significant activity in seeking to enrich the untapped potential of urban restructuring of the host city. Regeneration strategies for cities preparing to host these events inherently requires a systematic approach in order to achieve successful outputs.

Smith (2009) acknowledges that regeneration is distinct from general urban policy in that it involves attempts to reverse decline in cities. This seemingly involves actively rejuvenating damaged environments, economies or societies (Coaffee, 2008; Smith, 2009). Transforming and regenerating urban settings is now understood to be a vital component for a city hosting a mega sporting event. Their goals can be understood as a primary component in propelling host city urban revitalisation and reimagining (Liang, Wang, Tsaur, Yen and Tu, 2016). What is accepted is that these events have evolved into a driver and prospective tool for a broad range of substantial urban development projects (Burbank, Andranovich and Heying, 2002; Essex, 2010; Misener and Mason, 2006; Oliver, 2014). The staging of such events can be used as unique mechanism to promote and fast-track rapid driven urban development milestones and major associated physical infrastructure and renewal (Black, 2017; Deng, Poon and Chan, 2016; Essex, 2010; Essex and Chalkley, 2004; Ferrari and Guala, 2017; Nakamura and Suzuki, 2017; Panagiotopoulou, 2014; Pillay and Bass, 2008; Scherer, 2011; Smith, 2012; Taks, 2013; Viehoff and Poynter, 2015; Wu, Li and Lin, 2016). As well as providing the elites, whether this be political or business driven, with the scope to pursue urban development (Viehoff and Poynter, 2015). In the case of the 2010 World Cup in South Africa, urban development and renewal was identified by the government as a key national aspiration (Pillay and Bass, 2008). For host cities involved in urban regeneration it is likely that opportunities may be missed in the phases of development if community participation is not undertaken (Hall, 2001).

In the pursuit of urban re-imaging local organising committees have instigated and deployed resources designed from a strategically coordinated playbook to propel processes ascribed as 'urban boosterism', where mega sporting events can be used a vehicle to transform and renew urban space (Hiller, 1990; Hiller, 2000). Host cities need to ensure that their sociological agenda is inclusive of diverse voices to showcase the region as being distinctive in terms of its contrasting identities and places (Silk, 2011). As part of the cycle of bidding, hosting and aftermath of the event, host cities need to recognise the seriousness of mapping long term strategy plans with the hope of developing the cities key attributes or even initiating promising urban targets. To illustrate this, some locations have been successful in harnessing urban regeneration plans associated with the hosting of a mega sporting event (Horne and Manzenreiter, 2006). Regeneration strategies adopted for mega sporting event host cities have aimed to realise potential urban and rural infrastructure development benefits and enhance regeneration benefits. Sadd (2010) has highlighted some of the nuanced difficulties with using specific terminology like 'event-led regeneration'. Other researchers have preferred to enlist alternative approaches in relation to event regeneration. An event-themed regeneration approach compared to an event-led system procedure could undoubtedly encompass and facilitate a broader range of regeneration outcomes (Smith and Fox, 2007). Although some authors have argued that the use of mega sporting event projects are not a sufficient solution for respective urban regeneration (Vento, 2017). Lauermann (2016b) proclaims that even the failure of Olympic Games bids and the event's temporary projects can provide durable outcomes for the city. As such, these urban development projects are capable of catalysing a policy springboard which recycles components from unsuccessful bids.

2.5 Mega sporting event infrastructure and facility revitalisation

Investments in infrastructure, stadia and facilities are interconnected within the total remit of city centred plans for hosting mega sporting events. Frequently, higher levels of investment in stadium infrastructure are directed and realigned to encourage inward investment, attract tourists and alter the image of the city (Gratton, Shibli and Coleman, 2005). Event budgets target stadia or venue creation, event-related infrastructure development, upgrades to facilities and attractions (e.g. museums, leisure centres) as well as building new accommodation (Mills and Rosentraub, 2013; Solberg, 2018). Sporting infrastructure represents the construction or renovation of competition and training venues and spaces, Olympic athlete villages, media sites, cultural attractions and entertainment facilities (Gratton and Preuss, 2008; Gratton and Ramchandani, 2018; Mills and Rosentraub, 2013; Wilson, 2015).

Governments justify the spending on infrastructure developments and urban renewal through the tools of these events (Carlsen and Taylor, 2003). Preuss (2009) highlights the importance of location as a result of temporary event structures and resources (e.g. networks, image, knowledge) and what he terms 'optional measures' efficiencies. For example, improvements to tourism infrastructure such as museums. In this context, ephemeral and permanent event infrastructure built are often considered to be oversized and unusable in the long term (Azzali, 2019; Gratton and Preuss, 2008). There are many instances of event costs overrunning due to initial budgets being hopeful, miscalculated and unsustainable for the city in the long-term (Preuss, 2009), in addition to underestimations of future operational costs, particularly of ancillary facilities (Mills and Rosentraub, 2013). However, these ancillary facilities form part of the long-term ambitions and legacies to transform the host city (Preuss, 2009).

Li (2013) assessed the economic effects of event infrastructure and venues. In this assessment two categories of event infrastructure were identified. Specific infrastructure

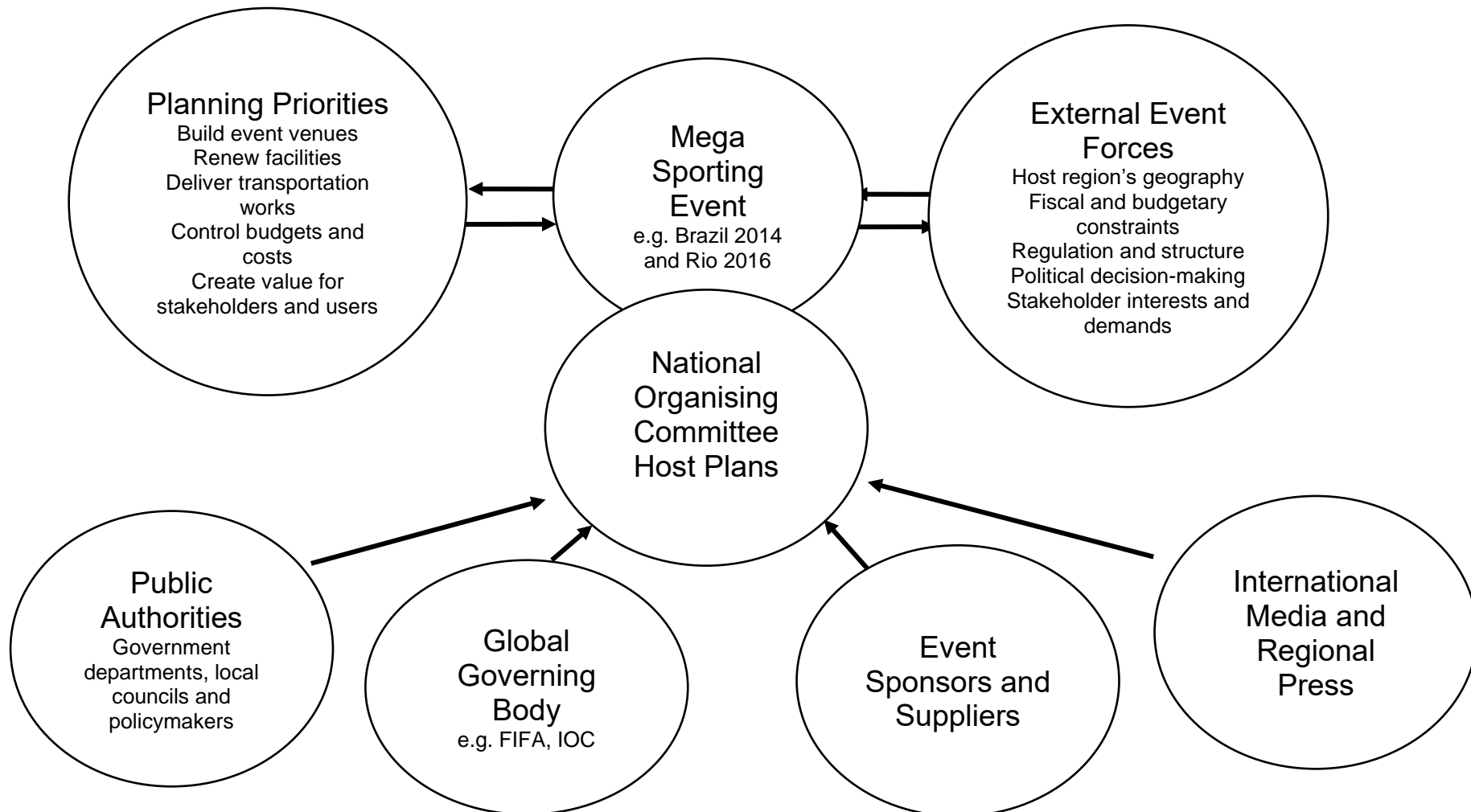
(namely 'costs') incorporating infrastructure established primarily for the event (e.g. Olympic facilities and transportation links to reach the venues), in addition to so called 'benefit' developments accelerated to meet the requirements of the event e.g. longer-term facility usage and physical legacies (Li, 2013). Governments and local organising committees take on the brunt of the 'risk' and the management of these risks is an important consideration when preparing to build and manage event facilities. This includes the size of government loans and incentives (e.g. low rents) provided to attract investment from private sector actors (Cabral and Silva, 2013). In this sense, risk management issues concern whether to build new facilities or adapt existing stadia, as well as other construction risks such as not being able to finish builds on time (Leopkey and Parent, 2009; Parent, Rouillard and Leopkey, 2011). Planning and risks concerns may also relate to the role of public-private partnerships at venues (Searle, 2002). Davidson (2013) posits that the provision and management of infrastructure is a crucial component of risk management. Other risk mitigation strategies include the development of ancillary facilities (e.g. museums, convention centres) near stadiums (Cabral and Silva, 2013).

Access to appropriate streams of funding for newly constructed venues are challenges often as a result an extension of the objectives after the event had been awarded (Solberg and Preuss, 2015). In this instance, investments from public finances are deemed a crucial resource and factor in developing sporting event stadium infrastructure (Cabral and Silva, 2013; Jones, 2001; Li, 2013). A major challenge for event hosts is the ability to finance the necessary heavy infrastructure costs and investments (Davidson and McNeill, 2012; Preuss, 2009). This includes payment costs for construction, land acquisition, operational and running costs, and the requirements of ancillary facilities in the future (Gogishvili, 2021; Li, 2013; Thornley, 2002). High event venue construction costs (e.g. Olympic village expenditure) combined with underutilisation of elite sporting facilities can be found to be very much commonplace for host cities (Gratton and Ramchandani, 2018; Gratton, Shibli and Coleman, 2005; Scherer, 2011). In relation to urban infrastructure development and

maintenance host cities have racked up enormous debts (Thomson, Schlenker and Schlenkorf, 2013). This has caused widespread and unnecessary 'white elephants' rupturing event spaces (Solberg, 2018). Gaffney (2015) refers to this as the 'march of the white elephants'. Development plans and outcomes require long-term realisation of multiple facilities to be worthwhile for a host city. Under-utilisation of stadia usage can be avoided through understanding the city or region's capacity, in addition to careful and comprehensive urban strategies to enable permanent infrastructure legacies (Essex and Chalkley, 2004; Mills and Rosentraub, 2013; Thomson, Schlenker and Schlenkorf, 2013).

When devising strategies to deliver planned infrastructure objectives incorporated as part of a mega sporting event, there are a number of considerations that need to be accounted for. Kirby and Crabb (2018) proposed a conceptual framework, namely the 'Host Event Project Planning for Infrastructure Nexus' (see Figure 2). The framework referred to a number of planning dimensions and processes that can help to support a host city's infrastructure goals. At the centre of the nexus is the host committees plans. Around the outside sits a number of internal and external influences which shape how those plans are enacted. To be effective specific planning priorities needs to be prioritised such as building event venues, controlling event budgets and creating shared for users. External forces dictate how infrastructure projects are embarked on, for example, the budgetary constraints of the host city or nation, decision-making of political bodies or individuals and interests of divergent stakeholders. Relationships with other partners such as other public authorities and the host city agreement (otherwise known as the Host City Contract) with the sport's governing body influence how decisions are made for various types of infrastructure projects (Kirby and Crabb, 2018).

Figure 2: Host Event Project Planning for Infrastructure Nexus (Kirby and Crabb, 2019)



2.6 Urban mobility and transportation development at the Olympic Games

Planning for a mega sporting entails priming substantial resources towards large-scale intensive transportation and urban mobility developments, such as transportation networks (e.g. railways, roads, airports) and general infrastructure including the construction or renovation of roadways, mass transit systems (Gratton and Preuss, 2008; Gratton and Ramchandani, 2018; Mills and Rosentraub, 2013; Preuss and Schnitzer, 2015; Solberg, 2018; Wilson, 2015). At the bidding phase transport infrastructure developments can be earmarked to be brought forward or accelerated (Searle, 2012). The demands of Games-related development lead to massive temporary and permanent transport infrastructure investments in new services (Essex and Chalkley, 2004; Gratton and Preuss, 2008; Müller, 2012). In the run up to hosting these events improving transportation is an important criteria selection especially for visitors wanting to visit the host city or nation (Persson, 2000). At the same time, new developments and congestion problems are often systemic with a whole range of transportation issues (Gratton, Shibli and Coleman, 2005; Gratton and Ramchandani, 2018; Scherer, 2011; Zagorianakos, 2004). Legacies from transportation developments can be viewed as major re-configurations of infrastructure and mass transit lines in and out of cities. In the long-term some transportation lines may not end up being used regularly by local populations. For example, post-Games public transport services to the sites such as Olympic parks may become limited, with very few direct train links due to the lack of use (Davidson and McNeill, 2012). Connecting the 'transport-tourism nexus' and the facilitation of transport access into the host region's destination is critical, and transports needs to be to be recognised as one of the central drivers of change and tourism development in the growth ambitions of a host city (Page, Yeoman, Connell and Greenwood, 2010). Robbins, Dickinson and Calver (2007) exemplify the significance that transport more centrally plays in the planning and organisation of an event. Moreover, transport planning

has been highlighted as a critical factor in Games performance and legacy development (Currie and Shalaby, 2012). Kassens-Noor (2013) reviewed the transport legacies of the Olympic Games from 1992-2012 and outlined common legacies, drivers and recommendations for host cities. Common transport legacies for example included improving airport connections and high capacity transport modes. Lindau, Petzhold, Tavares and Facchini (2016) noted the marked movement of Rio's mass transit strategy between bids from rail to bus, which the city hoped to build and transform the city into a world-class and leading transit system. Some academics argue that to satisfy sustainable transport and mobility management, mega sporting events offer a once in a lifetime opportunity to drive transport improvements and modify travel perceptions, attitudes and behaviour norms in the host city (Kassens-Noor, 2013; Malhado and Rothfuss, 2013; Müller, 2015c; Yang, Zeng, and Gu, 2010). This includes the transports infrastructure developments such as light rail vehicle (VLT) and bus rapid transit (BRT) systems (Alcantara, 2018; Lindau, Petzhold, Tavares and Facchini, 2016; Maiolino, 2017; Talbot, 2021; Verlinghieri and Venturini, 2018). Responses to improve urban mobilities in cities have largely been highlighted as ineffective with regards to upgrading urban transport systems (Malhado, Araujo and Ladle, 2013; Yamawaki, Filho and Costa, 2020). This is specifically the case for their inability to narrow inequality and redistribute accessibility to excluded populations (Alcantara, 2018; Pereira, 2018). Ribeiro and de Almeida's (2021) examination of public transportation issues in Olympic cities conceptualised five key categories: planning, infrastructures, information, insecurity and urban mobility. Against those criteria they argued that poor transport urban mobility strategies tend to increase the negative impacts perceived by local citizens. In the case of potential transportation improvements bidding and planning policies can be known to deviate resources from other necessary transport projects (Kassens-Noor, 2019).

2.7 Socio-economic impacts of mega sporting events

There is evidence to suggest that the hosting of mega sporting events creates economic and tangible benefits, such as during the FIFA World Cup in South Africa (Fourie and Spronk, 2011; Nyikana, Tichaawa and Swart, 2014). However, these economic impacts in host cities are frequently thought to be temporary in nature and generated through types of activity, including tourist spending during the event (Arnegger and Herz, 2016). Roche (1992) notes that studies exploring the economic impact of mega sporting events have revealed three apparent major limitations, which require further exploratory and empirical analysis. This includes the urban community context of mega sporting events, the medium term temporal-historical context within which the mega sporting event occur, and the urban policy processes within which the event takes place. Numerous studies have been implemented which have looked to analyse and optimise the economic impacts of mega sporting events (Burgan and Mules, 1992; Lee and Taylor, 2005; Dwyer, Forsyth and Spurr, 2006; Gratton, Shibli and Coleman, 2006; Li, Blake and Thomas, 2013; Li and Jago, 2013; Maharaj, 2015; Massiani, 2018; Wolfe, Gogishvili, Chappelet and Müller, 2021). For instance, a number of years following the Greece Olympics in 2004, Kasimati and Dawson's (2009) macro-econometric model study found modest evidence to support the premise that long term impacts positively enhance output and employment in Greece.

While there is significant research in to the economic impacts of mega sporting events there has been relatively little discussion around the measurement of the social or 'intangible' effects of mega sporting events connected to hosting decisions (Chalip, 2006; Kim et al, 2015). In their nature social impacts such as community and civic pride and local attitudes can be difficult to measure, and in order to deliver regeneration they not only need to be observed but they need to be sustained in the post-event era for the host city (Smith, 2012). The staging of the Olympic Games can create or harness new forms of social identity including advancing social capital in the host city, supplying new skills and generating

community civic pride participation (Essex, 2010). Deery and Jago (2010) emphasise that international sporting events can generate substantial social impacts on the host community both positive or negative, depending on how the event and its relationship with the local community are managed. Ohmann, Jones and Wilkes (2006) assessment into the perceived social impacts of the 2006 Men's Football World Cup revealed a predominantly positive impact on the local Munich residents. This included infrastructure improvements, urban regeneration, community relationship building through enhanced fan behaviour, and the increased sense of security around the event. Lin (2013) analysed previous studies that investigated the social impact of mega sporting events using critical theory. Three key themes associated with social impacts included tourism and recreation, local community and comfort of life.

The importance that the host community play in the planning process and approaches of mega sporting events has been emphasised in a number of studies. Indeed, incorporating local participation is vital during the planning phases (Lim and Lee, 2006), which encompasses a community-based planning approach (Ma, Ma, Wu and Rotherham, 2013). This community-based approach needs to be geared towards local participation and empowerment (Zhou and Ap, 2009). Pappas' (2014) study at the London 2012 Games provides support for this viewpoint. He recognised that community and resident support is influenced by factors encompassing community participation and perceptions of events impacts, which can either ensue benefits or costs from hosting for local residents. Resident attitudes and support of a mega sporting event could be influenced by other prevalent issues not associated with economic, social and environmental indicators, incorporating both social and personal dynamics. Prayag, Hosany, Nunkoo and Alders (2013) stressed how it is paramount for organisers to engage residents in the decision making process to foster community support and positive attitudes. To improve stakeholder participation at mega sporting events more attention should be presented to sustain stakeholder relationships plus their interactions, economic linkages and event impacts - such as social impacts (Lau, Milne

and Chui, 2017). Kim et al (2015) proposed a conceptual six factor scale model of perceived social impacts using a TBL approach - from positive impacts, such as community visibility and image enhancement, to negative impacts, including social conflicts and traffic problems. Müller (2012) results illuminate that civic pride and global image improvements are the most applicable predictors of public support for an event, illustrated using the case of the Sochi 2014 Games. The significance of social benefits resulting from sporting events has only become apparent more recently, and these potential benefits remain unclear in terms of how they may be obtained (Kellett, Hede and Chalip, 2008). Moreover, the social impacts of mega sporting events on local host communities have received less attention in the literature (Misener and Mason, 2006). Preuss (2009) labelled a range of potential types and effects from hosting mega sporting events on host communities. These types were distinguished to be social, economic, cultural, political, psychological, environmental and tourism related. In terms of sport event outcomes Taks (2013) exemplifies that the size of the city plays an important role in the extent of the social impact the host city garners. What has been suggested regarding the social impacts is that mega sporting events seem to play an important role in the lives of local residents throughout the duration of the event (Lin, 2013). An often under cited element which has been observed by a burgeoning number of academics is an events impact on the residents or community's quality of life (Kaplanidou, 2012; Kaplanidou, Karadakis, Gibson, Thapa, Walker, Geldenhuys and Coetzee, 2013). Kaplanidou et al (2013) highlighted the considerable differences in perceived quality of life impacts before and after the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Drivers of quality of life comprised political impacts, psychological impacts, and social benefits before the mega sporting event, this was later eclipsed and transposed to economic impacts as the dominant factor following the Games (Kaplanidou et al, 2013).

2.8 Mega sporting event host community inclusion and exclusion

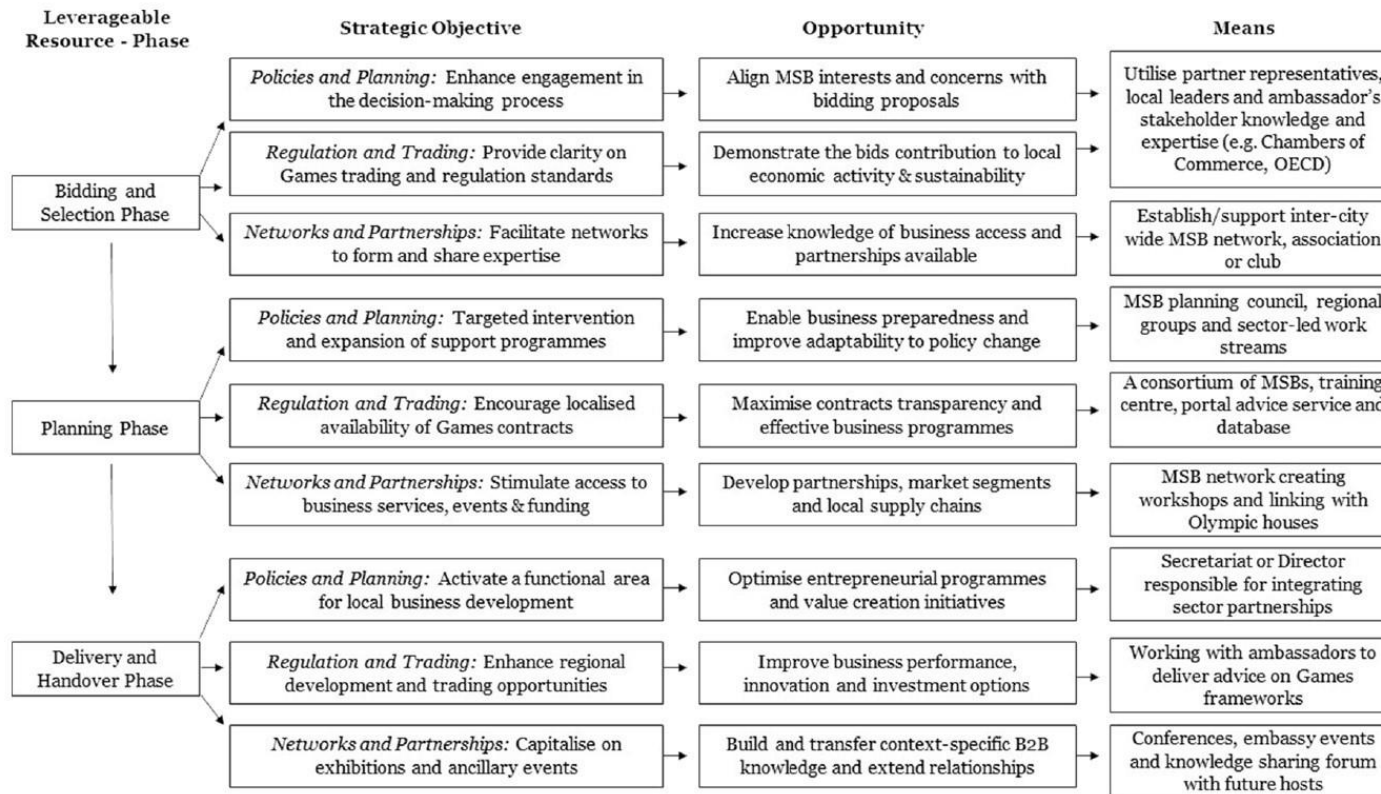
Mega sporting events like the Olympic Games have presented numerous cases portraying the benefits of hosting in host cities (e.g. Manzenreiter, 2008), and how host community stakeholders are incorporated into Games planning (Hiller, 1990, 2000). The 1988 Calgary Winter Olympics was considered a success from the perspective of urban citizens and residents who displayed high levels of support and participation through efficient design and planning, which, in turn, transformed the 'landmark' event and positively influenced urban experiences (Hiller, 1990). Hiller (2000) further exemplified that the local Olympic steering committees as part of the Cape Town 2004 Olympic Bid were able to create a sense of local empowerment. The bidding committee commissioned an independent assessment of the bid, although it was noted that public input was rather limited in the overall bid process (Hiller, 2000). Ritchie (2000) demonstrated how planning strategies can help ensure that the hosting of a mega sporting event such as the Olympics act as drivers and contribute to the development of tourism (e.g. facilities and initiatives) and the development of a local community (i.e. destination residents). Resident perceptions and experiences of hosting the 2006 FIFA World Cup appeared to be largely positive (Ohmann, Jones and Wilkes, 2006). Collective celebration, sense of community and improved community relations were shown to have been strengthened from members of the host community (Ohmann, Jones and Wilkes, 2006). Pre-event local residents generally responded in a positive manner and possessed higher expectations of the South Africa 2010 World Cup potential impacts, certainly favouring local economic development and employment creation opportunities (Bob and Swart, 2009).

Assessments of the 2010 World Cup in South Africa have purported ways to stimulate leverageable benefits including the potential for maximising local and small enterprise development in the region, using tourism enterprise programmes established by public and private sector partnerships (Rogerson, 2009). An investigation by Kaplanidou, Al Emadi,

Sagas, Diop and Fritz (2016) looking into the 2022 World Cup in Qatar explored the process of business networks and business legacy opportunities. They established a framework encompassing contextual business legacy drivers, barriers and how the event could impact business legacy goals and opportunities during the planning and delivery phases. The business networking impacts were linked to areas such as new knowledge generation (human capital development) and innovation accounting for technology and stadium designs (Kaplanidou et al, 2016). Mega sporting events act as a 'shop window effect' for nation awareness building and are responsible for cultivating enduring business partnerships and attracting inward investment (Lee and Taylor, 2005). These events may well be central to the overall development of a community and in turn small businesses (Barreda, Zubieta, Chen, Cassilha and Kageyama, 2017). The resulting socio-economic knock-on-effects from major events relate to innovation, technology, improving the quality and development of local businesses services (Li and McCabe, 2012; Yao and Schwarz, 2018). In turn, the socio-economic impacts may encourage superior levels of inward investment and commercial activity over the long term (Essex, 2010). Kaplanidou and Karadakis (2010) study of the Vancouver Games in 2010 revealed that the event created tangible legacies for the local organisations, such as business opportunity development and business network expansion. For example, the tourism authority for Vancouver was able to build relationships with new business contacts. Residents of the 2014 Commonwealth Games perceived the Games as an opportunity to enhance the community's social and economic well-being (Martin and Barth, 2013). The study demonstrated that participants perceived the socio-cultural benefits positively and over 60% agreed that it would offer civic pride. Timms (2015) proclaimed that the London 2012 Olympic Games illustrated how positive impacts on business (and CSR) practices and systems were integral parts of the planned social and economic legacy. There is a requirement for mega sporting event organisers to adopt a policy approach that goes much further beyond accruing economic gains and reframe their focus on social sustainability to leverage social returns for cities in order to garner support from citizens

(McGillivray and McPherson, 2012). Organisers and policymakers need to re-think how to effectively articulate and realise greater local inclusion in the staging and stakeholder management of large-scale, mega sporting event projects. Kirby, Duignan and McGillivray (2018) developed an event leveraging model building on prior works to illustrate techniques to better reposition the demands of micro and small business (see Figure 3).

Figure 3: MSE-MSB Leverage Model (Kirby, Duignan and McGillivray, 2018)



Mega sporting events are viewed as a key driver for regional and economic development (Moscardo, 2008). Gaining support and participation from host communities throughout the bidding phase can ensure that the event is able to accomplish wider social objectives. Understanding locals' perceptions in pre-and-post-event periods, engagement in decision making processes, and locals' support of mega sporting events (MSEs) are important successful attributes (Pappas, 2018). This relates establishing the key factors and determinants of value that underpin customer satisfaction at mega sporting events (Michopoulou and Giuliano, 2018). As the role of the event as a tool for generating revenue and trade and bringing recreational pursuits to local residents of communities (Martin and Barth, 2013). Local, host community inclusion is critical within mega sporting event management for a number of reasons. Local communities play a critical role in enhancing visiting attitudes, behaviours and satisfaction, referred to as the visitor experience. The visitor experience has been recognised as key to the success of a mega sporting event (Lee, Lee and Park, 2014). For planners and organisers striving to understand the core and distinctive elements of the event tourist experience (e.g. social interaction and memory creation) is imperative (Boo and Lu, 2015). Lee, Lee and Park (2014) observed that limited research has explored the occurrence of deeper attributes of the visitor experience, behaviour and quality in the event setting. Although the bulk of mega sporting event material has been directed towards behavioural intentions and event satisfaction. At the 2004 Athens Olympic travellers' behavioural intentions were found to be influenced by the perceived excitement of the destination (Kaplanidou, 2007). Swart, George, Cassar and Sneyd's (2018) Rio de Janeiro analysis revealed a link between tourists' perception of safety during the event and the level of event satisfaction, which could therefore cause the visitor to exhibit a greater intention or likelihood to return. In contemporary literature, enquiries have sought to discover the role of place in shaping events and their experiences. In one study on the London Games venues, venue attachment and place attachment were prevalent in the development of event satisfaction (Smith, Brown and Assaker, 2017). Dimensions such as

place affect and place identity were further established as core aspects of place attachment for Olympic venues (Smith, Brown and Assaker, 2017). Interactions between visitors and local stakeholders and granting tourist's access to remote and secluded spots and locations can be assumed to act as major drivers of a visitor's overall experience and satisfaction.

Local, host community impacts during live staging are highly contested for their unequal distributed outcomes. Mega sporting events can serve to 'discriminate' against host communities, including micro and small businesses - narratives that often emerge 'invisible' and stifle business needs across the planning and delivery of such projects (Jones, Woolley and Currie, 2015; Raco and Tunney, 2010). Waitt (2003) argues that such rhetoric must result in sufficient return for local communities, both incumbent residents and local businesses. Ideally, events should enhance community development, prosperity, and serve to engage with localities - as the longer-term legacy of these events should empower and build capacity, as oppose to marginalise. These range from community displacement effects during the construction of Games stadia and infrastructure (Horne, 2017); closure and spatial exclusions of Olympic event precincts during the 'live staging' (e.g. closure of public areas, parks, streets - see Smith, 2018); right through to risks to rising rents, real estate prices that can force communities out over a continue period of time in the 'legacy' phase of the Games (e.g. Smith, 2010). Talbot and Carter (2018) evidenced how in the context of Rio 2016, the Games became tainted with human rights abuses and violations exemplified through the focus of local displacement and housing evictions to make way for official Olympic stadia. Issues connected to civil and social unrest, protest and conflict has been apparent in a number of host city settings. For example, during the planning stages of the Rio 2016 Games government public expenditure invested on infrastructure development clashed with 'political' goalposts and priorities which had seemingly moved away from managing the nation's key problems e.g. health and education underperformance (Korstanje, Tzanelli and Clayton, 2014). Event organisers repeatedly project the capability of

mega sporting events to transform targeted areas chosen for (re)development (Raco and Tunney, 2010).

Responding to previous evidence of local exclusion, such as lack of access to venues and price rises for locals throughout mega sporting event projects (e.g. Gaffney, 2016), a growing body of literature argues for greater inclusion of host communities facilitated by the local organising committee in order to maximise sustainable social and economic outcomes for local communities (Schulenkorf and Schlenker, 2017; Ziakas and Boukas, 2016). However, existing empirical evidence continues to support the view that local stakeholders situated within host communities are frequently sidelined, despite being identified as key, hoped-for beneficiaries in bidding and planning rhetoric (Chalip, 2018). Alongside exclusionary conditions during the pre-Games and live staging phases, a number of academic, policy and governmental organisations argue that post event outcomes, including gentrification, rising rents, taxation to pay for Olympic venues - all heighten community social exclusion even further (Hiller, 2006). Recent mega sporting event cities hosting either Olympic (e.g. London 2012, Rio 2016) or FIFA World Cup (e.g. South Africa 2010) reveal evidence of how communities can be excluded and displacement from their longstanding communities (e.g. Jones, Woolley and Currie, 2015; Raco and Tunney, 2010; Talbot and Carter, 2018).. Spilling's (1996) business assessment of the 1994 Lillehammer Olympic Games outlined concerns over the suitability and value of mega sporting event led strategies in fulfilling its mission for boosting long term regional development - the intervention dubbed as a temporary 'industrial intermezzo' for the citizens. Furthermore, Minnaert's (2012) analysis of seven Olympic cities indicated the discrepancy between the projected rhetorical benefit of new infrastructure development, and the limited benefit for socially excluded groups, often perceived as 'marginal' to the project objectives.

There is plentiful evidence in the critical event studies literature of local, host community impacts being problematic, especially for their unequally distributed outcomes for small

business communities. A number of studies have presented evidence for widespread exclusion, exposing crucial vulnerabilities for micro and small businesses (MSBs) from the hosting of mega sport events. Authors have focused on the challenges and opportunities for growing local and small enterprises using enterprise public-private sector programmes and partnerships (Rogerson, 2009). Local businesses seeking to benefit from the Games can fall short in terms of the skills or resources required to take advantage of event outcomes (Faulkner, Chalip, Brown, Jago, March and Woodside, 2000). Mega sporting events bring to the fore inherent organisational concerns encompassing businesses being able to strategically plan activities, control costs, develop relationships, suitably position and distinguish their brand, lease equipment and grant credit (Ratnatunga and Muthaly, 2000). Regulations imposed at the South Africa Men's Football World Cup served to restrict local SME leveraging strategies, rendering them unable to take advantage of event opportunities including profit generation and, partnership building that could have led to sustainable outcomes (Heere, Manden and Van Hemert, 2015). This was compounded by the challenge of becoming 'locked out' of key event precincts as merchandise and existing business functioning could not operate effectively due to the need to protect official sponsors and organisations of the event (Heere et al, 2015). From Germany 2006 World Cup (e.g. Frew and McGillivray, 2008), London Olympics in 2012 (e.g. Duignan and Pappalepore, 2019; McGillivray and Frew, 2015) to the Rio 2016 Olympic Games (e.g. Kirby and Crabb, 2019) empirical evidence has demonstrated how these events – during the live staging and post-event produced widespread exclusion of local resident populations. In addition to the appropriation of public spaces to make way for the project, and the associated spatial controls and overly corporate commercial ambitions that superseded local interests (Smith, 2019; Stevens and Dovey, 2004). At the time of writing the extant scope of scholarship on understanding how small businesses are impacted by the coming of MSEs is rather scant. Kirby, Duignan and McGillivray (2018) produced a comprehensive state-of-the-art review of the businesses impacts literature (see Figure 4). They mapped and diagnosed evidence of

exclusion of micro and small businesses. In the context of mega sporting events there are clear visible challenges faced for micro and small business including unequal access to Games-related opportunities and restrictions due to limited access to spaces and additional legislative restriction imposed on small operators. Although, there is a growing appetite for scholars to establish the repercussions of MSEs associated with small business access and impacts.

Figure 4: Mega sporting event business impacts and leveraging review (Kirby, Duignan and McGillivray, 2018)

Table 1
Review of Mega-Sport Events Business Impacts and Leveraging Literature

Key Study Focus and Impact: Positive/Negative	Leveraging Considerations and Tactics	Article Classification	Author (Year of Publication)
<i>Focus:</i> 1988 Calgary Olympic Games. <i>Impact:</i> Negative. <i>Themes:</i> Small and medium business, Olympic facilities and local economy.	No mention of leveraging.	Research article	Mount and Leroux (1994)
<i>Focus:</i> 1994 Lillehammer Olympic Games. <i>Impact:</i> Negative. <i>Themes:</i> Entrepreneurial, industrial impacts, economic, infrastructure and regional development.	No mention of leveraging.	General review	Spilling (1998)
<i>Focus:</i> 1996 and 2000 Summer Olympic Games. <i>Impact:</i> Negative. <i>Themes:</i> Organization, small business, lessons, strategy and planning.	Leveraging mentioned but not openly considered.	Case study	Ratnatunga and Muthaly (2000)
<i>Focus:</i> Gold Coast Honda Indy, Australia. <i>Themes:</i> Local business, leveraging, economic, event-themed and tactics.	Yes—leveraging tactics detailed. Potential for leveraging remained largely unrealized.	Research article	Chalip and Leyns (2002)
<i>Impact:</i> Largely negative in favor of corporate interests. <i>Themes:</i> Urban, entrepreneurship and corporate interests.	No mention of leveraging.	General review	Hall (2006)
<i>Focus:</i> 2000 Sydney Olympic Games. <i>Themes:</i> Leveraging, networking, relationships and Business Club Australia.	Examination of business leveraging connected to the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games.	Research article	O'Brien (2006)
<i>Focus:</i> 2000 Sydney Olympic Games. <i>Themes:</i> Relationship development, networking, leveraging and pre-event training.	Investigated relationship development through pre-event training initiatives.	Case study	O'Brien and Gardiner (2006)
<i>Focus:</i> 2002 Manchester Commonwealth Games. <i>Impact:</i> Positive. <i>Themes:</i> Legacy program, event-themed, regeneration, organization, access and business club.	Leveraging funding as part of the event's strategy.	Research article	Smith & Fox (2007)
<i>Focus:</i> 2010 South Africa FIFA World Cup. <i>Themes:</i> Small enterprises, tourism enterprise, opportunities and challenges.	Leveraging the event for tourism and economic transformation.	Research article	Rogerson (2009)
<i>Focus:</i> London 2012 Olympic Games. <i>Impact:</i> Negative. <i>Themes:</i> Urban development, 'visibilities', 'invisibilities', small business, planning, delivery and marginalization.	No mention of leveraging.	Research article	Raco and Tunney (2010)
<i>Focus:</i> Stage 1 of the 2007 Tour de France hosted in Deptford, South East London. <i>Impact:</i> Positive. <i>Themes:</i> Leveraging, impact, peripheral, urban areas and event-themed.	Concentrated on the design of leverage initiatives to secure social and economic benefits from a major event.	Research article	Smith (2010)
<i>Focus:</i> 2010 South Africa FIFA World Cup. <i>Impact:</i> Negative. <i>Themes:</i> Street traders, informal economy and exclusion.	Analyzed the marginalization and exclusion of street traders from event related benefits.	Research article	Celik (2011)
<i>Focus:</i> 2010 Vancouver Winter Olympic Games. <i>Impact:</i> Negative. <i>Themes:</i> Leveraging, legacy, tourism, collective, network, stakeholders, consortium and social capital.	Assessed social capital leveraging in a mega-sport event tourism setting.	Research article	Williams and Elkhabab (2012)
<i>Focus:</i> London 2012 Olympic Games. <i>Impact:</i> Negative. <i>Themes:</i> Access, availability, Games contracts, ethnic minority organizations and East London.	No mention of leveraging.	Case study	Calvo (2014)
<i>Focus:</i> 2010 South Africa FIFA World Cup. <i>Impact:</i> Negative. <i>Themes:</i> Small and medium firms, tourism, contracts, regulation, trading, sponsors, event precincts and zones.	Acknowledged restrictions relating to local SME leveraging strategies.	Research article	Heere, Van Der Manden and Van Hemert (2015)
<i>Focus:</i> London 2012 Olympic Games. <i>Impact:</i> Highlighted a lack of business preparedness e.g. lack of access. <i>Themes:</i> Business reaction, preparedness, transport and disruption.	No mention of leveraging.	Research article	A. Jones, Woolley and Currie (2015)
<i>Focus:</i> Qatar 2022 World Cup. <i>Impact:</i> Business drivers and barriers discussed. <i>Themes:</i> Business, legacy, networks, planning, knowledge and innovation.	Leveraging discussed connected to the event achieving long-term goals.	Research article	Kaplanidou et al., (2016)
<i>Focus:</i> London 2012 Olympic Games. <i>Impact:</i> Negative. <i>Themes:</i> Small creative organizations, access, legacy, leverage, East London and London 2012 Cultural Program.	Leveraging strategies considered.	Research article	Pappalepore and Duignan (2016)
<i>Focus:</i> 2008 Beijing Olympic Games. <i>Impact:</i> Positive. <i>Themes:</i> Suppliers, restaurants, hotels and travel agencies.	Leveraging acknowledged around Olympic tourism impacts, but not openly discussed.	Research article	Singh and Zhou (2016)

2.9 Gearing up for event-related urban entrepreneurship and business competitiveness

The promise of cities exposing their urban entrepreneurship capabilities through the hosting of mega sporting event is an under explored theme of research. Bridging the divide between the wealthy and poorer communities and consequently heightening small businesses districts at the heart of city and national economies has the potential to strategically force or reignite a city's competitiveness on an inter-regional level (Booyens, 2016; Hiller, 2016; Tufts, 2004). Much work has been completed assessing individual cities national and international overall competitiveness e.g. World Economic Forum (Schwab, 2013, 2019), but this tends to be without the recognition of understanding the processes and complexities behind how to support urban entrepreneurship and business competitiveness in these hosting nations.

Singhal, McGreal and Berry (2013) tested a model categorising a number of elements to fit within the make-up of city competitiveness in the context of fast growing nation. In their study, they alluded to six components which have 32 underpinning factors. The six components were physical environment, social capital, finance, development, investment and user potential (Singhal, McGreal and Berry, 2013). In the setting of mega sporting event host cities, the physical environment component appears to resonate due to the precedence it places on main factors, such as infrastructure commitment, creating development opportunities, property performance, place making and image building. Local communities such as micro and small business garner unique qualities which can be leveraged for enterprise development (Hayduk, 2019). They can also influence the attractiveness of a place, investment stimulus and city's overall image and feel and boost it as a competitive destination (Dansero and Puttilli, 2010; Kirby, Duignan and McGillivray, 2018; Wise, 2019). So, facilitating such urban planning and mechanisms to better include these stakeholders could provide useful prospects for a city's urban entrepreneurial competitiveness.

2.10 Tourism, imagery and destination branding impacts of mega sporting events

The relationship between the hosting of a mega sporting event and how it can influence trends in tourism demand has received significant attention in the literature for many years now. For host cities in the short term they can significantly enhance attendance, improve the destinations image of the host city, and reposition the local image and identity (Ferrari and Guala, 2017; Kim, Kang and Kim, 2014; Li and Jago, 2013). A range of factors can inhibit long-term tourism demand in mega sporting event host cities, and these may be influenced by decision making authorities (Solberg and Preuss, 2007). Cook and Ward (2011) discussed how knowledge to create change delivered through mega sporting events can be acquired through networks of learning from other host city tourism place management strategies. Tourism strategies and how they affect social processes, behaviours and structures is a crucial consideration that organisers need to acknowledge when preparing a city for mega sporting event host city status. A number of scholars have noted the importance of the host city possessing a strategic planning mechanism in order to harness, optimise and leverage significant tourism injections. Bramwell (1997a) alluded to the premise of adopting a strategic approach to tourism planning and integrating this approach with broader development imaging and promotion. The development of tourism policy for mega sporting events cannot be understood and analysed merely on its own merits, they have to be integrated and be seen as noteworthy to play a prominent role in wider games strategies and plans (Smith and Stevenson, 2009). Previous Olympic host cities have experienced enhanced tourism profiles from the hosting of a mega sporting event. Most famously Barcelona showed that the Olympic Games can deliver positive tourism outcomes (Smith and Stevenson, 2009). Acting as a host city provided Barcelona with the stimulus they required to lead to an increase in tourism demand, accompanied by spending in the accommodation and food and drink sectors (Chen, Qu and Spaans, 2013). Another Games

held in Sydney in 2000 is widely recognised as having set the benchmark for leveraging positive tourism demand on a national level (Sant, Mason and Hinch, 2013; Smith and Stevenson, 2009). In addition Sydney was known to have established its global image on the international stage (Chen, Qu and Spaans, 2013).

Sport mega events can be attractive means for bolstering place reputations and forging a demand for repeat visitation, both domestically and internationally. City and regional place marketing benefits resulting from the hosting of major sporting events have been explored to some extent. These studies include Gratton, Dobson and Shibli (2000) and Gratton, Shibli and Coleman's (2006) reviews into the economic importance and impact of major sporting events. However there have been limited recent examples which have highlighted the associations between hosting a mega sporting event and its subsequent impact on a destination's tourism reputation. Furthermore, how these events have shaped future place branding strategies for the host city. The development of the event destination may well provide additional injections of investment and further distinguished marketability in this often highly competitive and crowded tourism environment. These wider investments make an important contribution to establishing a global image for the host city, and in turn, may encourage inward superior levels of investment, commercial activity and tourism over the long term (Essex, 2010; Gursoy et al, 2017).

From a strategic context, city branding has become increasingly critical in the destinations approach to capitalise on a mega sporting event, as changes in the urban landscape can be translated into the city's core identity and values (Zhang and Zhao, 2009). Chen, Qu and Spaans (2013) devised an analytical framework to primarily uncover the links between the motives, city development strategies and impacts, and how these ultimately interact with different perspectives in decision making in the context of host cities. Pratt and Chan (2016) discussed the importance of the relationship between a mega sporting event and its destinations image, which often varies depending on the scale of the event. At the present

time there have been limited studies undertaken that have researched the penetration of a host city's image in the global market. The image penetration effect is an important component of the overall image impacts of mega sporting events (Lai, 2015). Lai's (2015) study analysed the Beijing Games image penetration effect to see whether this is reflected in the wider host city destinations image. The study concluded that the image penetration effect forms a special and significant major category of the image impacts of such mega sporting events. Although the author recognised that this effect has not been tested in other event locations and contexts, and lacks a longitudinal research design (Lai, 2015). Since then Lai (2018) has followed this study up indicating the potential and usefulness of leveraging the events image, and how the imagery of the event can influence the overall corresponding outlook of the destinations image. Co-branding has been highlighted as a mechanism which could promote and enhance the host destinations tourism profile and image. Research emerging from the Men's Football World Cup in South Africa has more generally viewed collaborative strategies and associating the host nation with the football federation (FIFA) as a method for eliciting or reinforcing a positive portrayal of the mega sporting events image (Knott, Fyall and Jones, 2015; Walker, Kaplanidou, Gibson, Thapa, Geldenhuys and Coetzee, 2013). As well as the uniqueness of the host city's location, place branding and image promotion techniques, other elements need to be considered that could limit the extension of the events' image being relayed on to the place image. This includes the characteristics of the event, location, and the notoriety of the host city destination (Ferrari and Guala, 2017).

From the onset of preparing to bid to host a mega sporting event, organisers will be required to understand the dimensions of how host cities can facilitate their destination nation building programme. When planning to host such large scale events, a host city's marketing plan, destination branding, and place promotion strategies need to reflect their ongoing vision to embed their tourism profile into the ethos of the Games. To unlock its aspirational tourism objectives organisers need to understand how to package and position the region as for

visitor economy benefits. Mega sporting events provide the opportunity to secure and drum up greater awareness in this highly competitive tourism market place, and therefore have assumed a key role in regional tourism marketing and promotion (Hall and Hodges, 1996). There have been several attempts and strategies adopted by host cities which have looked to enable them to be able to build, distinguish, reinvent, and in some cases reposition their national and international tourism profiles. The destination hosting the mega sporting event may seek to portray and project a particular image of the city or region, in addition to establishing a relationship between their national and event branding. The hosting of the Sydney Olympic Games highlighted the event as a potential catalyst for urban city marketing, and the subsequent heightened image awareness generated (Brown, Chalip, Jago and Mules, 2010; Kontokosta, 2012; Nauright, 2004). The organisers integrated the destinations brand and appeal with the elevated level of interest in the host city (Brown et al, 2010; Smith and Stevenson, 2009).

Regional tourism impacts from mega sporting events can take a number of forms and can generate various types of activity depending on the host region. There is limited research which has sought to uncover the positive tourism legacies which come to the fore as a result of hosting a mega sporting event, principally over an extended and prolonged period (Li and McCabe, 2012; Nakamura and Suzuki, 2017). Mega sporting events can help to establish new attractions and in some cases can change the long-term fortunes of a city's tourism sector (Smith, 2012), as well as acting as important marketing levers for a region (Lee, Song and Mjelde, 2008). Tourism and regeneration strategies require elements of compatibility in order to continue to build cities as viable tourism destinations. Establishing specific regeneration strategies for events and integrating approaches with the local community will be the key if cities wish to dynamically undergo transformative regional change. A number of studies have been implemented to compare and contrast the multitude of tourism and destination mega sporting event impacts. With regards to the 2010 South African FIFA World Cup these assessments have been primed towards the destination marketing organisation

(i.e. Destination South Africa) and its role in supporting economic development (Giampiccoli, Lee and Nauright, 2015), enhancing the 2010 World Cup's unique characteristics and nation branding opportunities (Knott, Allen and Swart, 2012; Knott, Fyall and Jones, 2015; Knott, Fyall and Jones, 2016; Knott, Fyall and Jones, 2017), the effect of the event on country reputation over longer term (Holtzhausen and Fullerton, 2015), developing a national sport tourism strategy and responsible tourism practices (Bama and Tichaawa, 2015; Swart and Bob, 2007), long term development and awareness effects (du Plessis and Maennig, 2011). Knott, Fyall and Jones (2016) examination of the nation branding opportunities of the 2014 FIFA World Cup exemplified the powerful role of a broad range of mega sporting event stakeholders, such as local citizens in the development of the host's branding legacy. Furthermore, the study recommended that the host nation's strategic objectives and campaigns be contained and featured within a sustainable tourism development framework. This coincides with the strategic planning of a tourism development strategy which needs to converge with other strategies of the city's overall regeneration (Bramwell, 1997b). Fourie and Santana-Gallego (2011) assessed the impacts of mega sporting events on tourist arrivals. Their findings suggest that mega sporting events promote tourism demand, but the gains vary depending on the type of event, participating countries and whether the event is held during the peak or off-season. Similarly Smith (2012) acknowledges that after mega sporting events have been staged achieving a sustained increase in tourism demand is not guaranteed, and some hosts have experienced disappointing tourism outcomes.

2.11 Mega sporting event legacy typologies

The development of legacy linked to the hosting of mega sporting events has been extensively reviewed in the literature. The notions of event legacy, the expansion in the importance of legacy themes and trends and claims to which its ability to develop long lasting impacts continues to feature prominently and garner scholarly interest (Christie and Gibb, 2015; Leopkey and Parent, 2012; Lovett and Bloyce, 2017). The development of the concept of legacy in these settings is due to the concerns surrounding the costs of the staging the event (Horne, 2017; Tomlinson, 2014). The current thinking and understanding around the term legacy, principally, as a means to justify the hosting of a mega sporting event like in the case of the Olympics is thought to have originated in the later part of the 20th century (Andranovich and Burbank, 2011; Ferrari and Guala, 2017; Leopkey and Parent, 2012). Moving forward into the 21st century in November 2002 saw the IOC hold its first conference focused on Olympic legacies (Andranovich and Burbank, 2011; Dickson, Benson and Blackman, 2011; Kaplanidou and Karadakis, 2010; Li and McCabe, 2012; Sadd, 2010). Following the symposium it was suggested that further research was required to be delivered concerning the planning and management of legacy programmes (Kaplanidou and Karadakis, 2010). Recent IOC sessions have focused on the development of the Olympic movement and its subsequent host city legacies. This has taken the form and advancement of the IOC's Olympic Agenda 2020 over the course of the 2010s which resulted in 15 recommendations outlined in early 2021 (IOC, 2016c; IOC, 2021b). However, it is also noted that there continues to be problems associated with Olympic legacies and the power of the IOC to lead positive change for host cities (Geeraert and Gauthier, 2017; Schnitzer and Haizinger, 2019; VanWynsberghe, Derom and Gadd, 2021; Whannel, 2021).

A mega sporting event legacy whether positive or negative can be demonstrated and exemplified by a plethora of characteristics and impacts. Stewart and Rayner (2016) posit that the term legacy is itself vague and problematic as it presents a one-dimensional view

which is seemingly portrayed as positive and ignores or avoids the negative connotations. The rhetoric of legacy is one attainable construct in which remains elusive and peripheral to the procedures in motion (de Almeida, Bolsmann, Júnior and de Souza, 2015). Both Agha, Fairley and Gibson (2012) and Kaplanidou and Karadakis (2010) support this premise that legacy is considered to be a multidimensional construct containing both tangible and intangible components, as well as opportunity costs potentially coming to fruition from the hosting the event. Sant, Mason and Hinch (2013) emphatically notes that the meaning of legacy is derived from and shaped by the context in which the Games are delivered. Academics have commented on the real lack of an accepted definition of an event legacy, and a consensus has not been reached on the type of legacy that can be created from a mega sporting event (Cornelissen, Bob and Swart, 2011; Gratton and Preuss, 2008; Preuss, 2007; Preuss, 2019; Rogerson, 2016; Scheu, Preuss and Könecke, 2021; Thomson, Cuskelly, Toohey, Kennelly, Burton and Fredline, 2019).

Preuss (2007) has discussed and critiqued the complexities of measuring mega sport event legacies, in addition to seeking to model a series of impacts. Scott (2014) has highlighted some of the incremental differences between the complex terms of 'legacy' and 'impact'. The former ordinarily implies that a beneficial attribute is left behind in the long term, in contrast impact refers to the variations enacted as a consequence of policies, interventions and programmes (Scott, 2014). Horne (2010) suggests that the word 'outcomes' has more of a neutral connotation and conveys the exploration of tangibility, intangibility and positive or negative event outcomes. There are certainly broader dimensions and outcomes that the host of such an event can look to enable or harness, as no consensus on the type of event legacies can support exists. These legacies often relate and lead to economic, social, and environmental transformations in the host city (Kaplanidou, 2012). Preuss (2015) conceptually devised six crucial dimensions of legacy – incorporating time, new initiatives, value, tangibility, space and intention. Event legacies attributes such as space, time,

tangibility and intention have been highlighted in the literature, especially in relation to how they could influence event outcomes.

Tangible elements of legacy, which have otherwise been referred to as hard structures in some studies, encompass the Olympic village, stadia, structures that generate permanent jobs and any new urban infrastructure development (Horne, 2017; Kaplanidou, Emadi, Sagas, Diop and Fritz, 2016; Li and McCabe, 2012; MacRury, 2015; Panagiotopoulou, 2014), technological resource improvements and network expansion (Kaplanidou and Karadakis, 2010). Intangible elements of legacy, also known as soft structures in some studies, include human factors, energy, the promises of the event or organisers (MacRury, 2015), memories (Horne, 2017), emotions, image and culture (Tsaur, Yen, Tu, Wang, Liang, 2017), and knowledge and network creation (Kaplanidou and Karadakis, 2010; Schnitzer, Scheiber, Kornexl and Thöni, 2017). Ferrari and Guala (2017) emphasised the planning of the tangible and intangible legacy outputs as being as important as organising the event. This is supported by Andranovich and Burbank (2011) who illustrate that non-economic factors like the intangible elements are now seemed to take precedent over economic factors, particularly in the IOC's concerns with legacy. In terms of host city geographical areas the legacy can be greater the closer the proximity to the main venues (Ferrari and Guala, 2017).

Academics have raised concerns and difficulties as to how the intangible impacts of events can be effectively measured (Schnitzer, Scheiber, Kornexl and Thöni, 2017), as well as the little reported attention and evidence on the intangible social impacts associated with the hosting decisions of large scale events. Schnitzer, Scheiber, Kornexl and Thöni (2017) assessed politicians' perspectives of their role as stakeholders in the host community before, during and after a major event. They argued that the politicians underestimated the intangible outcomes more commonly linked to community issues. Intentions of support from politicians largely depends on the perceptions and expectations of legacy instilled by the role

of government (Rocha, 2016). Pavoni (2015) referred to the concept of 'resistant legacies', which are not social, economic or environmentally led and enacted but provide an alternative approach of the host cities urban impacts, and encounters realised due to the frictions opened up in the urban spaces. To assess the critical components of resistant legacies further empirically and extensively, three overlapping themes have been established as significant – these are trans-disciplinary, ethnographic and longitudinal (Pavoni, 2015). Increasingly, with regards to the planning of mega sporting event legacies authors (e.g. Ferrari and Guala, 2017) have emphasised the importance of intangible elements in the resulting host cities impact. The intangible nature of legacy is much harder to establish and measure both temporarily and permanently (Ferrari and Guala, 2017). Horne (2017) exemplified that an issue with these types of events is that they largely generate intangible legacies that are universal, and contrastingly tangible legacies that are selective. In recent times, there have been studies undertaken which have centred on unpicking the intangible impacts of mega sporting events (for example, Pappalepore, 2016), although this concerned cultural events and the Cultural Olympiad programmes of two Olympic Games - this was highlighted previously. There simply needs to be greater investigations elicited further into the intangible elements of event legacies.

Legacy classifications have been discussed on numerous occasions in the literature. Mega sporting event legacy approaches have been indicated using a range of typology matrixes. Pappalepore and Duignan (2016) created a typology matrix specifically relating to creative and cultural organisations to assess the positive and negative impacts, and shorter and longer term effects of event legacy. Similar work has been charted previously by the likes of Andranovich and Burbank (2011) and Thomson, Schlenker and Schulenkorf (2013). Andranovich and Burbank (2011) posed a range of ways of Olympic impact and legacy can be conceptualised, determining event legacy categories in the process. Contrastingly, Dickson, Benson and Blackman (2011) highlighted a range of potential fields and dimensions of legacy (both Olympic and Paralympic). Using a bespoke legacy radar diagram

the researchers presented a comparison of three legacy profiles - infrastructure, urban development and social capital. Thomson, Schlenker and Schulenkorf (2013) produced a comprehensive summary of sport event legacy considerations which have emerged from the literature from 1991-2008. This included its context, legacy as planned or otherwise unplanned, temporal nature of legacy and positive and negative dimensions of legacy. Preuss (2015) extended this list of event legacy considerations by reviewing the typologies of event legacies from 2002 to 2015 and offered an overview of some of the fundamental attributes of the various definitions of legacy. These attributes have already been discussed earlier on in this section. To evaluate some of the mega sporting event legacy categories, Tsaur, Yen, Tu, Wang, Liang (2017) included potential indicators and findings of earlier legacy studies to seek to satisfy and ultimately develop framework measurements for their analysis. Their contribution to the field was to design a 36 item event legacy scale which comprised of 10 event legacy factors, such as infrastructure development, aesthetic image, environmental awareness, social welfare and community development. One of the factors outlined was community development. The lack of a systematic classification of community related and non-community related mega sporting event impacts has been criticised in contemporary research (Schnitzer, Scheiber, Kornexl and Thöni, 2017).

What is unclear in the literature is whether there is perceived to be a fruitful legacy in the locality of the host community. There is a shortage in evidence illustrating how mega sporting events affect host communities and their changing structures in society. As recognised by Leopkey and Parent (2012) there is still greater levels of research required to examine the contextual complexities and challenges that legacy poses. Pappalepore and Duignan (2016) observed and accentuated the importance of looking at the local characteristics of legacy impact. They acknowledge and raised the importance of seeking to analyse how host community's especially businesses in the London region can be forgotten in the local picture of impact, in addition to businesses being superficially understood across the wider spectrum of event impact studies. To this end, one of the research aims is to

examine the limited contextual, local and immediate analysis of impact in the host community. There is clearly a need to highlight the emergence of legacy and impact and explore socio economic legacies linked to these events.

2.12 Long term mega sporting legacy propositions

To achieve sustainable host community legacies mega sporting events must make sense of their legacy ambitions, and incorporate legacy goals into the policy, planning and delivery process. Veal, Toohey and Frawley (2012) notes the legacy of an Olympic Games in a host city can take a variety of forms, including enhancing urban infrastructure, and increasing the nation's international tourism profile. In addition to the role that a mega sporting event can play in supporting the host community, which, in this Games study, was thought to have received mixed views due to the lack of the creation of a grassroots sport's participation legacy (Veal, Toohey and Frawley, 2012). Conversely, the results from an alternative mega sporting event scenarios (Rugby World Cup) suggested growth in rugby participation registrations notably from junior categories in Australia following the staging of the 2003 World Cup (Frawley and Cush, 2011). Leopkey and Parent (2012) elucidate that the sustainability of an Olympic Games legacy is a shared responsibility between many stakeholders and actors. In a more recent study the same authors Leopkey and Parent (2015) highlighted a plethora of stakeholder perspectives concerning the governance of an Olympic legacy. They concluded that the provision of stable governance practices encompassing the likes of accountability, transparency and participation are central ingredients to the delivery of a successful Games, and overall positive sustainable legacy. On a similar note, Girginov (2011) examined four modes of governance which could facilitate the delivery of a sustainable Olympic sports legacy. These were outlined as public participation, collective action, accountability and transparency.

There is a perspective that mega sporting events are those that own the space in terms of the phenomenal legacy opportunities (Preuss, 2015). Although it is critical that the staging of these events consider the legacy they leave behind for the local community. In order to enhance long term legacy impacts across urban environments, organisers need to involve the communities in the planning process of mega sporting events. Smith and Fox (2007)

emphasise that securing regeneration in host cities requires careful planning, and organisers who are sensitive to the importance of legacy. In the case of the Sydney Olympic Games regeneration and legacy approaches were not considered to be satisfactory transformational in the long term. Legacy planning during the Sydney Games failed to live up to the host communities' expectations, and the consequences of this minimalistic approach are still being contested today (Poynter, 2009). This can be accentuated as the redevelopment and legacy of Sydney's key Olympic sites such as Sydney's Olympic Park remain contested by stakeholders (Davidson and McNeill, 2012). The reality of these specialised infrastructure developments in Sydney presented concerns about the viability of the host city's long term stadium planning (Searle, 2002). This failure to establish crucial links between hosting the Games and future city regeneration efforts may have provided added uncertainty over legacy outputs and may have resulted in damaging relations with host communities in particular regions of the city. Despite the uncertainty over Sydney's urban change and transformative interventions, according to Scherer (2011), their experiences are considered one of the most favourable modern Olympic host examples of urban development project implementation. Hartman and Zandberg (2015) acknowledged that mega sporting event legacies can be perceived differently by the stakeholders involved. Other unintended and disconcerting legacy impacts have been known to arise and are commonplace from the hosting of an Olympic Games, including adverse publicity, increases in housing gentrification, accentuating social disadvantage and exclusion and price inflation (Essex, 2010). Social, cultural and economic legacies which occur on some of the largest main stages (Olympics, FIFA World Cups etc.) ultimately form part of the notion termed the 'known unknowns' of sporting mega events (Horne, 2007). Ritchie (2000) posits how legacy planning can help to contribute to the development of facilities that will ultimately benefit residents of the host city for years to come. Researchers acknowledge that to further develop and strengthen the legacy process, organisers should incorporate the community

and resident perceptions into the long term legacy process (Matheson, 2010; Ritchie, Shipway and Cleeve, 2009).

There is a long history of cities using mega sporting events to obtain lasting physical benefits, and in the case of London 2012 this was no exception to this rule (Davis and Thornley, 2010; Sadd, 2010; Sadd and Jones, 2009). Mega sporting events can leave behind a prominent legacy in the areas where they are situated. The state of the legacy left behind may depend on what facilities are still in operation after the event has passed (Fussey, Coaffee, Armstrong and Hobbs, 2011). Pitts and Liao (2009) emphasise that the London Games through the utilisation of existing and newly built facilities hoped to inspire and extend long term legacies in the city. For host cities to achieve successful legacy outputs there needs to be a recognition of the array of influencing factors that could impinge on their legacy plans, strategies and ambitions. A number of scholars (Davies, 2012; Hiller, 2006) have highlighted the importance of legacy and regeneration monitoring and evaluation in contributing towards the success of the host city. Events like this seem to leave a more positive physical legacy when the legacy plans are embedded within the wider regeneration strategies of the event, such as volunteering, facilities and infrastructure developments and cultural integration strategies (Sadd and Jones, 2009; Smith and Fox, 2007). Nichols, Ralston and Holmes' (2017) investigation into a tourism volunteer programme introduced as part of the London 2012 Games assessed the potential role of volunteers in the promotion of prominent sustainable post-event tourism legacy outcomes. They revealed how volunteer ambassadors can be at the forefront of the visitor's experience, illustrating the value and distinctive contribution of the volunteers to enhancing the positive interactions of the tourism provision on offer (Nichols, Ralston and Holmes, 2017). Subsequently, this has led to a series of in-depth evaluations regarding the volunteering infrastructure legacies generated from the hosting of an Olympic Games, such as those associated with the Sydney 2000 and London 2012 Games (Fairley, Gardiner and Filo, 2016; Nichols and Ralston, 2011; Nichols, Ralston and Holmes, 2017). The development and legacy phases of a mega sporting event

should not be regarded as the final activity that surrounds the host city. The execution of the event is not seen as an end of the process but a means for development and extending a community-driven planning and development approach that can help to realise this ambition (Hartman and Zandberg, 2015).

2.13 Host city leveraging of mega sporting events

When a host city is working towards utilising the full scope and extent of benefits that could arise from a mega sporting event, it is useful for the organisers to consider how the city can leverage a portfolio of events rather than a one-off single event. As part of this process there needs to be recognition from policymakers as to how to plan to manage the leveraging process in terms of image, tourism and branding. In addition to the role that host community businesses and residents play in this configuration. In recent times there has been noticeable shift in thinking from hosts and organisers, moving from systematic legacy to leveraging (Chalip, 2014). There has been a phenomenal and burgeoning trend of sporting mega events being awarded to nations in the Global South (Millington and Darnell, 2014). This staging of a portfolio of events taking place in the Global South has been aptly termed as a 'globalisation of festivalisation' linked to urban policy being enacted (Steinbrink, 2013). The list of international sporting events held in Brazil over the last two decades plays a critical role in its extensive global events calendar, for instance, the 2007 Pan American Games hosted by Rio de Janeiro, the 2013 FIFA Confederations Cup, the 2014 FIFA World Cup, 2016 Rio Summer Olympic Games and the 2019 Copa America (Bailey, Oliver, Gaffney and Kolivras, 2017; Steinbrink, 2013).

Leveraging in a mega sporting event setting entails recognising how events can be utilised as resources to enable the attainment of positive intended outcomes for a host destination (Ziakas, 2015). Chalip (2004) coined and proposed a general model for sport event leverage and charted a pathway as to how this could be achieved. Event leveraging principles have been expanded and further embellished on in a number of settings including leveraging at an regional festival (O'Brien, 2007), leveraging at a cycling tour event (Derom and VanWynsberghe, 2015), networking through pre-event training (O'Brien and Gardiner, 2006), mega sporting event business leveraging (O'Brien, 2006), leveraging sport mega events beyond the host nation (Tichaawa and Bob, 2015), Rugby World Cup leveraging

strategies (Dickson, 2017), and mega sports event leveraging has even been applied using a SWOT analysis approach (Karadakis, Kaplanidou and Karlis, 2010). Chalip and Leyns' (2002) research harvested some interesting observations on leveraging tactics and attempts from local businesses.

Chalip (2004) clearly and comprehensively outlined a number of significant mega sporting event leveraging activities such as utilising local supply chains, fostering event visitor spending and building new markets. Key decision makers involved in the planning process of mega sporting events should consider how to spread the opportunities equally across the region. Kellett, Hede and Chalip (2008) insists that one of the challenges of event leveraging is identifying the suitable leverageable assets which in turn can be built on. Organisers must not underestimate the role of relationship development and networking in helping to broaden the possibilities of regions deriving benefits (O'Brien and Gardiner, 2006). Chalip's (2004) general event leverage model suggested enhancing the host destinations strategic assets like accentuating a destination's portfolio of events and destinations image, maximising alliances with associations and development agencies, increasing the destinations exposure, possessing an overall coordinated strategy and bundling services to further capitalise on the opportunity a series of events can yield. Liu (2016) stressed the importance of a host city introducing an annual series of regular international sport events to fit into the overall events portfolio.

The planning and use of event portfolio approaches has been diagnosed and critiqued in a number of recent studies (e.g. Gration, Raciti, Getz and Andersson, 2016; Ziakas, 2014; Ziakas, 2015; Ziakas and Costa, 2011). Likewise, Chalip conducted another study with McGuirty in 2004 and demonstrated the potential value of fostering strategies to market and bundle event attractions jointly with the promotion of the host destination (Chalip and McGuirty, 2004). A strategic planning framework and the cross-leveraging of a vast array of portfolio events and assets such as culture and heritage are required for maximising post-

Games Olympic benefits for the host city's development (Boukas, Ziakas and Boustras, 2013; Ziakas, 2015).

Since the inception of event leveraging initiatives developments in the field have now inspired a number of new dimensions, to which social impacts of mega sporting events can look to be leveraged. Social leveraging is at the very early stages of diagnosis and Chalip (2006) was one of the first to introduce the concept of social leveraging sport events. A social leveraging framework was proposed as research on the social leveraging aspects of sport events was found to be even less common (O'Brien and Chalip, 2007a; O'Brien and Chalip, 2007b). VanWynsberghe, Derom and Maurer (2012) conducted a study to examine the emerging phenomena of social leveraging and the opportunity for social leverage of the 2010 Vancouver Games. They proclaim that the planning of social leveraging activities is directly correlated with the level of government public policy initiatives invested. Moreover, the introduction of a social leveraging framework offers opportunities in terms of building leverageable resources for achieving city-wide social sustainability outcomes (VanWynsberghe, Derom and Maurer, 2012). By the same token Ziakas (2015) reiterates the interdependency between the notion of event leverage and the three pillars of sustainability (economic, social and environmental) which is increasingly more widely understood in the TBL make-up and design. O'Brien and Chalip (2007b) remark that the future for events could be characterised by potential TBL benefits. Thus, extending the initial formulation of the notion of leverage from economic leverage, to social leverage (Chalip, 2006) and advancing towards the TBL leverage nexus (O'Brien, 2007; O'Brien and Chalip, 2007a; O'Brien and Chalip, 2007b). Ziakas (2015) established ten critical research themes and research focus agendas for mega sporting event leveraging. This included the likes of equity and sustainability, which accentuated the concept of TBL, the transfer and generation of social capital in the context of an event, the development of a holistic strategic framework, cultural revitalisation, the scope of local programmes and the so called on the ground leveraging and capacity building. Host cities now more than ever will search to strategic

leverage a social and economic legacy for host communities. Although the extent to which this has been effectively achieved and fulfilled is debatable.

The significance of leveraging a holistic portfolio approach of events and how organisers and the city manage the leveraging process is critical to combining a range of potential worthwhile outcomes from more localised events. In this instance, embracing a strategic portfolio of events may extend the marketability of the place or region and enhance the presence of destination branding. To leverage more promising and better outcomes for host communities there is a need to examine resident and business dynamics post-event more rigorously. At the same time accounting for large scale impacts, particularly destination image, tourism development, urban regeneration and branding impacts. As already implied in this section, mega sporting events leveraging aspects and approaches especially from a social leveraging angle are relatively uncommon in the literature.

2.14 Networking at mega sporting events

Mega sporting events may stimulate the creation or extension of new networks in the host city or region. The development of networks in an urban setting can differ based on their type, scale and connectedness between other networks, but all are contingent on the characteristics of the urban space (Pflieger and Rozenblat, 2010). Local network effects can be realised as a product of pulsar events like the Olympic Games - primarily including dimensions such as capacity building, knowledge sharing, coupled with bridging social capital to fuse with national and international networks (Richards, 2015). Jones (2005) emphasised that there are limited cases of economic impact assessments detailing the hosting of major events on the development of new relationships, intra-regional networks or social capital. Jones' (2005) enquiry into the impact of the 1999 Rugby World Cup on networks and regional development ascertained mixed results prevail but the event was important in triggering new regional relationships. In the event tourism domain there seems to be little empirical research into the role of networks and how they might complement strategies associated with tourism (Stokes, 2006). Stokes (2006) refers to a number of network perspectives in the events context, where multiple stakeholders and actors encroach on the overall network structures and processes in the development of the event's tourism strategy.

Sallent, Palau and Guia (2011) investigated the impact of a regional sports event on its relationship with sports and tourism stakeholders. The study was conducted using social network analysis, which was found to be beneficial to the author in identifying different stakeholders and their roles in the event. Before and after the event a complex network relationship between agents, actors or stakeholder groups were identified, including public, private and non-profit organisations (Sallent, Palau and Guia, 2011). Additionally, although it was only a regional sports events and the processes may not be strictly transferable to a mega sporting event setting, the authors recognised the potential of sport events in

generating more cohesive networks (Sallent, Palau and Guia, 2011). By the same token Taks (2013) alludes to events being a means for how networks and relationships are formed. Pflieger and Rozenblat (2010) exemplifies that a key issue is to understand the relationship between networks and how they interrelate with cities. Assessments into the social network analysis technique are starting to emerge in not only mega sporting event settings (Parent, Rouillard and Naraine, 2017) but can also been found in urban tourism contexts (Timur and Getz, 2008) and festival studies (e.g. Jarman, Theodoraki, Hall and Ali-Knight, 2014; Jarman, 2021). Jarman et al (2014) detailed a concise review of social network analysis with regards to approaching social network analysis' operationalisation. In an event setting social networking analysis has been suggested to be beneficial in facilitating ties between social actors (Richards, 2015). Network analysis can be used to examine interorganisational linkages and patterns associated with planning event portfolios (Ziakas, 2014). With regards to the development of an events portfolio, events must be assessed in their applications for forging social change and civic outcomes in the host city, in addition to outlining the integral role that human and social capital plays in the process of formulating organisational relationships (Clark and Misener, 2015).

For networks to build capacity organisations must be able to work collaboratively both regionally and nationally. Werner, Dickson and Hyde (2016) identified a number of conditions identified required to increase collaborative capacity in New Zealand during the 2011 Rugby World Cup, such as the integration of all stakeholders, clear communication and trust. The authors approach for their research was to investigate the extent of the interactions and capacity of inter-organisational collaboration for tourism businesses in the host community. This study highlighted the opportunity and potential provided by events to increase collaboration and collaborative capacity amongst tourism organisations and networks. The organisation processes and relationships using the mega sporting events location, in this instance the 2011 Rugby World Cup, have been replicated by these authors in question. Two reviews in 2015 considered aspects containing learning and knowledge

transfer processes (Werner, Dickson and Hyde, 2015a) and the impact of a mega sporting event on inter-organisational relationships and tie strength (Werner, Dickson and Hyde, 2015b). Werner, Dickson and Hyde (2015b) observed that few studies have examined existing inter-organisational relationships and tie strength and they offered a comparative analysis of intra and inter-regional regional tourism networks. They recognised the importance of strengthening and leveraging relationships across the destination.

In many cases, the local community may lack access to resources or the various tangible ingredients to support their skills and knowledge, in order to attract significant benefits from the mega sporting event. Communities need to be provided with the opportunity to acquire new skills, deepen their awareness of their capabilities in the local community, so that they can build capacity and use these events to their advantage. Also, the role of the local authority in the host city may need to be considered in this situation. The staging of new events such as the Olympic Games can help to accomplish multiple objectives such as building capacity and developing local community development (Ziakas and Boukas, 2016). Kaplanidou (2012) remarked that as a result of hosting a mega sporting event it can support new knowledge development. Using the concept of corporate community investment Misener and Mason (2010) aimed to determine some of the methods that could be executed to aid organising committees and corporations in developing socially responsible programs. From the onset this study looked to address the demand for sporting events to foster, deliver and therefore improve their subsequent contribution to the social impacts of civic and community development (Misener and Mason, 2010). Their approach contained three guiding principles which were directed towards enhancing community involvement. These were as followed: comprehensive community involvement in decision-making processes, disclosure and transparency in event processes, and central to the legacy planning process is engagement with the local community and various interest groups (Misener and Mason, 2010). Research on the role of mega sporting events for capacity building has been observed to be severely scant to put it bluntly (Girginov, Peshin and Belousov, 2017). Using

voluntary sport organisations as the focus for the study, Girginov, Peshin and Belousov (2017), identified major contributions of two Games, summer (London 2012) and winter (Sochi 2014) on the levels of capacity building. The contributions of the capacity building processes were established at an individual, organisational and community level. This assessment indicated the state of the relationships between the leveraging platforms, the political framing of the event and how the events impacted organisational structures and governance.

In their event structures Gratton and Preuss (2008) identified networks that are created to enhance the staging of an event, yet networks remain a neglected and highly under researched aspect of mega sporting event research. This thesis will look to establish whether such an event is able to catalyse new networks for business and entrepreneurial support and training. Mega sporting events afford the opportunity for businesses to adopt and transfer tangible ingredients such as skills and knowledge which consequently proliferate through new networks and groups. A number of key questions will be considered to help formulate the research enquiry: Have businesses been able to build, develop and accrue social, human and financial capital? Can events of this scale be utilised as tools for developing networks? Are these networks a product of pure intention representing policy shifts or have these networks been organically formed? This thesis will also seek to assess how the capacity and capabilities of businesses can be generated through the hosting of such an event.

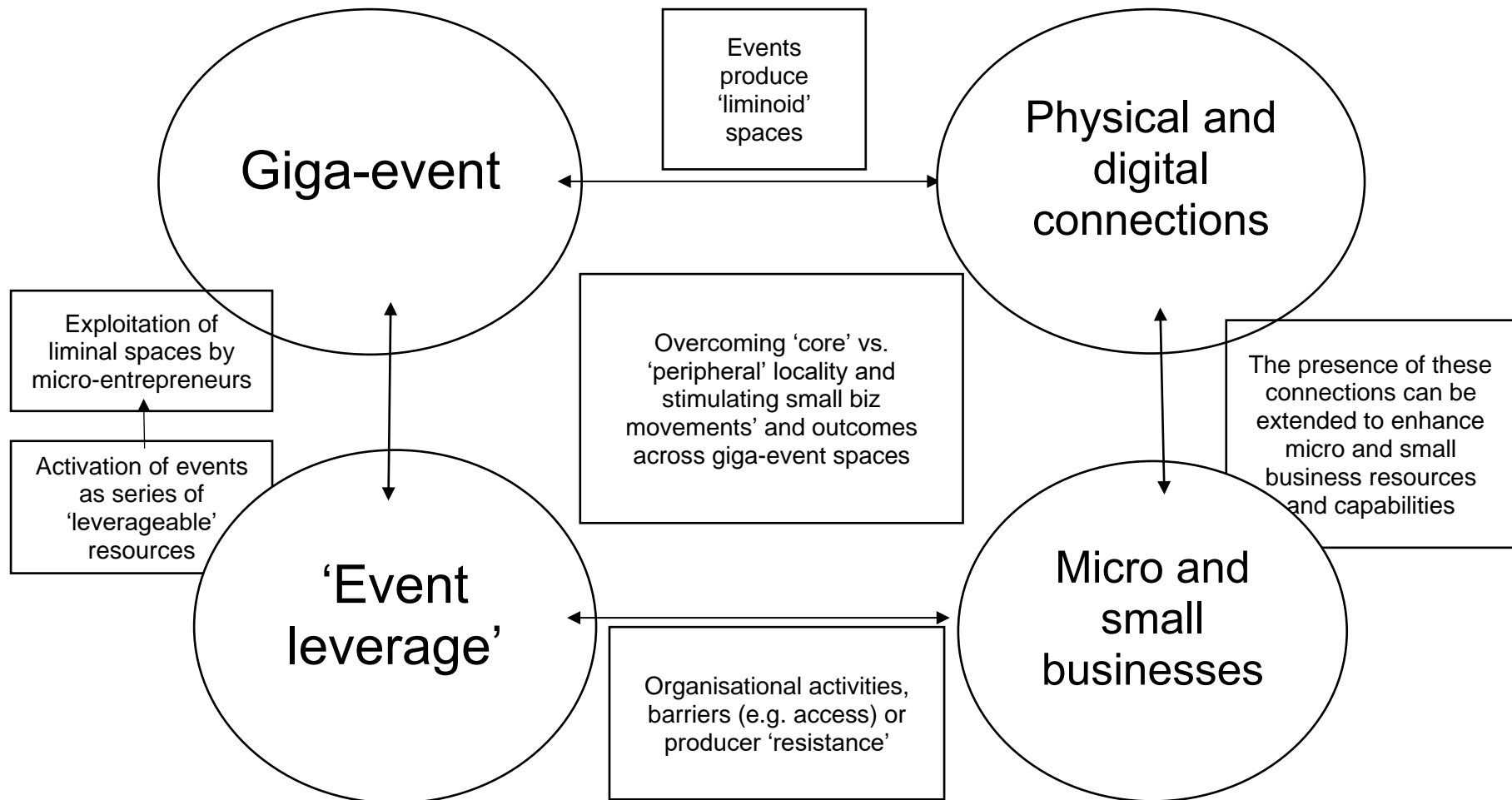
2.15 Conceptualising liminality at mega sporting events: temporary and permanent liminal spaces

Liminality is an under-explored concept in the mega sporting events literature, despite the critical challenges and exclusion faced by host communities. Although, the notion of liminality has received some theoretical development and exploration in key events spaces (e.g. Bingley, Burgess, Lockstone-Binney and Urwin, 2019; Chalip, 2006, 2014, 2018; Duignan, Down and O'Brien, 2020; Kirby and Duignan, 2020; Musikavanhu, Ladkin and Sadd, 2021; Pavoni, 2020). The development of the concept was coined by the ethnographer and folklorist Arnold van Gennep in 1909 with his landmark work 'The Rites of Passage' (Thomassen, 2009). Van Gennep operationalised and developed three phases entailing a rite of passage, from separation (pre-liminal), transition (liminal) and incorporation (post-liminal) used for rituals and accounting for changes in social status to an individual or group (Turner, 1979). Although liminality has featured throughout anthropological studies of events, it has rarely been invoked in studies of event impact and leverage (Chalip, 2018).

Notably, in a mega sporting event context, there is a paucity in research oriented towards analysis of the strategic uses and enactment of liminality, coupled with advancing liminality as a core event leverageable resource for economic and environmental enhancement (Chalip, 2006, 2014, 2018). Possessing a sense of celebration and social camaraderie are considered two critical dimensions for the creation of liminality in a mega sporting event environment (Chalip, 2006). The presence of liminality and synergies with the event in the hosting city or nation affords the potential of creating relationships, bringing together a range of citizens and community figures (Chalip, 2006). Turner (1969, 1979) emphasised the symbiotic relationship between the liminal phenomena, liminoid and 'communitas', ascribed and overlaid through the study of ritual in tribal society. Thomassen (2009) remarked that Turner's pioneering writings recognised the significance of the experiences of liminality. In particular, he highlighted how spatial aspects of liminality lead to the emergence of liminal

experiences relevant to areas or zones e.g. Games venues and ancillary event zones such as 'live sites' and mega sporting event fan fests (Thomassen, 2009). New frameworks have been developed to scope out and leverage the social benefits and immediate forms of liminality (e.g. Kirby and Duignan, 2020; Lockstone-Binney, Urwin, Bingley and Burgess, 2020). Effective use of liminoidal space opens up local entrepreneurship possibilities and supports unplanned social equitable outcomes (Duignan, Down and O'Brien, 2020; Musikavanhu, Ladkin and Sadd, 2021). Kirby and Duignan (2020) extended an Event Leverage Liminality (ELL) model (see Figure 5) to illustrate the complex physical and digital ways marginalised micro and small businesses can engage in beneficial immediate forms of leveraging to generate purposeful and bottom-up visitor economy outcomes (Kirby and Duignan, 2020).

Figure 5: Extended 'Festival-Event-Leverage Complex' (Kirby and Duignan, 2020)



In sporting event settings liminoid experiences are perceived to create a sense of the sacred but are frequently purported to be retained in secular spaces (O'Brien and Chalip, 2007; Ziakas and Boukas, 2013). The ideas of the 'liminoid' refer to liminal practices that have (re)emerged in modern-day society, driven by leisure pursuits and the cultural industry, to highlight a few examples (Thomassen, 2014). Engaging in these practices through events spaces can bolster a pathway to reach and occupy these so called 'liminal zones' of activity (Jaimangal-Jones, Pritchard and Morgan, 2010; Pritchard and Morgan, 2006; Ravenscroft and Matteucci, 2003; Voase, 2018). Regarding the formation of liminal spaces events must pay close attention to the events participants networked relationships, and capitalise on forms of fluid, 'democratised urban space' and distinctive qualities of liminoid space (Duignan, Everett, Walsh and Cade, 2018; Peachey, Borland, Lobpries and Cohen, 2015). For example, commercial interests building a sense of tradition (Chalip, 2006). Leveraging liminal spaces and enlisting ways for redistributing benefits is vital in leading to the production of 'communitas' in host cities. Communitas is defined as a sense of community and feeling part of something bigger (Thomson, Schlenker, Schulenkorf and Brooking, 2016). This has been distinguished and explored in a number of recent event studies, yet the leveraging of liminal spaces has received limited critical event analysis. Key mechanisms for enhancing liminality were originally uncovered by Chalip's (2006) study, incorporating strategies such as event theming and the supply of ancillary events. Distinctive patterns of liminality can establish new ground connected to institutional rules and conventions, but these ultimately depend heavily on strategic leveraging opportunities which are presented by the event (Girginov, 2016). For this very reason effective event design and programming is appropriate. Planning social interactions that could take place and aligning stakeholders concerns with community development policies, which at the heart are aimed at targeting social issues and could cause liminality to resonate through the community collective of the host community (Ziakas, 2016).

2.16 Corruption and mega sporting events: servicing the political elites

The culture of corruption is a widely accepted accusation proffered towards global governing bodies and local organising committees as a result of staging mega sporting events.

Contemporary allegations of corruption, embezzlement and profiteering have plagued governing bodies (Sugden and Tomlinson, 2016). A number of Olympic Games host nations over the year have been marred by corruption controversies and scandals. This includes allegations of bribery in the bidding process at the Salt Lake City 2002 Winter Olympic Games (e.g. Crowther, 2002; Maennig, 2005; Mason, Thibault and Misener, 2006; Wenn and Martyn, 2006), through to more recent illicit activity, such as allegations of anticompetitive behaviour from organisations in the run-up South Africa and Brazil's World Cups, respectively (Olmos, Bellido and Román-Aso, 2020). These reports of corruption scandals and unfavourable headlines circulating around the bidding and awarding MSE contracts place global governing bodies and committees (e.g. IOC) future in jeopardy (Matheson, Schwab and Koval, 2018). Some academics (e.g. Koenigstorfer and Kulczycki, 2018) have emphasised that the level of corruption is said to be context-specific to the location of a mega sporting event, as well as the cycle of funding once the host has been confirmed, giving rise to corrupt practices. This perception of corrupt or 'misaligned activities' which stem from not only event governing bodies (e.g. IOC) but also from national organising committees has been found to negatively impact the host populations' attitudes towards the event (de Oliveira, Gursoy, Ribeiro and Netto, 2019; Kulczycki and Koenigstorfer, 2016; Santos, Gursoy, Ribeiro and Netto, 2018). A study by de Oliveira et al (2019) found there is a relationship between resident perceptions of corruption and to what extent locals perceive the benefits and therefore put their weight of support behind hosting a mega sporting event.

Mega sporting event corruption issues can be categorised into three distinct levels: societal, organisational and individual (Koenigstorfer and Kulczycki, 2018). At a societal level, these

are directly attached to areas such as domestic and foreign investments. Whereas at the organisational and individual levels they can be connected to corrupt business ethic practices, and the misuse of public positions and funds for their own or organisation gain (Koenigstorfer and Kulczycki, 2018). Kirby and Crabb (2019) explored some of the consequences of corruption indicators at all three levels associated with large scale infrastructure projects within two Olympic Games and the Men's Football World Cup host cities, Rio de Janeiro and Cuiabá. Their analysis shed light on the role of political elites and other state actors in covering up corruption concerns in order to prop up political agendas of senior figures, in a bid not to disclose the true value of construction infrastructure costs. There are a number of factors that affect public trust from host city populations, and specifically two key drivers of public trust, transparency and knowledge. Nunkoo, Ribeiro, Sunnassee, and Gursoy's (2018) assessment concluded that transparency and the extent to which stakeholders are involved in the decisions making processes is significant for host governments gaining support from local populations. This is important as the local populations tend to have little or no involvement in the planning processes and are frequently superseded by the private elite, who control the circulation of money and resources, particularly in relation the construction of mega projects (Maharaj, 2015; Majoor, 2011; Souliotis, Sayas and Maloutas, 2014). Although, other commentators have claimed that little is still known about the consequences of corruption and transparency propagated by the hosting nation (e.g. Henne, 2015). The revolving corruption saga and agenda of political elites, and how these political figureheads can benefit from development plans at the expense of the local community is one theme that will be assessed to greater depth throughout this thesis.

2.17 Concluding the literature review

During the course of this literature review chapter a number of primary topics and themes have been given specific attention to. For starters, the emergence of mega sporting events more broadly and how these projects have become increasingly commodified and commercialised and more stringently governed by global actors (e.g. IOC) and a range of key stakeholders e.g. local authority actors. The context and structure are shaped in ways that reflect the host city or region. In the next section the drivers for policymakers in relation to enacting bids for Olympic Games and a discussion of how these events can be used as a shop window effect for cities and nations was explored. This led succinctly into the role of event-policy shifts of Olympic Games hosts and how policies can be developed to primarily target urban regeneration programmes, building new stadia and facility revitalisation. This followed on to examinations concerning socio-economic, destination and tourism impacts associated with large scale sporting events. Host community inclusion and exclusion evidence was proffered up and the relationships between urban entrepreneurship and competitiveness tactics were teased out. The final few sections detailed business networking successes and challenges at the Games, as well as seeking to conceptualise temporary and permanent urban spaces of liminality, in addition to unpacking corruption indicators and how the political elites serve to gain from underhand financing strategies.

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Introduction to the methodology

This chapter starts by introducing the case study context of Porto Maravilha and the key actors involved in delivering Games-related development planning. Next, the underlying stages of research and timeline for setting up, arranging, and undertaking the delivery of the methodology techniques are interrogated in relation to how they were applied to this research study context. This is then followed by an outline and critical discussion of the researchers' philosophical standpoint and how this influenced the processes for how this research was conducted, as well as the ways in which the researcher interpreted their own individual beliefs and potential research biases (see research philosophy section). Next, the framework for the study's case study research design and how was created to fit the needs of the study is explained (see case study analysis section). This leads succinctly into the research approach and how these practices were operationalised for the field and data collection procedures (see semi-structured interviews section). Following this, qualitative techniques are outlined and neatly assembled to establish and demonstrate how the data analysis, including coding, was primed and evolved for themes to emerge from the data (see qualitative data analysis section). Following this, visual, digital and social media data analysis and walking techniques were introduced, developed and discussed to provide novel approaches to gathering observational results in and outside of the study location (see the use of visual, digital and walking methods section). Lastly, ethical considerations of the research and a mini reflection on the role of the researcher is elaborated on to make sense of the various strengths and pitfalls of how the research study was fashioned out and vigorously explored (see ethical considerations and summary sections).

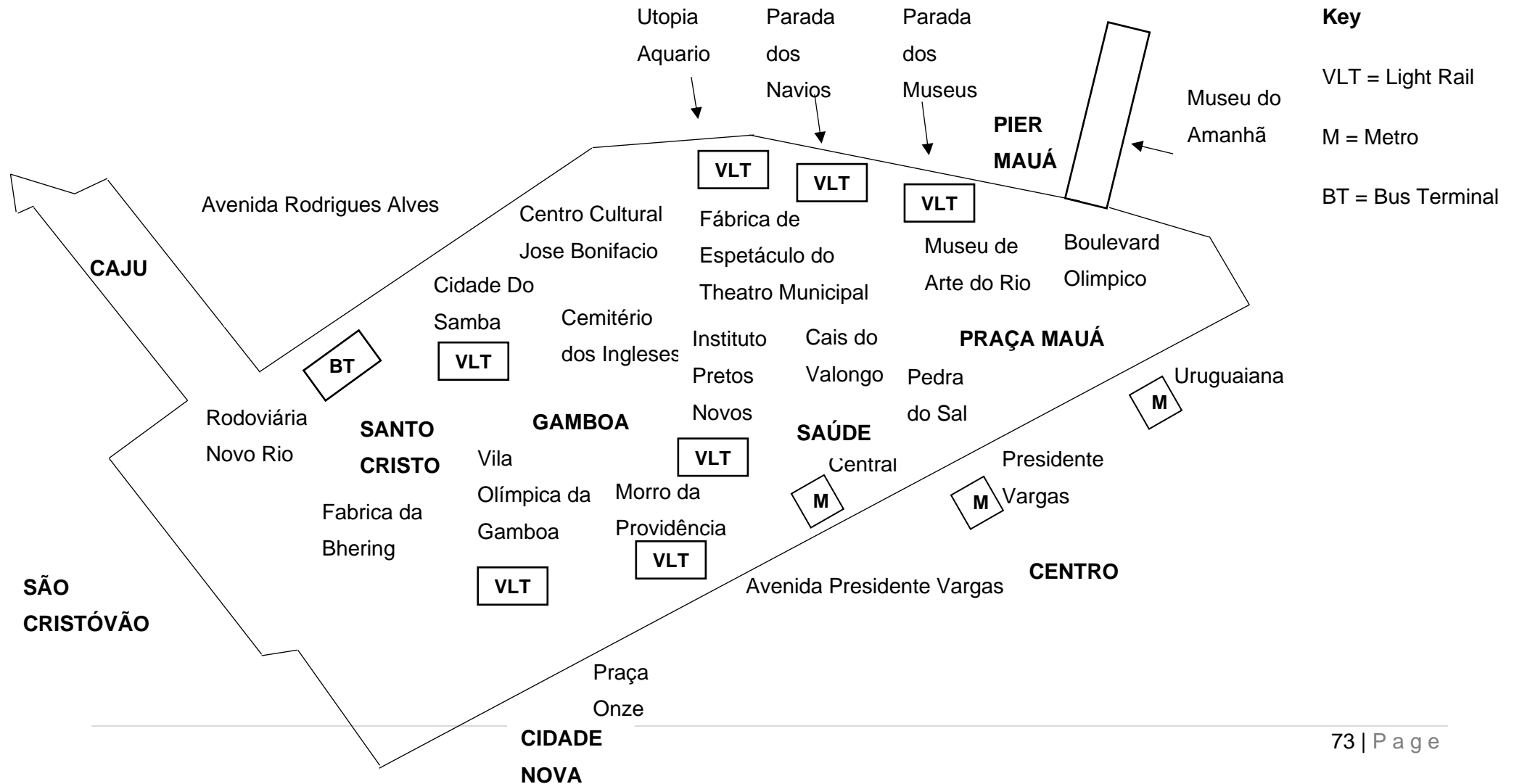
3.2 Introduction to the case study context: Porto Maravilha and Olympic Games related development

The case study for this thesis centres on Rio de Janeiro's 'Urban Operation' Porto Maravilha (sometimes referred to as the 'Marvellous Port'), located on the west shore of Guanabara Bay of the city. Rio de Janeiro's port zone is home to one of the oldest and first favelas in Rio, Morro da Providência, coupled with possessing a rich African heritage and a long history of slavery (Arsenault, 2017; RioOnWatch, 2015a, 2015b, 2019). To provide background into the project-related event development, the Porto Maravilha programme was launched in the early 2010s as one of the largest urban renewal projects tasked with revitalising the historic port and downtown area of Rio de Janeiro (Gaffney, 2021; Kommenda, 2016; RioOnWatch, 2015a; Zimbalist, 2017). Although, this project had already been given the go-ahead to commence well before the Games the plans had become synonymous with the preparation of the Games (Carvalho, 2016; Ren, 2017). During the Rio 2016 Olympic Games, Porto Maravilha was home to one of the largest live sites in Olympic history held in one of the newly renovated spaces, the Olympic Boulevard, as well as acting as a media centre (Castro, 2017; Duignan and Ivanescu, 2017; IOC, 2016d; Kirby and Duignan, 2020; Paschoal and Wegrich, 2017; Penfold, 2019). Pre-Games locating the Olympic village in the waterfront area was considered for Rio 2016, but this was later rejected (Broudehoux, 2013; Sánchez and Broudehoux, 2013). It is noted that the Olympic Games project has significantly accelerated the programme of regeneration in Porto Maravilha, which more recently was touted as one of the largest joint public-private partnerships between the local authority and private provider CDURP in the country intended to revitalise and remodel the downtown port region (Paschoal and Wegrich, 2017; Ren, 2017; RioOnWatch, 2019; Sanchez and Essex, 2017).

Scholars have acknowledged that since the start of the decade the Rio de Janeiro state government have attempted to introduce new policies designed to redevelop the historic

downtown, improve transportation and upgrade favelas (Ren, 2017). The prime case for the Olympics driving regional development has been made on numerous occasions during the bidding process. Richmond and Garmany (2016) postulated that the so called urban infrastructure, modernisation and integration plans are seen to repurpose the port for the longer-term interests of capital. To this end the 2016 Games was conveyed as a mechanism for the supposed reduction of social inequalities in the city (Osorio and Versiani, 2014). The broader programme of Games-related urban development aimed to regenerate 5 million square meters of docklands, railyards and warehouses, estimating to cost R\$8 billion (IOC, 2017a; Silvestre, 2016). Further urban development outcomes incorporated the implementation of new VLT and BRT transportation lines (Carvalho, 2016; CDURP, 2016; Guerra, Ferreira and Kipnis, 2018; McEwen and Walker, 2015; Oliveira, Vainer, Mascarenhas, Bienenstein and Braathen, 2020). A number of cultural attractions and ancillary structures were constructed as part of the plans including the Museum of Tomorrow and the Rio Museum of Art, built in Pier Mauá just before Rio 2016 (Guerra, Ferreira and Kipnis, 2018). These two attractions were promoted and packaged as focal points of the new cultural district and continued development (Guerra, Ferreira and Kipnis, 2018; Jaguaribe and Salmon, 2016). A full overview of Porto Maravilha's urban development zones is contained in Figure 6. In this instance, urban construction and large-scale intervention were speculative development intentions for Porto Maravilha (de Souza, 2012; Eick, 2013; López-Morales, Shin and Lees, 2016). Urban regeneration claims view this development as one of the main physical legacies of the Games, galvanising transformative infrastructure building and creating urban areas for tourist-making activities (IOC, 2017a, Ribeiro and Santos Junior, 2017; Rio 2016, 2018a; Rio 2016, 2018b; Santos Junior and Santos, 2013). To this end, Porto Maravilha has been described as an exceptional Olympic project by commentators (Sánchez and Broudehoux, 2013).

Figure 6: Overview of Porto Maravilha districts and urban infrastructure development zones (adapted from Kirby and Crabb, 2019, based on CDURP, 2016; RioOnWatch, 2016)



Central to the regeneration plans were the recapture of areas using a range of means including state-of-the-art office tower development and corporate hotels (Jaguaribe and Salmon, 2016; Ribeiro and Santos Junior, 2017). Jaguaribe and Salmon (2016) argued that the appeal of the region is derived by private investors seeking to speculate and augment real estate market values. Porto Maravilha is widely tipped as an urban developmental zone seeking to perpetuate mega urban project reconfigurations of the local space (Kirby and Crabb, 2019). Critics have argued that this system of 'redevelopment' is insinuated to be a neoliberal launch to recapture the port district for the government and big business (Ribeiro and Santos Junior, 2017). Coupled with elites capitalising on urban land production for highly prized real estate developments (Bin, 2017). Key port sites have experienced lock-outs over the privatisation and 'corporate reanimation' of urban space (McGillivray, Duignan and Mielke, 2020). The favela overlooking Porto Maravilha, Morro da Providência, was pervasively targeted by the development project in the run-up to the Olympic Games (Keivani, de Melo and Brownill, 2020). Implementation of this urban programme led to civil unrest and the forced evictions and displacement of local residents in Morro da Providência (Becerril, 2017; RioOnWatch, 2019; Wainwright, 2013). This resulted in greater policing in the favelas through the force of the Police Pacifying Unit (UPP) following the Games. Pereira and Mosciaro (2015) emphasised that the port development aimed to create a mixed-use district of housing and businesses around the harbour and surrounding neighbourhoods, which are seen to be abandoned in the eyes of many citizens. Furthermore, the Porto Maravilha project has been detailed as an urban regeneration initiative that can fast-track Rio de Janeiro towards urban revitalisation and transformation into a "strategic residential, cultural, business and tourism hub" (Rio de Janeiro City Government, 2014). The reasons outlined above provide a neat segue into how Porto Maravilha is positioned as a key resource to relay ambitions of the local authority, as well as why this case was selected because of the significance placed on the location's vision for the future. In the next section,

the urban projects' key stakeholders and the project schemes financing model will be reviewed and examined.

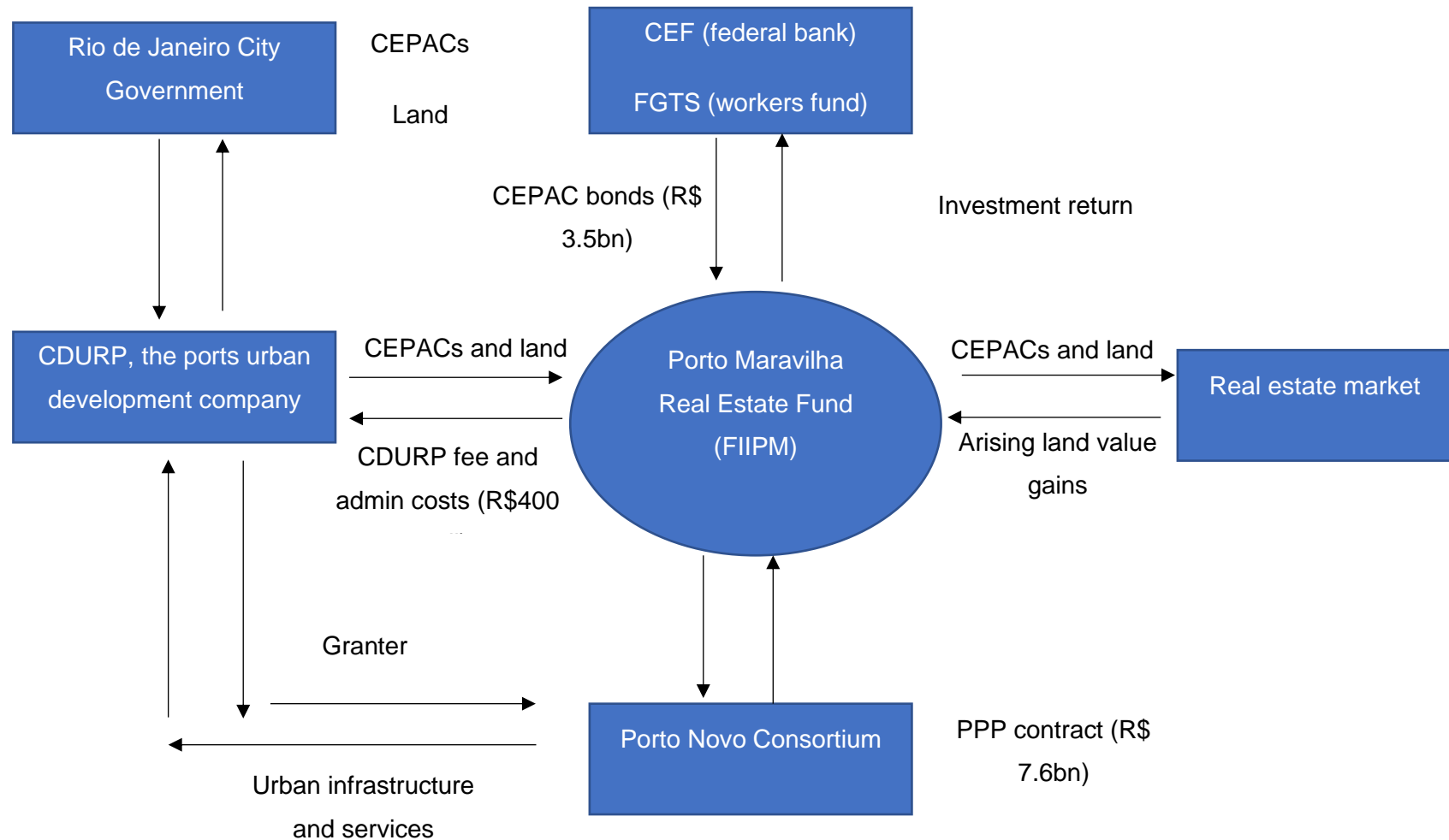
3.3 Urban development players and entities in the research location: CEPACs, role of the state and support associations

Porto Maravilha was conceived as a major development project. In doing so it is important to recognise here that there are a number of key players involved in delivering this urban development scheme. One of which was a publicly backed company, Urban Development Company of the Port Region (CDURP). CDURP are a mixed-ownership company created by the city government and the consortium which won the public bidding process was Porto Novo Consortium and is comprised of two construction companies and an engineering company (de Oliveira and Sant'Anna, Diniz and Neto, 2015; World Cup and Olympics Popular Committee of Rio de Janeiro, 2015). The company was created to manage the overall project as well as coordinate the primary stakeholders from residents, to private sector investors and the consortium responsible for undertaking the urban development works (Mosciaro, Pereira and Aalbers, 2021). Specific operational and maintenance services were linked to their role in the urban regeneration project, such as developing urban infrastructure, and maintaining sanitation and communication networks (World Cup and Olympics Popular Committee of Rio de Janeiro, 2015). Porto Novo Consortium held a very lucrative Public-Private Partnership (PPP) contract which would run for 15 years from 2009 (RioOnWatch, 2016; Silva, 2017; World Cup and Olympics Popular Committee of Rio de Janeiro, 2015). PPPs have been increasingly pursued in developing countries to improve infrastructure development (Leigland, 2018). To fund a range of activities in the port region this project approached the developments with a very different financial strategy to what would typically be used in undertaken in other geographical locations. This new urban operation would finance the project using Certificates for Potential Additional Construction or CEPACs. Sao Paulo in 1995 was the originator of adopting CEPACs with the aim of offering the municipality a market-based land value capture tool implemented through unique legislative agreements known as 'Urban Operations' (Kim, 2018). CEPACs are used as a

funding portal in urban operations with similarities to offering tax increments (Mosciaro, Pereira and Aalbers, 2021). Since then it has gone up to be enacted in other territories in Brazil as a land capturing tool. This acquisition of additional development rights is completed using the purchase of bonds known as CEPACs (Mosciaro and Pereira, 2019; Mosciaro, Pereira and Aalbers, 2021). An overview of Porto Maravilha's urban development funding model is provided in Figure 7. Firstly, to achieve changes to the urban environment, the whole area of the port was declared an area of special urban interest and divided into sectors to establish new urbanisation standards (PACS, 2017). The city argued that the money raised through the sale of CEPACs would be reinvested in urban infrastructure and services (Nobre, 2016). The stages to establish the funding in Porto Maravilha revolved raising income through the sale of CEPAC bonds - approximately R\$10 billion was estimated to tackle all of the project works and deliver ongoing services e.g. sanitation (PACS, 2017). But this work only commenced once the Guarantee Fund for Time of Service (FGTS), a workers' severance indemnity fund, acquired all of the CEPAC bonds issued by the city in a single lot, amounting to R\$3.6 billion (PACS, 2017; Procópio, 2016). This fund is managed by a federal government bank, Caixa Econômica Federal (CEF). This Porto Maravilha Real Estate Fund (FIIPM) as a result was forged by the FGTS and administered by CEF (Gonçalves and Costa, 2016). The federal government bank is responsible for trading the CEPACs on the stock market in order to continue to finance the works (Hoshino and Franzoni, 2016). In this instance, the purchasers of the CEPAC titles on the stock market acquire the right to build and extend urban infrastructure beyond the usual limit (Gonçalves and Costa, 2016). At the time first proposed and released CEPACs large investments were made in the port district, with the total cost estimated to be R\$8bn or otherwise \$US2.3bn (Gonçalves and Costa, 2016). R\$7.6bn (\$US2.2bn) went towards the PPP with the consortium and obtained through the sale of CEPACs. At an early phase it was apparent CDURP, and other players hoped to valorise the areas using CEPACs, through the sale to private developers to cover the total funding required (PACS, 2017; Pavoni, 2019). Specific

urban project CEPACs are equivalent to units of development space and are typically around one square metre in size (Kim, 2018). So, this instrument alongside federal law regulation from 2001 helped to encourage the financing of large-scale construction works in the city without tapping into municipal budgets (de Oliveira and Sant'Anna, Diniz and Neto, 2015). This has served to benefit organisations like CDURP who continue to perpetuate the vast potential of investing in these schemes (e.g. CDURP, 2016; CDURP, 2020a). Other commentators posit that these complex agreements are reflective of financial capitalism as workers' funds and their risks are being transferred and exploited for speculative activity, combined with the FIIPM being obligated to pay the costs of the PPP and also repay the amount invested by the FGTS (Gonçalves and Costa, 2016). Mosciaro, Pereira and Aalbers (2021) assert that CEPACs are considered to be abstract instruments and treated as financial assets of the city, which can be traded and issued to turn these developments into speculative investments. In 2015, 90% of the CEPAC assets were still unsold and this caused additional financial support to be diverted from the national social housing fund (Klink and Stroher, 2017). These contradictory processes have led to accusations of corruption and the increased the possibility of illicit practices from the political elites (Gonçalves and Costa, 2016; Gonçalves and Costa, 2019). Procópio (2016) explains that buying CEPACs through the FGTS only guarantees a few years of the construction work and services provided in the PPP contract. In recent years, the process has been reversed with CDURP repurchasing more than 168,000 worth of CEPACs back from FGTS (Metropolis Observatory, 2018). The contradictory process of ramming through urban development financing using CEPACs is one theme that will be explored to provide more critical observations into how it affects infrastructure and community development (Procópio, 2016).

Figure 7: Porto Maravilha's urban development funding model (adapted from CDURP, 2020a; Silva, 2017)



3.4 Stages of the research

There were a number of strands to embarking on and completing the research process.

Individual aspects of these stages of the research have been sorted in three explicit bitesize chunks for each of the nine stages and these are summarised in Table 2. These phases are now going to be fleshed out to provide a coherent picture of how they were developed on a practical basis and what they mean in relation to the research context.

Table 2: Delivery stages of the research process

Stage number	Description
Stage 1	<p>Review literature to find gaps in research</p> <p>Compile draft research questions based on research studies</p> <p>Explore different contexts that could be earmarked on for a research project</p>
Stage 2	<p>Review possible methodology and philosophical approaches</p> <p>Seek to align research questions to establish whether these techniques support aims and context of the research</p> <p>Adopt methodology techniques</p>
Stage 3	Conduct secondary analysis of policy documents

	<p>Revise the literature review section and conceptual framework based on secondary analysis</p> <p>Formulate areas of focus for the research context and pursue online sources</p>
Stage 4	<p>Apply for ethical approval for the research</p> <p>Contact organisations and NGOs in the selected focus location</p> <p>Scope out what access the researcher could get to this location and source options and openings for a gatekeeper</p>
Stage 5	<p>Write up a draft methodology chapter</p> <p>Produce interview questions and a timeline for gathering data in the research context</p> <p>Travel to research location and conduct primary data collection</p>
Stage 6	<p>Transcribe and if relevant translate empirical data</p> <p>Analyse using qualitative data analysis software</p> <p>Define key local and global organising themes for findings and discussions</p>
Stage 7	<p>Write up findings and discussions chapters</p> <p>Reshape the literature review</p>

	Rework the conceptual framework for the research
Stage 8	Write up the conclusions and recommendations chapter Distinguish theoretical and practical contributions Prepare further areas of research
Stage 9	Final write-up and review of all chapters Amend the research objectives Reflect on any outstanding research issues

At Stage 1 an extensive literature review was conducted to ascertain what research existed and what were the prevalent areas of discourse specifically concerning the mega sporting event field. Once a draft literature review has been compiled a set of research questions were developed to respond to particular gaps or under explored themes associated with academic research and industry data. During the development of the literature review different contexts and case studies were explored such as past Olympic Games and the Men's Football World Cups. Following this review and conversations with the researchers supervisory team a couple of contexts were highlighted which could be actioned for a research project.

Stage 2 involved reviewing possible methodology and philosophical approaches based on the literature and key landmark papers and texts. This included reviewing literature review papers and books' methods sections to refine which tools could be appropriately implemented to deliver outcomes against the aims of the research. A number of theoretical and methodology techniques included stakeholder and actor network theory were discussed

on their merits and drawbacks. Later these theories were ruled out as an option, but well established theories like the stakeholder theory lens were examined as part of conference presentations and other publications as part of the PhD process (e.g. Kirby and Crabb, 2019, see conclusion and recommendations section). Due to the context and location of the research the critical intricacies of themes were explored, including urban development and small business impacts, a decision was made that a range of tools could be incorporated to add rich and exploratory data themes to the research study. These qualitative techniques included semi-structured in-depth interviews, complemented by on the ground observations, walking techniques as well as the production of daily reflection vlogs and digital updates (see the use of visual, digital and walking methods section). These methodological techniques outlined above were implemented during the data collection phase.

Stage 3 entailed identifying and sourcing policy and bidding documents and other forms of reports (e.g. NGO reports) relating to the research context (see secondary analysis section). As the researcher is a non-native Portuguese speaker some of these documents were professionally translated. More information on language barriers is included in the ethical considerations section. Secondary data analysis of a range of documents helped to make sense of the physical setting that was analysed and to support the process of devising questions that could be posed towards the research participants (see research study participants section for more on the research participants of the study). Based on the secondary analysis both the literature review and the conceptual framework were reframed. The next steps were to firm-up which areas of Porto Maravilha site were the focus of the study. This entailed identifying prominent zones and forms of business using photographs from key reports, Google Map layouts of the territory and other internet sources (e.g. business websites). This was an essential task to establishing the significance of these areas and businesses in the scheme of the wider urban project.

Once this analysis had been completed, the researcher returned their attention to applying for ethical approval from the research and ethics committee (see ethical considerations section). Following ethical approval of the project, the researcher then started to contact a variety of organisations and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) based in the Porto Maravilha region to identify other relevant businesses who could fit in terms of their location and size of business, as part of the study e.g. micro and small business. One of the organisations that the researcher contacted was an NGO called Catalytic Communities (<http://catcomm.org>). Theresa Williamson (granted permission to be named), Executive Director, provided me with a list of people that the researcher could speak to. With the help of the researchers colleague Nicola Cade, Theresa put the researcher in touch with Charles Siqueira (granted permission to be named), an English-speaking community leader and Director of CriaAtivo Film School (<https://www.facebook.com/criaativofilmschool/>), who acted as the main gatekeeper to access some of the research participants (see ethical considerations section). To provide context here, Nicola was another Anglia Ruskin University student undertaking her research within the Morro dos Prazeres favela in Rio de Janeiro. Obtaining access using 'gatekeepers' to the research context was central to sourcing participants from hard to reach communities for this study (Ellard-Gray, Jeffrey, Choubak and Crann, 2015; Oliver, 2010).

Stage 5 consisted of writing up a draft methodology chapter to be presented to the researchers supervisory team, in addition to producing interview questions and a timeline for gathering data in the research context. These interview questions were inspected and revised to ensure that they would facilitate responses from participants which would meet the needs of the research aims (see sampling approaches section). A plan of action was then deployed for sourcing information concerning flights and transport arrangements for travel from the UK to Rio de Janeiro in order to conduct primary data collection. More details

on the risks of international travel and travelling to high risk environments and how risks were monitored and managed can be found in the ethical considerations section (see 3.13).

At Stage 6, after the data collection phase and return to the UK, recorded interviews were then transcribed and for those interviews conducted in Portuguese were professionally translated by a colleague who was at Rio de Janeiro State University at the time of completing the research. This data was then plugged back in qualitative data analysis software NVivo 12 (see qualitative data analysis section), and key basic and organising themes were defined and coded for the findings and discussions chapter.

In the findings and discussion chapter, empirical data findings were written up consolidating evidence and unpacking issues and exploratory themes from the qualitative data analysis. Based on the emergent principal themes from the data collection phase the literature review was reshaped to incorporate additional and recently published studies. Furthermore, the conceptual framework was remodelled to reflect the outcomes of this analysis. The concluding remarks and recommendations were composed during Stage 8 to distinguish the research study's theoretical and practical contributions and to prepare and promote further areas of research. In the final stage, all of the chapters were reviewed including re-forming the research objectives, interweaving any overlooked vital relevant theoretical and empirical data. The research's philosophical position was re-stated, and the researcher reflected on any outstanding research issues.

3.5 Research philosophy

Before the researcher provides details into the different methodological techniques devised and delivered for this research project there will be first be a much wider exploration into how the philosophy of the research and design can impart influence on the 'positionality' of their approach to research. Social scientists draw upon different assumptions and traditions when developing their methodologies for research (Bryman, 2016). Quantitative and qualitative researchers fall into quite often vastly opposing camps when one considers how to decide on their preferred methods for a piece of research. These broader disciplines are classed from a social scientist's perspective as objectivist (quantitative) and subjectivist (qualitative) research positions. Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe (1991) explain that this is linked to the basic beliefs of the researcher and where the researcher is positioned in the 'real world'. These worldviews are treated as a general orientation based on their subject disciplines, past experiences that they bring to a study and the research communities that play a part of (Creswell and Creswell, 2018). The nature of reality and the basic assumptions of the researcher represent their ontological tendencies (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, Jackson and Jaspersen, 2019). Whereas how they enquire about knowledge and how their claims are justified by the nature of the world is referred to as epistemology (Creswell and Poth, 2017). Johnson and Duberley (2000) emphasised that there is a presumption of knowledge of the conditions on show to determine that this knowledge takes place. A substantial relationship is spawned between not only ontologies and epistemologies but how the methods and techniques are applied to research. There are several strands of both ontological and epistemological positions, and these contrasting philosophical assumptions are grouped and described in Table 3 and Table 4. These are adapted from Braun and Clarke (2013) and works over time by Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, Jackson and Jaspersen (2019).

Table 3: Ontology positioning (adapted from Braun and Clarke, 2013, and Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, Jackson and Jaspersen, 2019)

Ontological position	Description
Realism	<p>The world is real and exists independently of the researcher's perception</p> <p>Based on observations of real phenomena</p> <p>Observable behaviour and hard facts</p>
Relativism	<p>Scientific laws are absolute</p> <p>Embedded in the context of the eye of the beholder</p>
Critical realism	<p>Knowledge is viewed as socially influenced</p> <p>Reflects a separate reality that we can only partially access</p>
Interpretivism	<p>Socially constructed</p> <p>Complex and rich</p> <p>There are multiple meanings, interpretations and realities</p>

Table 4: Epistemology positioning (adapted from Braun and Clarke, 2013, and Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, Jackson and Jaspersen, 2019)

Epistemological position	Description
Positivism	<p>Reality is external and objective</p> <p>Knowledge is significant if it is based on observations of this external reality</p> <p>Measured through objective measures</p>
Social constructionism	<p>Reality is not objective and external</p> <p>Socially constructed and is given meaning by people</p> <p>Gathering rich data from which ideas are developed</p>

Ontological assumptions form three main bases, realism, relativism and critical realism. Realism alludes to premise that there is only one 'truth' out there in the world (Braun and Clarke, 2013). This nature of the truth is based on real and direct situational observations and scientific evidence on the phenomena under investigation (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, Jackson and Jaspersen, 2019). Critical realists view knowledge as socially influenced and the nature of reality is external and reflected of objectives structures (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016). In contrast, relativism as opposed to one single reality is understood is be linked to multiple constructed realities and depends on human interpretation and knowledge (Braun and Clarke, 2013). This research shares commonalities with the interpretivist paradigm which emphasises that people are distinctive from the physical phenomena as

they create meanings from their perceptions (Bryman, 2016; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016).

Epistemological assertions can be funnelled through two contrasting positions. According to Braun and Clarke (2013) the positivist school of thought sees a very simple relationship between the world and our perception by humans. Under the epistemological banner, the assumption is that knowledge is only of significant if it is based on observations of an external reality (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, Jackson and Jaspersen, 2019). A more recent fertile ground for arguments in the academic fraternity concerns constructionism or 'social constructionism'. Crotty (1998) insisted that are constructionism and constructivism are divergent concepts, with constructivism framed using individuals meanings and conversely constructionism to more closely associated with the transmission of those meanings of wider groups. In this sense, social constructionism is all about processes of social interchange (Flick, 2018). When seeking understanding of the world individuals develop subjective, multiple meanings of their experiences (Creswell and Creswell, 2018). In the context of this research the closest school of thought represented is the social constructivism standpoint due to the gathering and layering of plentiful, rich insights through the exploration of complex and distinctive experiences of social phenomena and people often shaped by our perceptions (Collis and Hussey, 2014). This assumption recognises that the physical and social worlds (or context) of the participants harvests subjective meanings from individuals (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2015; Fox, Gouthro, Morakabati and Brackstone, 2014). This is important as the researcher needs to understand the social and economic backdrop that the participants are submerged into find connections between research themes and patterns in participants experiences. The local impacts and establishing the medium term business outcomes play a part in understanding the host city legacy context. This builds on the prior work by the researcher (e.g. Kirby, Duignan and McGillivray, 2018; Kirby and Crabb, 2019) and a growing body of research tasked with tackling mega sporting

impacts on business owners and firms and their implications for subsequent business legacies in the hosting territory (e.g. Carlini, Coghlan, Thomson and O'Neil, 2020; Duignan and Pappalepore, 2019; Kaplanidou, Al Emadi, Sagas, Diop and Fritz, 2016; Merendino, Bek and Timms, 2021; Pappalepore and Duignan, 2016).

3.6 Research study participants

Research participants were selected and invited to take part in the study through a snowball sampling technique (see sampling approaches section). During the data collection phase face-to-face semi-structured interviews were delivered with a range of micro and business businesses. In Table 5, the researcher has supplied an overall breakdown of these organisations and listed which participants took part in the study. This breakdown includes the interviewee number, role of the participant within the organisation, sector and type of the organisation and headquarters location of these organisation.

Table 5: Participant sample overview

Interviewee number # [and category]	Position, organisation type (and location)
#1 [Business]	Manager, independent food vendor (Porto Maravilha)
#2 [Business]	Owner, bar and restaurant (Morro da Providência)
#3 [Business]	Director, guide and tour operator (Morro da Providência)
#4 [Business]	Owner and sole trader, artist (Porto Maravilha)
#5 [Business]	Owner, cultural centre (Santo Cristo)
#6 [Business]	Chief executive officer, medium-sized cultural organisation (Porto Maravilha)
#7 [Policy]	Manager, international cultural relations organisation (Botafogo)

#8 [Business]	Cultural manager, medium-sized cultural organisation (Flamengo)
#9 [Business]	Head of communications, medium-sized cultural organisation (Porto Maravilha)
#10 [Business]	Owner, walking tour operator (Porto Maravilha)
#11 [Business]	Partner, adventure tourism operator and board member of adventure tourism association (Gávea)
#12 [Business]	Executive director, tour agency operator (Lapa, Centro do Rio)
#13 [Academic]	Manager, educational institution (Botafogo)
#14 [Academic]	Project manager, educational institution (Botafogo)
#15 [Academic]	Coordinator, educational institution (Botafogo)
#16 [Business]	Manager, creative film school (Morro dos Prazeres)
#17 [Academic]	Manager, large educational institution (Maracanã)
#18 [Business]	Manager, engineering consultancy (São Cristóvão)
#19 [Business]	Director, event planning agency (Santo Cristo)
#20 [Business]	Executive director, tour operator and tourism agency (Tijuca)

#21 [Academic]	Professor, Large educational institution (Cidade Universitária)
#22 [Government policy]	SMEs program manager and national coordinator (Centro do Rio)
#23 [Business]	Managing Partner, production and events agency (Santo Cristo)
24 [Academic]	Manager, educational institution (Botafogo)

3.7 Semi-structured interviewing technique

In the last section of the methodology chapter the researcher stated that face-to-face semi structured interviews were adopted as one of the approaches to data collection. Completing primary data collection using this method brings to the table a range of benefits and challenges. The flexibility of this techniques will be discussed alongside how the interviews were approached in this international context will be delineated further on down the line for the data analysis. Firstly, the use of interviews over other methods gives the researcher the opportunity to probe more deeply compared to the likes of questionnaires, verbal and non-verbal communication, and follow-up with further questions and comments that the participants respond to and offer their own perspective (Wilson, 2014). That being said, there are three main types of interviews, each can complement the researcher depending on the study context and the circumstances of the participants: structured, unstructured or semi-structured interviews. Comparing these types across the board, structured interviews have predetermined questions and unstructured interviews are very much participant-led with a list of topics that the researcher wants to discuss (Braun and Clarke, 2013). In this research project, the researcher selected to use semi-structured interviews, and prepared a list of questions but with scope to explore the free-flowing nature of the conversation with the participants. In particular, semi-structured interviews often allow for flexibility in questioning with participants (Fox, Gouthro, Morakabati and Brackstone, 2014). These interviews were on a one-to-one basis enabling information and ideas to be shared from only source and giving the researcher greater control over the flow of the interview (Denscombe, 2017). Due to the research being implemented outside of the researchers country that they were living in at the time, online video interviews were considered and offered potential benefits such as convenience, cost saving and lower risk levels (Bryman, 2016). However, this option was not realistic partly down to the possibility of not reaching saturation due to the small number of interviews and without being embedded in the local area 'on the ground'. Also, there were a

number of other benefits that visiting the study location would support, specifically, forms of visual and walking analysis. The researcher adopted the six stage process for planning, delivering and following-up on interviews, designed by Wilson (2014). See Table 6 for an outline of what the researcher assigned at each phase of the interview process.

Table 6: Stages of the interview process (adapted from Wilson, 2014)

Stage number	Description of activities
Stage 1: Pre-interview (planning)	<p>If provided with contact details (e.g. email) contact the participant to discuss the research project</p> <p>Plan and arrange suitable time, day and location with the participant</p> <p>Prepare and revise interview questions</p>
Stage 2: Day of the interview	<p>Consider and review travel time to interview location from the hotel and whether travel will be using public transport or by foot. This may require using a map</p> <p>Plan ahead for the weather conditions and bring water and bring other resources along e.g. recorder and notepad and pen</p> <p>Arrive at the interview location (e.g. office/place of work) 10 minutes before the interview commences</p>
Stage 3: Arrival	<p>Consider fire exits and emergency procedures</p> <p>Inform the reception on arrival (if relevant)</p>

	Setup in room of interview location (if relevant)
Stage 4: Start of the interview	<p>Explain and reiterate the overview of the project</p> <p>Ask them to sign the participant consent form once they have read the participant information pack and if they have agreed to participate in the study, commence the interview</p> <p>Allow to ask any further questions on the study</p>
Stage 5: During the interview	<p>Act in a calm and friendly manner, using active listening</p> <p>Tick off questions that have been asked and follow-up with any additional areas of discussion</p> <p>Be patient and give them time to answer. This is particularly necessary as for some participants English may be their second language</p>
Stage 6: End of the interview	<p>Thank them for the interview</p> <p>Provide contact details on a business card which includes details such as the researchers international phone number as well as their university email address</p> <p>Offer to send them a full audio recording of the interview for clarification</p>

Overall, there were 24 interviews conducted (see the interview participants table, Table 5). 15 of those were conducted with micro and small businesses across the service sector including food and beverage establishments, cultural businesses (e.g. museums), events organisations and tour operators. 4 others were delivered with educational establishments, one with a policymaker and another with the researchers gatekeeper. Interview times varied across the participants, the shortest lasted 24 minutes and the longest was 2 hours and 5 minutes - this was with a walking tour operator.

To help support effective running of the interviews and to enable the participants to follow-up with any further queries the researcher produced a participant information pack (see Figure 8). This document accompanied the participant consent form (see Figure 9) and contained a more comprehensive details all of the information from the study, such as the value and benefits of participating in the study, sources of funding, use of data and risks of taking part in the study. This was disseminated with the participants in advance of the interviews (if relevant, via email) and presented again before the interviews commenced.

Figure 8: Participant information pack

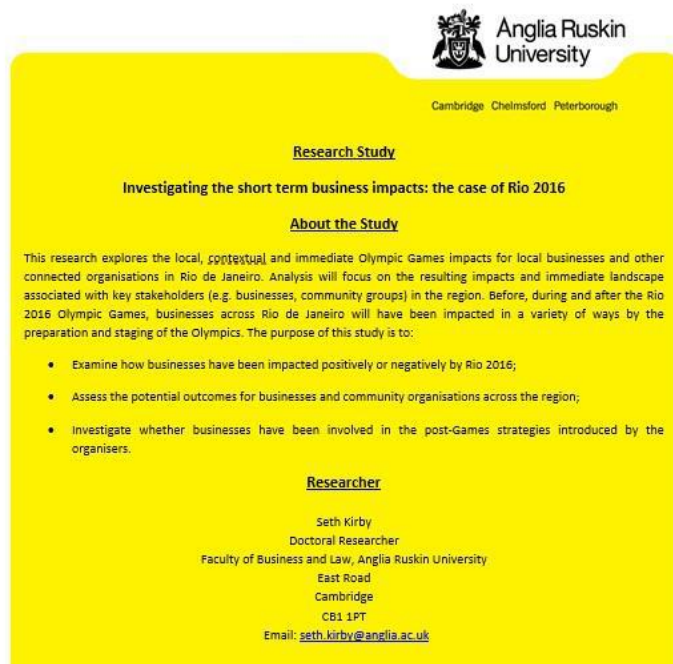


Figure 9: Participant consent form



PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

NAME OF PARTICIPANT:

Title of the project: Investigating the short term business impacts: the case of Rio 2016

Main investigator and contact details: Seth Kirby, Doctoral Researcher, Faculty of Business and Law at Anglia Ruskin University. Email: seth.kirby@anglia.ac.uk.

Members of the research team: Seth Kirby.

1. I agree to take part in the above research. I have read the Participant Information Sheet (15.8.17, V2) for the study. I understand what my role will be in this research, and all my questions have been answered to my satisfaction.
2. I understand that I am free to withdraw from the research at any time, for any reason and without prejudice.
3. I have been informed that the confidentiality of the information I provide will be safeguarded.
4. I am free to ask any questions at any time before and during the study.
5. I have been provided with a copy of this form and the Participant Information Sheet.

3.8 Sampling approach

A range of sampling techniques can be adopted to systematically collect data for qualitative research. To refine and ultimately select research samples there are two distinct forms of sampling, probability and non-probability sampling (Denscombe, 2017). Non-probability sampling is popular amongst case study research projects and qualitative research (Wilson, 2014). This form of sampling is known to be non-random which incorporates an element of subjectivity in attracting and sourcing participants (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016). Relatively small sample sizes are prominent within this form and as already hinted at, a case study for example, will focus on examining real life phenomenon in a more thorough manner (Wilson, 2014). In this scenario a single case study was the one of the main approaches and focus for this thesis (a later section will discuss the ins-and-outs of case studies). Non-probability sampling is beneficial when it comes to producing exploratory samples rather than targeting a representative population sample frame, coupled with saving time and costs in generating the sample (Denscombe, 2017).

For the purpose of this research, snowball sampling, a type of non-probability sampling, was enlisted, to help facilitate the selection of participants in the location of the study. A snowball sampling technique involves initially using a small group of people relevant to the research questions, and these sampled participants propose other participants who have had experiences or characteristics relevant to the research (Bryman, 2016). In this instance, participants emerged through a process of reference which led onto the researcher identifying other potential participants (Denscombe, 2017). This is a particularly useful technique here as through initial secondary online research and contact with other businesses were recommended who may be part of similar networks. For example, you can use these wider business networks to contact other people in similar positions (Wilson, 2014). As a strategy it helps to identify cases of interest from people that are information-rich

(Creswell and Poth, 2017). There is clearly a recognition that this technique can bring offer various advantages and limitations in relation to gathering research participants. For example, it can be beneficial in building reasonable sample sizes in small scale research projects, and the sample grows organically through individuals finding others who are relevant or crucial to your research (Denscombe, 2017; Wilson, 2014). On the flip side, sample bias is an area of concern and avoiding bias can be problematic due to the sampling frame of people included and the type of people participating (Denscombe, 2017). A variety of studies have actioned a snowball sampling technique for their research. For example, in the mega sporting event sphere snowball sampling has been conducted as a tactic to recruit participants (e.g. Benson, Dickson, Terwiel and Blackman, 2014; Bloyce and Lovett, 2012; Clark, Kearns and Cleland, 2016; Kietlinski, 2011; Kruger and Heath, 2013; Lovett and Bloyce, 2017; Ma, Egan, Rotherham and Ma, 2011; O'Brien, 2006; Santos, Vareiro, Remoaldo and Ribeiro, 2017).

Noy (2008) posits that snowball sampling is frequently employed when probability sampling is impossible or not feasible. For example, when trying to sample populations that are hard to reach. Due to the difficulty in accessing participants before visiting the study location micro and small business organisations were recruited initially through websites and email, and other organisations were recommended to join based on the proximity of the location around the research site. Once selections were identified using online searches, permission was sought from these relevant organisations (in terms of organisation size and location) and they were invited to take part in the research. Following visiting the study location a number of other participants were identified and contacted. This includes two further participants who were recommended to take part in the study based on conversations with the researchers gatekeeper.

In Table 7 the researcher has indicated how they approached the participants who took part in the study, as well as stating the ways in which they could potentially be impacted by the

Olympic Games urban project. Those organisations have been classified as to whether they are considered to be a stakeholder in this context, and whether they were meant to be included or impacted by the developments. In addition, initial points of contact with these organisations predominantly stem from online research completed pre-January 2018. Some of these organisations were contacted via their website and email addresses gathered in the run-up to visiting Porto Maravilha. Additionally, a couple of stakeholders were recommended either through contacts gained from the process of online research or as a result of gatekeeper conversations.

Table 7: Participant contact points of entry

Interviewee number # [and category]	Contact form	Stakeholder included/impacted by the developments
#1 [Business]	Visit and collected email	Yes - based in Porto Maravilha
#2 [Business]	Recommended through snowball sampling technique - gatekeeper	Yes - based in Porto Maravilha
#3 [Business]	Recommended through snowball sampling technique - gatekeeper	Yes - based in Porto Maravilha
#4 [Business]	Visit and collected email	Yes - based in Porto Maravilha
#5 [Business]	Website and email contact	Yes - based in Porto Maravilha
#6 [Business]	Website and email contact	Yes - based in Porto Maravilha

#7 [Policy]	Website and email contact	Yes - public cultural and business relations organisation, links to funding
#8 [Business]	Website and email contact	Yes - based in Porto Maravilha
#9 [Business]	Website and email contact	Yes - based in Porto Maravilha
#10 [Business]	Visit and collected email	Yes - based in Porto Maravilha
#11 [Business]	Website and email contact	Potentially - operate in the Porto Maravilha area
#12 [Business]	Website and email contact	Potentially - operate in the Porto Maravilha area
#13 [Academic]	Website and email contact	No - public/private institution
#14 [Academic]	Website and email contact	No - public/private institution
#15 [Academic]	Recommended through snowball sampling technique	No - public/private institution
#16 [Business]	Recommended through snowball sampling technique	No - not based in the area
#17 [Academic]	Recommended through snowball sampling technique	No - public/private institution
#18 [Business]	Visit and collected email	Yes - based in Porto Maravilha

#19 [Business]	Based in Business #5, visit and then email follow-up	Yes - based in Porto Maravilha
#20 [Business]	Recommended through snowball sampling technique	Potentially - operate in the Porto Maravilha area
#21 [Academic]	Recommended through snowball sampling technique	No - public/private institution
#22 [Government policy]	Visit and collected email	No - public policy
#23 [Business]	Visit and collected email	Yes - based in Porto Maravilha
24 [Academic]	Recommended through snowball sampling technique	No - public/private institution

3.9 Case study analysis

As a pre-cursor to outlining the methodological approaches undertaken for this research, the researcher introduced the case study and context of this thesis in section 3.2. Next, the discussion will distil how and why a case studies were selected for this project. Primary notions behind practicing such a method and the lens through which this project captured evidence using a specific context. The context of the case study was focused on an urban development programme and envisaged to explore the perspectives of different actors (Yin, 2018). In this sense, data collection was directed towards studying the complexities of micro and small enterprises located or operating in the Porto Maravilha region following the Games. This provided a holistic view of the relationships and processes of urban development using case studies as a technique (Denscombe, 2017). Yin (2018) expressed that case study research enlists a number of formal design types. These types of design aid the researcher in analysing the contextual conditions of the case under observation. The four types are single-case holistic designs, single-case embedded designs, multiple-case holistic designs and multiple-case embedded designs (Yin, 2018). Each of these designs reflect the unit of analysis under investigation and the situation in which the case is enacted. For the purpose of this study the researcher adopted the single case holistic design to pursue and delve deeper into the intricacies of the fixed location, describe elements of urban and spatial changes and provide an account as to how small businesses have been affected by changes to their situation (Denscombe, 2017). This single case study design is in align with other event researchers who have devised similar techniques to explore the one context only setting (e.g. Nakamura and Suzuki, 2017). Before the case study analysis commenced the researcher reviewed a range of urban planning documentation as well as local authority and hosting documents, as well as specific articles in relation to Porto Maravilha hosting a live fan zone during the Games. Gerring (2016) exclaims that it vital that the researcher clarifies what they know about the location *ex ante* before diving straight into deliver the case study.

In this instance, the researcher sought to shed light on urban development outcomes in the medium-term to harvest new insights not only linked to the real world but also contributing to theoretical concepts. In this instance, contributing towards the complexities of infrastructure space zoning of Porto Maravilha (Easterling, 2014). In his five rationales for distinguishing and justifying single case study designs, Yin (2018) states that you need to go beyond the case under investigation and consider your criteria for how you are going to interpret your findings. The researcher felt that this particular case represented a 'revelatory phenomenon' (Yin, 2018), due to the extent of the developments brought about by a once-in-a-lifetime project. Therefore constituting reasonable grounds to consider how this could be explored in the context of a post-event hosting community. During the research design and initial pre-data collection phase the researcher had to be wary as to how the choices around the case study may influence the type of information generated and which supported the overall aims and propositions of the study. This is where it is relevant to provide clear study goals and outline how the propositions and process of data collection be made based on context-specific features (Gerring, 2016). To this end, the researcher defined and extrapolated the key locations (see Figure 6) and imagined how these specific locations add value but also elucidate the relationships between the location and key participants throughout the enquiry (Yin, 2018). This research was focused on a narrow range of cases based on the location and participants involved in research (Gerring, 2016). This is where the screening process comes to the fore and a systematic set of operational criteria can help to establish whether candidates are deemed relevant to the research prior to formal data collection (Yin, 2018). Denscombe (2017) expressed that to qualify as a suitable case study you need to have fairly distinct boundaries for these criteria. To be successful in case study research there are a number of common characteristics required. Yin (2018) asserts that for a researcher to be effective there are a variety of desired common skills required to deliver effective case studies. These include being a good listener, not getting bogged down by existing preconceptions, grasping the issues under observation as well as ensuring that you conduct

research ethically. To deal and conduct case study analysis effectively it is better to focus on the process rather than outcomes (Denscombe, 2017). Exploring the case study location alongside compatible techniques such as interviews provided explanations of key insights and perspective of participants (Yin, 2018). Case study analysis can be used to support other techniques to improve data quality as well as providing the opportunity to triangulate findings using a plethora of evidence sources (Denzin, 2012; Miles, Huberman and Saldaña, 2019; Yin, 2018). Case studies were incorporated in a range of methods here such as walking techniques, interviews and secondary data collection, which will be discussed next.

3.10 Secondary data collection

To support some of the theoretical and empirical assertions of the thesis, secondary data was collected from a number of sources to formulate a more comprehensive perspective of evidence and underpinning arguments conveyed throughout this thesis. Secondary information analysis took place in advance of going into the field and focused at first primarily on planning documentation and post-Games reports from the likes of policymakers (e.g. Rio city government), global governing bodies (the IOC in this instance) and the local organising committee (e.g. Rio 2016). This opened up new lines of reasoning to inform the researchers' ruminations and lead to the confirmation of other characteristics and themes relevant to the case study. Aligning secondary data can be used to increase the credibility of your primary research findings (Wilson, 2014). Yin (2018) highlights that using multiple secondary sources of evidence helps to build a picture of the case in question such as, documentation, archival records, direct observations, photographs and physical artifacts. However, the researcher must not rely too heavily on secondary data and documents that have been produced as a source of data not specifically related to the investigation (Denscombe, 2017). These secondary sources must fit the type of cases under investigation (Yin, 2018). In Table 8 you can see an illustration as to the type of the source, the quantities of these sources and a brief explanation as to why those sources are relevant to be analysed as part of the thesis. A total of 52 secondary sources were reviewed including host city bidding documents and reports, local authority strategic plans and development assessments, property and commercial real estate reports and external NGO reports. Where appropriate a number of the sources were professionally translated by a professional external agency due to the number of sources that required translation. For the retrospective policy analysis, the researcher observed the five key factors and process for evaluating information sources developed by Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler (2008), see Table 9 below. Analysis of key themes were added and coded within the qualitative data analysis

system (i.e. NVivo 12) used throughout the course of completing this research project. More details can be found in the qualitative data analysis section. As the researcher started their PhD research in late 2016 retrospective analysis of key policy information and reports helped to interpret what were the main legacy ambitions of Porto Maravilha and how local state actors played a role in influencing the trajectory of specific project areas.

Table 8: Secondary sources used

Source number	Source type	Source quantity	Justification for using the source
1	Host city bidding documentation and Games reports	12	<p>Outlined the plans for the Rio 2016 Olympic Games</p> <p>Highlighted key areas of focus and developmental projects linked to the Olympic Games, such as new facilities and infrastructure</p> <p>Detailed the actions of state actors and who had the responsibility for legacy ambitions for the event</p>
2	Local authority documents (related to Porto Maravilha)	6	Provided an overview of specific areas including

	Translated local authority documents (related to Porto Maravilha)	8	locations and key sites that the plans were looking to target, and which communities were going to be affected by these urban interventions
3	Commercial and real estate reports (related to Porto Maravilha)	14	Quarterly updates and yearly reports were produced by external consultancies firms to track how retail commercial property prices had changed due to the Porto Maravilha urban development
4	External NGO and other reports	12	Used to investigate the views and perspectives of charitable and support organisations which represent different groups of local communities, and explore how these developments had shaped issues significant to these groups, such as healthcare, sanitation and housing

Table 9: Five factors for evaluating information sources (adapted from Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler, 2008)

Evaluating factor	Questions
Purpose	What is the purpose of this source? How does its purpose affect the type and bias of the information presented?
Scope	How old is the source? How often is the source updated? What are the criteria for inclusion?
Authority	What are the credentials of the author, institution or organisation sponsoring the information?
Audience	Who is the source's intended target audience? How does the intended audience affect the type and bias of the information?
Format	How quickly can you find the required information? How easy is it to use the information source?

3.11 Qualitative data analysis and coding mechanisms

Qualitative computer-aided data analysis was used in this thesis to upload, code and track themes from a range of methodological techniques. Codes are words or short phrase that assigns or captures an attribute of a data unit or source employed in the research collection phase (Saldaña, 2016). Units of data are labelled with codes such as interview transcripts to summarise their meaning (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016). To support coding, NVivo version 12 was selected to aid the approach to drawing out and application of not only interview data but also literature review and secondary data sources (see Figures 10 and 11). The NVivo software package has been adopted for the basis of delineating and deciphering complex datasets from a number of mega sporting event oriented studies (e.g. Beesley and Chalip, 2011; Duignan and Pappalepore, 2019; Fairley, Gardiner and Filo, 2016; Frawley, 2015; Kaplanidou, Emadi, Sagas, Diop and Fritz, 2016; Stewart and Rayner, 2016; Whelan and Molnar, 2017). In advance of NVivo being used following the data collection phase the database was systematically chosen to house the literature and secondary data sources (see Figure 11). NVivo is a useful programme for pulling together, familiarising the researcher with academic sources published on themes for the study, and in analysing themes from the literature (Jackson and Bazeley, 2019). PDFs of the literature review items were imported into NVivo as and when they were collected, and notes were left of key themes that could then be referred back to in the future. Jackson and Bazeley (2019) emphasise that published literature imported into NVivo can play multiple roles including building a framework for your research and framing debates in relation to the research. Literature themes tracked via NVivo offered the opportunity for the researcher to build the conceptual framework for this thesis (see Figure 1). Cases are particular units of analysis for the qualitative data (Jackson and Bazeley, 2019). In this instance, the overarching case chosen was the research location of Porto Maravilha to align with case study analysis. NVivo offers a number of features to be able to support the classification and coding of specific

sources. The classification of cases and hierarchy of data is referred to as nodes (Bryman, 2016). Before interview audio files were recorded back into NVivo 12, a set of priori codes from interview transcripts were assembled around global themes to support the narrative (Pappalepore, 2016). Interview audio files were imported into NVivo's workspace and data was coded line-by-line and strands of the interview text were allocated a node using the data analysis software (see Figure 10 for the final display of nodes from the data analysis). Over time interviews were added to new nodes as well as existing nodes from the data (Jackson and Bazeley, 2019). Coding procedures using software packages like NVivo provide the researcher with the basis to identify patterns and themes of data units, some of which may overlap in unintentional ways (Miles, Huberman and Saldaña, 2019). This basic coding strategy can be employed electronically to incorporate key elements like nodes and cases (Saldaña, 2016). To generate meaning during the data analysis the researcher noted patterns and themes to build a logical chain of evidence and support conceptual arguments (Miles, Huberman and Saldaña, 2019). Thematic analysis can help to focus on the temporal and spatial dimensions and conditions of the host city as a result of the mega sporting event (Pappalepore, 2016). A combination of thematic analysis with a systematic appraisal of a network approach was implemented. In this case, Attride-Stirling's (2001) Thematic Network Analysis (TNA) approach was implemented to cluster groups and derive themes from the textual data (see Figure 12). Critical event studies academics such as Sant, Mason and Hinch (2013), Duignan and McGillivray (2019) and McGillivray, Duignan and Mielke (2020) and Walters (2016) have adopted thematic analysis and the role of networks to emphasise how they interpreted Olympic themes. Initially, following the process of coding interview themes a series of basic host level and organiser global themes replicating the work of Sant, Mason and Hinch (2013) were identified to support further theoretical and practical development of the research findings (see Table 10). Subsequently, thematic analysis was then tasked with unearthing salient issues at different levels from the lowest order structures, through to higher state structures as a whole (Attride-Stirling, 2001). Using a mixture of files

and nodes enabled the researcher to be flexible and delve much more deeply and understand explanations and arguments emanating from the literature and interview data (Jackson and Bazeley, 2019). Saldaña (2016) argues that coding is a cyclical process requiring the researcher to seek out patterns, occurrences and extent of these relationships. This continual assessment needs to be rethought in relation to whether the data analysis is meeting the aims of the study (Jackson and Bazeley, 2019). Interpreting perceptions and narratives of interview participants through the coding process aids the contribution to the 'meaning-making' of the study's findings (Saldaña, 2016). These codes and themes generated may vary based on the contextual factors and emergent themes stemming from the study (Saldaña, 2016). Ultimately, the coding process using the NVivo software was used to examine relationships and establish patterns between nodes against other criteria (Jackson and Bazeley, 2019).

Figure 10: NVivo nodes

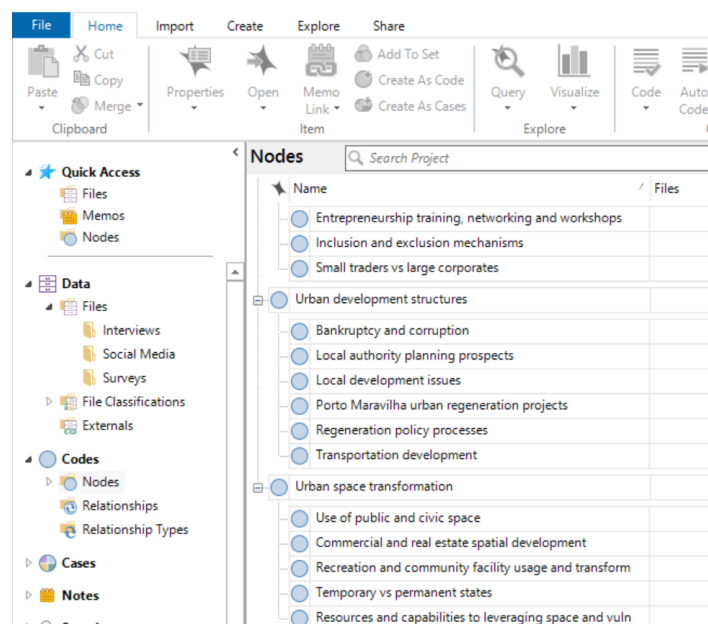


Figure 11: NVivo literature files

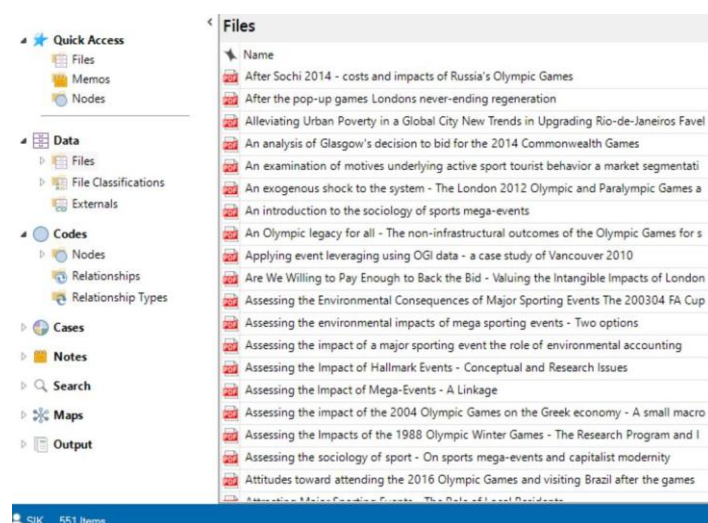
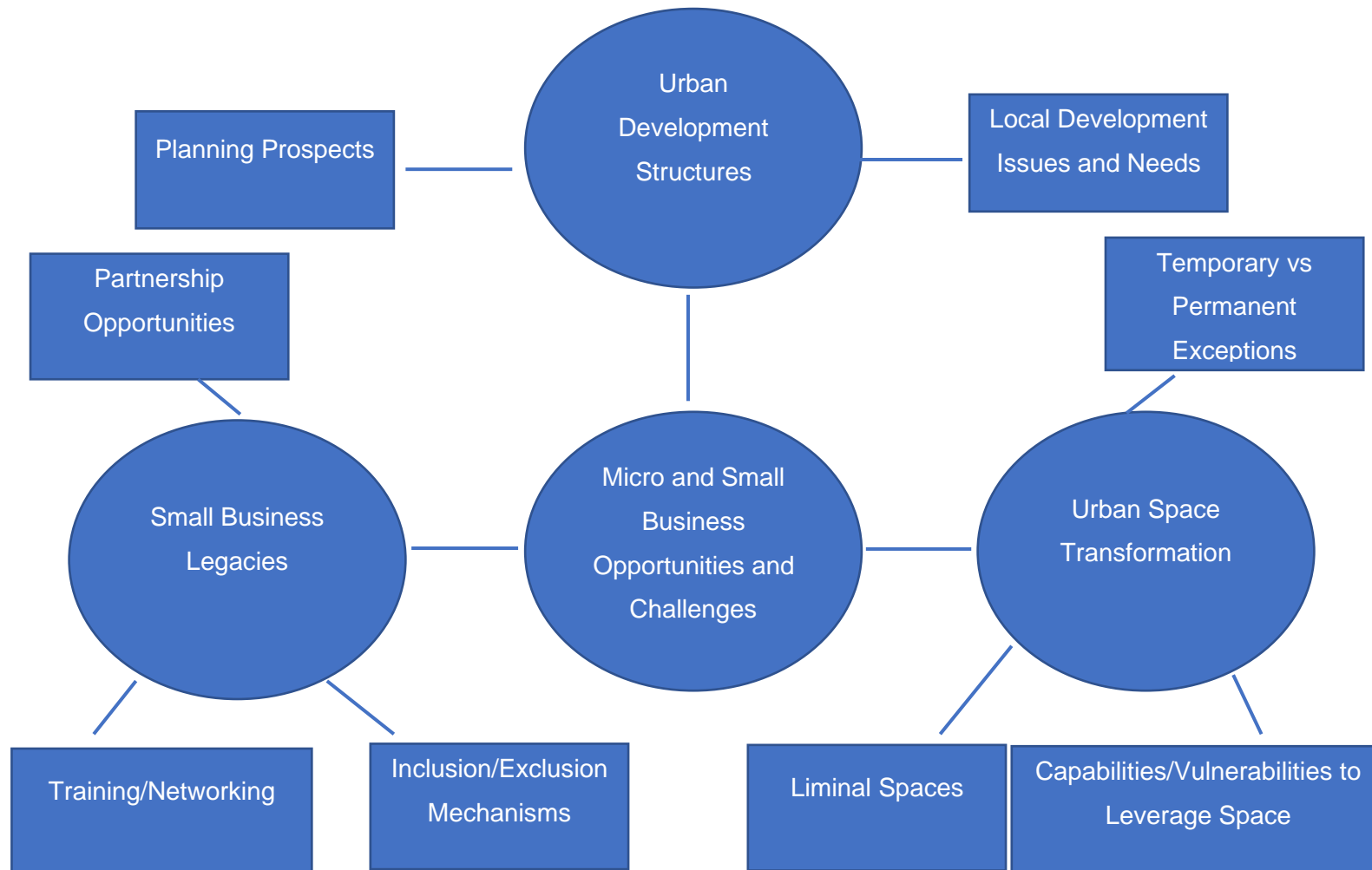


Table 10: NVivo breakdown of key organising and basic themes
(adapted from Sant, Mason and Hinch, 2013)

Organiser global themes	Basic host level themes
Urban Development Structures	<p>Local authority planning prospects</p> <p>Regeneration policy processes</p> <p>Porto Maravilha urban regeneration projects</p> <p>Transportation development</p> <p>Local development issues</p> <p>Bankruptcy and corruption of development schemes</p>
Small Business Legacies	<p>Displacement and gentrification</p> <p>Small traders vs large corporates dichotomy</p> <p>Business partnership opportunities</p> <p>Entrepreneurship training, networking and workshops</p> <p>Business inclusion/exclusion mechanisms</p> <p>Urban competitiveness and trade development</p>
Urban Space Transformation	<p>Use of public/civic space</p> <p>Commercial and real estate spatial development</p>

	<p>Recreation and community facility usage and transformation</p> <p>Commercialised temporary vs permanent states</p> <p>Resources, capabilities and vulnerabilities to leverage space</p>
--	--

Figure 12: Small business network structures (adapted from Attride-Stirling, 2001)



3.12 The use of visual, digital and walking methods

The research context was studied through the application of visual methods as the researcher engaged the senses through ethnographic practices in an attempt to comprehend perceptions and experiences of urban space (Pink, 2013a, Pink, 2013b). 1700 photographs were captured during the course of data collection in the field during January 2018. The use of visual methods supported written and thematic arguments particularly around the changing dynamics of urban space in relation to the developments (Banks, 2008). A growing number of qualitative studies involve the analysis of secondary visual data to support evidence of the research setting (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, Jackson and Jaspersen, 2019; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016). As such, visual media forms such as video and photographs are treated as complementary methods and the production of visual representation depicts the researchers' analysis (Marshall and Rossman, 2015). Image-based data can be valuable as a source of factual information (Denscombe, 2017). In this context photos supplemented wider descriptions and explanations from participants with regards to the impact of new buildings such as cultural attractions and to what end people are able to move around these spaces. Pink (2021) illuminates that visual methods provide an understanding other people's experiences and imaginations, relationships with people and the world in which we inhabit - all important in this location. It was intention of visual data sets collected to ignite authentic interpretations of the place (Scarles, 2010; Schembri and Boyle, 2013). Maximising visual data provided the researcher to reveal the situation of the human experience and the ways in which these meanings are created and interpreted (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, Jackson and Jaspersen, 2019). In the analysis of visual data the researcher not only explored the contents of those photos but indicated the circumstances to which the context could be interpreted (Denscombe, 2017). Therefore, this approach generated new knowledge and themes from the visual data which then were extrapolated out to other data forms (Pink, 2013a).

During the course of the data collection phase, the researcher produced a total of 10 vlogs. A series of reflection vlogs were recorded on YouTube during the process of completing fieldwork in order to recap day-to-day perceptions and experiences within the research setting. Real-time vlogs were posted to the #RioZones WordPress blog (<https://riozones.wordpress.com/>, see RioZones, 2018) to extend the narrative and insights from the research location. The #RioZones blog is a project platform and portal that provides real-time research and repository into specific areas relating to the impact of mega sporting events (RioZones, 2018). One of the lead researchers on the #RioZones project was the researchers supervisor, Dr Michael Duignan. Digital storytelling using vlogs can help researchers reflect on their experiences and observations in their setting (Lanza, 2020). Micro-blogging platform and web-based tools such as WordPress allow self-published data to form part of the research process (Flick, 2018). Digital video recordings represent the researcher' experience and issues relating to mega sporting event infrastructure outcomes, in addition to observations and experiences interacting with key spaces (Pink, 2013a). These summaries were intended to ponder whilst also stimulate conversations on the wider meanings of places visited, and contrast these to accounts from interviewees. As well as supplying the researcher with the opportunity to reflect on their own thought processes which aided an appreciation of this context and enabled the start of specific components of Porto Maravilha urban interventions to be deconstructed. Across this period these first person short commentaries averaged just over 4 minutes long for each video (see Figure 13).

Figure 13: #RioZones vlogs



Throughout the researchers' field visit collections of social media updates were posted and captured to the Twitter platform to supplement regular vlogs. These video updates were subsequently posted to the #RioZones Twitter hashtag to widen the visibility of the project and optimise engagement between key themes and disseminate strands of discussions pertaining to the experiences of the researcher. The use of social media elevates the possibilities of establishing an online presence during fieldwork (Côté, 2013). Social media reflection updates and on the ground insights and perspectives were pertinent in explaining the nature of the researchers' experience in between interviews and set walking routes. For

digital researchers, social media invites us to interrogate concepts and be reflexive in our understanding of our perceptions (Postill and Pink, 2012), Data generated using social media can be beneficial such as through Twitter to interpret materials and in complementing other methods to complete the picture of the analysis (Flick, 2017). The insights posted to the Twitter platform were seen to have resonated with other researchers and other relevant organisations such as Terreform, a nonprofit centre for advanced urban research, achieved high numbers of impressions and engagement on Twitter. Impressions are the number of times a tweet has been seen and engagements are the total number of times a user has interacted with a tweet (Twitter, 2020). These statistics has been shown in the digital media engagement table (see Table 11).

Table 11: Digital media engagement stats

Twitter posts (including tweets and replies)	Twitter impressions	Twitter engagement	Twitter media views	Twitter followers	Blog views (WordPress)
45	34,210	889	115	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 24 (during on the ground data collection) • 1,446 (total follower count increase during the course of the PhD) 	185

Field observations were solidified and assisted by structured, mapped walking routes within the proximity of the research location. Walking has traditional been used in ethnography research to understand the multi-sensual aspects of the social world (Bates and Rhys-

Taylor, 2017). The researcher adopted a set number of walking routes for day-to-day activities in the study location to understand the complexities of the built-up developments of the urban location (Ingold and Vergunst, 2016). Additionally, this provided the researcher to explore spaces of disclosure using walking research techniques (Macpherson, 2016). This immersion in embodied walking enabled the researcher to experience and mimic the flows of resident and visitors in the host city around specific infrastructure and transport networks (Duignan and McGillivray, 2021). The perspective of slowness is significant to this research as it enabled the researcher to explore more avenues and streets via walking (Springgay and Truman, 2018). A selection of the researchers GPS tracked routes using the Google maps timeline function are included in Figure 14. In addition, the researcher tracked their walking tracker stats using a smartwatch for their entire time in the research location. Distances and step counts can be found in Table 12.

Figure 14: GPS mapped routes

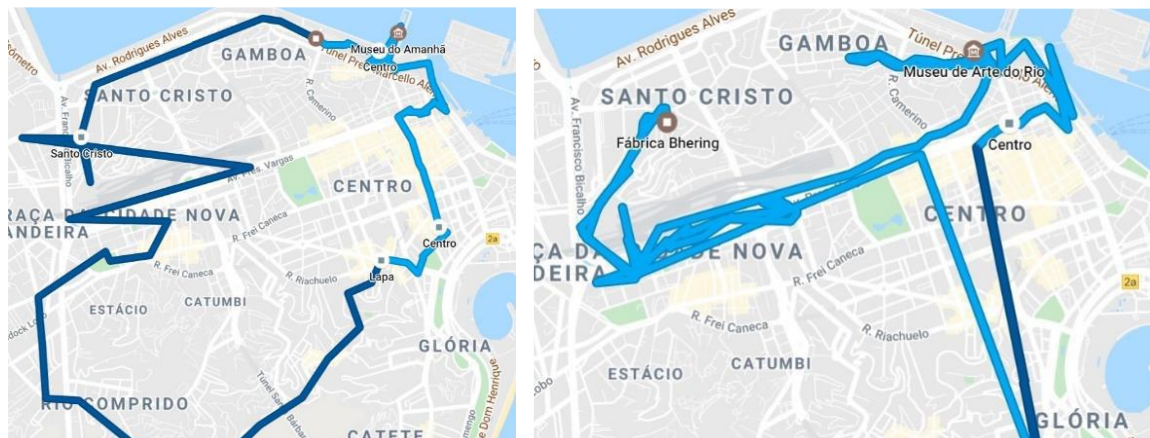


Table 12: Walking smartwatch tracker stats

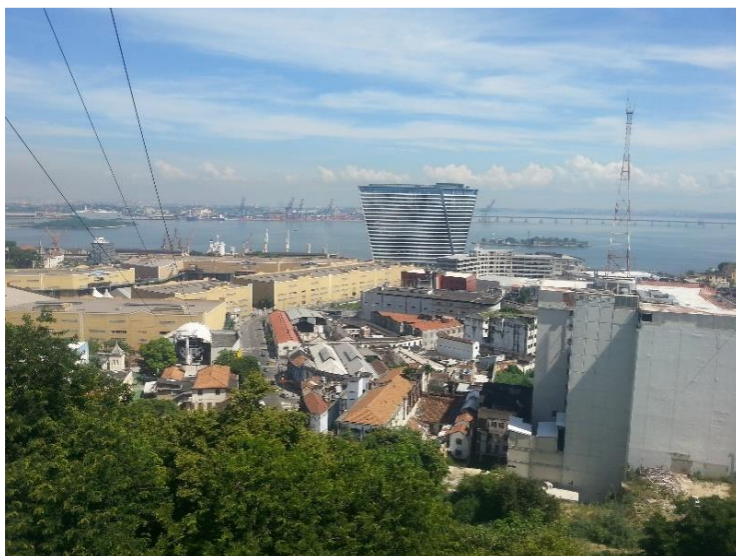
Hours and minutes	Distance (miles)	Step count
28 hours, 29 minutes	88.9	167,992

3.13 Ethical considerations

There are major ethical considerations linked to researching local, host community organisations such as micro and small businesses. This is especially important concerning how to deal and mitigate those risks, as ethical issues need to be complied with and navigated during the research process. As part of the research process, it is an important to reflect on the risks particularly in dangerous environments (Sampson, 2019). Davies, Cook and Oven (2012) accentuate that risk in field research is a constant pressure, whether that be exposure to physical forces, the perceptions of people living with risk or the wider concerns of people affected by social and economic challenges. Risks can be considered to be fluid and researchers need to be well equipped to assess risk and know how to deal with those risks (Sampson, 2019). In this context, understanding the risk especially in conducting research in developing countries and the politics of completing research in settings such as favelas which could feasibly give rise to additional layers of risk (Perlman, 2010; Shefner and Gay, 2002). This was confounded by the challenging urban environment and in this case the role of police presence, Police Pacification Unit (UPP), particularly in gaining access to locations like favelas. This research was undertaken in a potentially high risk area and dangerous environment. Due to the setting and some of the methods employed by the researcher (e.g. walking methods), this exposed the researcher to issues with regards to navigating problematic locations. In order to mitigate these circumstances the researcher used the help of a gatekeeper to discuss movements and outline potential new participants in spaces that the researcher would not typically be able to access. This is the case for two of the interviewees which were conducted in Morro da Providência, a favela located within the Santo and Gamboa districts (RioOnWatch, 2019, see Figure 15 below). Undertaking qualitative research can often rely upon gatekeepers to gain access to participants, like in the case of this thesis (Oliver, 2010). The term refers to those who are in a position to permit access to other participants and these 'gatekeepers' can exert their power in different situations (Miller and Bell, 2012). Shoemaker and Vos (2009) argue that gatekeepers

determine what becomes a person's social reality. They also note that a single gatekeeping decision may itself seem trivial, but a range of messages occur that may test the relationship and the relevance to the research process thus making the gatekeeping process significant and fraught with complications (Shoemaker and Vos, 2009). As already stated the researcher was put in contact with Charles, an English-speaking community leader and Director of a creativity film school. Charles facilitated getting access to some of the interviewees and aided some of the interviews that were not conducted in English by acting as the person to support the interviewing process. To prevent the possibility of meanings being obscured and not being accurate the researcher briefed the gatekeeper in terms of the questions and issues that were pertinent to the research, such as the impact of urban development on marginalised local communities. Following the interviews delivered with the help of a gatekeeper a briefing was conducted to discuss interesting points and specifically areas that could be misconstrued in the final transcripts. These were compared against the recordings whilst the researcher was still located in the research setting.

Figure 15: Photo from Morro da Providência favela, elevated view overlooking Porto Maravilha



Ethical issues and considerations must be attended to in order to proceed effectively through the research process. Some of issues include maintaining confidentiality, supporting

participant anonymity, avoiding deception and promoting fair access to participants, which are considered to be major ethical challenges for researchers and will be discussed shortly. Before commencing with any data collection and once decided on an approach to be able to implement the research, the researcher firstly has to obtain university approval from an ethics committee (Denscombe, 2017). In this instance, an ethics application was submitted to the Faculty Research Ethics Panel (FREP) and an online ethics training course was completed through the Epigeum online platform. The committee then examined the ethics application and made the decision to approve the application following recommendations (see Appendix 1). Prior to accessing the study site, access to participants and access to funding is also a common issue (Bryman, 2016; Creswell and Poth, 2017). This research involved human participants based in the post-hosting Rio region and was emblematic of the urban regeneration project as well as the small business community. As the research involved human participants they had to agree in order to take part in the study. This entailed meeting a number of conditions which will now be outlined. There are issues that need to be recognised concerning interviewing people in host communities who lack a voice (Oliver, 2010), in addition to those individuals who claim to represent the businesses or represent marginalised populations. Wilson (2014) defines consent as seeking permission for something to happen and informed consent is a crucial component of this permission. Researchers are expected to conduct their research in a way to protect the interests of participants and ensuring that participation is based on informed consent (Denscombe, 2017). Protecting the interests of participants includes researchers not neglecting the well being of participants through taking part in the research (Wilson, 2014). Miller and Bell (2012) allude to that consent should be ongoing and renegotiated continually during the research process. For researchers to be able to garner informed consent from participants they need to complete a checklist of items. This includes ensuring that participation is voluntary, showing participants that they can withdraw at any time, providing participants with adequate information about the research and specifying the type of commitment required from participants (Denscombe, 2017). To meet these ends the researchers initially

ensured that they gained full approval from the individual and organisation after first contact with them. Once gaining approval at the point of interview a full copy of the research was provided using the participant information sheet and consent forms. Consent forms are a formal way to confirm that participation is on the basis of informed consent (Denscombe, 2017). These were both explained and translated into Portuguese. The commitment was to agree to an interview at their headquarters or specific location and that they were given the right to withdraw up to 6 months after completing the interview. The use of data and information from the interview process was retained for the duration of completing the thesis and stored on a secure university network. Other ethical concerns relate to negotiating entry and local permissions, respecting privacy, the right of participants to withdraw, and participants not being deceived about the nature of research (Creswell and Poth, 2017). The researcher's identity was maintained throughout all phases of the research. Additionally, confidentiality and participant anonymity were maintained at all times and the participant's identity was not revealed at any stage during the study. In terms of data collected confidentiality means that the information provided will be treated in the strictest confidence (Wilson, 2014). A number of other potential barriers with using human participants have been established. Speaking to experienced policymakers and those in charge of key decision-making on urban development plans and the promises for the Olympic Games (see participants sample overview table for more information) may be seen to be problematic for the following reason. This relates to the researcher taking the views of the policymakers at face value, which is one of the pitfalls of conducting elite interviews (Richards, 1996; Woods, 1998). In turn, influencing other interviews with local stakeholders such as businesses and becoming implicitly part of the issue in this research. The researcher acknowledged this from the outset of the research and used more of the formal structuring of semi-structured interviews comparatively to structured interviews in order to ensure that the participant felt they were respected in their opinions. Additionally, other specific items relate to language barriers especially between the researcher and the participant as the researcher is not fluent in Portuguese (Squires, 2009). Questions and terms could get lost in translation and there

may be some regional nuances to do with urban development or the business setting. To avoid this, the researcher carried out a number of strategies. Firstly, all interview questions have been translated to Portuguese by a fluent Portuguese and local contact based in Rio de Janeiro. The gatekeeper was present for any interviews conducted in Portuguese. Additionally, the researcher learnt to speak and write basic Portuguese through a language course run by Anglia Ruskin University. Although, this was useful preparation the researcher recognises and acknowledges that has limitations concerning analysing the complexity of language inherent in qualitative textual data. The researcher has taken personal responsibility for how research was conducted by showing professionalism, honesty, integrity and respect for participants when completing the research (Denscombe, 2017; Wilson, 2014).

The researcher conducted the field research outside of the native country in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. A number of scholars (e.g. Davies, Cook and Owen, 2012) have noted that there can be obvious risks in undertaking field research, especially planning and delivering research outside of your country and in high risk locations. For the research completed in Rio there are some key issues relating to travelling to that region that need to be highlighted. Before travelling abroad a risk assessment was carried out to the best of the researcher's ability (see Appendix 2). A risk assessment of the fieldwork location was conducted to identify potential dangers in the research setting (Denscombe, 2017). This identified potential health and safety risks associated with travelling around Rio to visit the organisations listed on the researcher's interview schedule. Furthermore, travel insurance was provided by the university in order to be able to visit the country (Wilson 2014). When visiting each site the researcher sought to establish any risks and hazards that could endanger participants. The researcher requested that a full risk assessment had been conducted by a representative at the organisations main offices. Potential risks and hazards were then closely monitored and managed in a safe and effective manner during the researchers stay.

3.14 Summary and reflections on the methodology

This chapter has provided a structured overview of the research procedures undertaken for this research project. The research process entailed a number of different forms of data analysis, incorporating semi-structured interviews with the small business community located in Porto Maravilha, combined with case study and visual analysis of key study sites.

Additionally, data was explored through the use of digital media and walking techniques conducted in and around the study location. The quality of the primary data collection was supplemented by secondary data sources of key policy and Games documents. Qualitative data analysis software supported the coding of wider Games-related development programme areas. Due to the location selection and context, gaining access to hard to reach and often excluded communities from policy decision making processes was a major challenge for the researcher. Specifically as the researcher is situated in a potentially more powerful position to local business stakeholders and participants in the study. In terms of research positionality, the researcher viewed his role was to embed and engage in the physical phenomena associated with this case study events developmental context (Bryman, 2016), and consequently used the meanings and perceptions of participants to inform the language conveyed to the audience throughout this thesis. The meanings of people and local businesses and the issues they represent are expected to be reflected in the way that conversations are presented in the future sections, with the perspective of helping to reimagine the pathway for these types of urban projects. In this instance it is important to recognise and understand reliability issues in conducting this form of qualitative research (Golafshani, 2003). Another concern is connecting to real voices that reflect the lives of local communities. At the same time it may be difficult to recognise the main perceptions and experiences of local groups through the hosting of this mega sporting event. One other drawback is the timeframe for the immersion of the research. This was a relatively short period undertaken across one month.

Chapter 4: Findings and discussions

4.1 Introduction to the chapter

The findings and discussions are presented as one standalone section combining theoretical and empirical analysis from the research. Leading succinctly on from the network analysis presented in the methods chapter (see Figure 12), this chapter intends to operationalise these structures in a way to dissect the major expectations, hopes and experiences of micro and small businesses across Porto Maravilha. The urban and business realities of these post-host spaces will be framed around the rhetoric of delivering this urban development project, and how participants co-existed, often confronted with various proportions of local infrastructure change. This retrospective analysis builds a picture of how firms responded to a range of causes, exercises, and outcomes as a result of Rio 2016's delivery.

The early part of the chapter is devoted to the realities of the post-hosting community of Porto Maravilha. At the forefront is the Olympic and local business inclusion rhetoric largely set against governmental oversight, and consequently small business exclusion from the processes of development. The port's regeneration programme and role of urban city investments and those labelled as 'beneficial improvements' to service infrastructure to the citizens of the port will be debated. This encompasses the creation of new transportation lines and how this has impacted upon the accessibility of travel routes for local businesses. Porto Maravilha extension of urban plans also raises local development issues concerning how this could translate to increased urban mobility streams across the research context. Evidence around the building of new cultural facilities located in the Olympic Boulevard, alongside the maintenance of other recreational community assets will be highlighted. These cases will be linked back to the frivolous expenditure activity and the redistribution of event funds, often inextricably redirected for personal advantage, and going to line the pockets of former politicians and government officials alike.

Small business impacts across a number service sector businesses are then presented and examined. From the onset the focus is on the obvious dichotomy between small business traders and large corporates in the port region. Data reveals that since the developments, displacement and gentrification processes are the stark reality for many small businesses. A number of perspectives are offered on the cultivation of business opportunities, how micro and small business fared in their own ability to learn new skills, develop their workforce and network with other businesses and prominent business groups. Business trade, tourism and competitiveness enhancements as a consequence of the Games are scrutinised and remain contested by local firms operating in key port sites.

Lastly, analysis confronts the recent transformation and the emergence of new urban spaces and what these benefits or challenges has provided in the context of micro and small business. Through discussions of who has access to use these public spaces, continued abandonment of port buildings, and the effect of firms being frequently locked out of key districts and unable to trade. Amalgamated too into the assessment is the commercialisation of these spaces with little or no community involvement or consultation. This includes when you make the case for recreational facility usage and engagement with local groups. Finally, in relation to key port zones, small businesses possessing the resources and capabilities are discussed. Small businesses have been found to be vulnerable and not to possess the skills, knowledge or have access to the right networks to leverage these spaces. Overlapping themes include the chronic lack of strategic business leveraging and what's referred to as a 'temporary state of exception', giving rise to the possibility of business exclusion and hyper commodified spaces.

4.2 Policy mini-review: Small business and Porto Maravilha Games-related legacy aspirations and outcomes

To set the scene for empirical analysis, a range of policy documents were reviewed to examine the role of this event in attempting to forge positive economic and physical outputs for the port region as well as tangible results for small businesses. This is important to understand as the political elites such as the local government and global governing body (i.e. IOC) serially engage in buoying and explicitly inciting the benefits and 'legacies' for the hosting region. Porto's Maravilha urban development legacies didn't just coincide with the hosting of the Games, they ended up evolving and playing wider prominence in stimulating changes to the urban landscape. Likewise, these plans to overhaul the port weren't just tagged on to the back of the Games in the last moments. Although, urban interventions visibly polarised areas and local populations perceived them to be erratic and unthoughtful in their delivery (PACS, 2017). Pre and post-Games analysis of policy documents focuses on 2013 onwards as Porto Maravilha did not feature in the original bidding plans (e.g. Rio 2016, 2009a, 2009b) but later their plans have been viewed as synonymous with the Olympic Games. This resulted in the area being fashioned into a 'live site' for the Games. A challenge for interpreting these types of documents is that they often tend to bulk stakeholders as one entity and ignore the individual stakeholder intricacies. For example, as opposed to discussing how micro and small business will or can benefit they are lumped in with medium and large businesses. This means there is little room for anticipating how specific stakeholders have been influenced by the demands of the event. At a city and regional level Porto Maravilha's legacy ambitions are linked to key policy sources, detailed in Table 13 below.

Table 13: Porto Maravilha's legacy pronouncements and outcomes
(various sources)

Policy document type	Source	Links to Rio 2016's legacy
IOC media guide	IOC (2016d)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Renovated port • Live site • Cultural events
IOC marketing report	IOC (2016e)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Renovated port • Live action • Extensive visitation
IOC legacy review	IOC (2017a)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Light rail network • Resident post-event use • Small business engagement with SEBRAE
IOC small business legacy case studies	IOC (2017b)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • SEBRAE on the Podium successes • Economic change and value creation • Benchmarking and qualifications
Organising committee official document - Olympic Games impact study	Rio 2016 (2014)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local transport legacies
Organising committee official post-event legacy document	Rio 2016 (2018a)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Urban legacy • Infrastructure works • Port visitation

Organising committee official post-Games sustainability report	Rio 2016 (2018b)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Accelerating urban infrastructure • Cultural and leisure planning • Improved urban mobility including public transport
National sport ministry media guide	Brazilian Ministry of Sport (2016)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Revitalised area • Renovated public spaces • Highlights cultural diversity
Local authority strategic plan	Rio de Janeiro City Government (2013)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Housing • Urban • Legacy
Local authority document	Rio de Janeiro City Government (2014)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cultural development • Light rail network

4.3 Urban development structures

Leading on from the policy review and legacy pronouncements for small business connected to the Games earlier in this chapter, this section seeks to establish participants perspectives on the port's overarching infrastructure regeneration, urban investments, city facility improvements, the role of transport deriving improved or diminished accessibility and planning for real estate development. There are a number of key urban infrastructure areas driving the redevelopment of the Porto Maravilha district (see Table 14). This includes firstly unrealistic budget and costs to redevelop key spaces in the port region. Porto Maravilha is an incredibly large area that encompasses port warehouses, retail units, housing districts and a mixture of in use land and transportation linking this district to other parts of the city (see Figure 6 for an extended overview of key territories). In this instance and as alluded in the policy documents this entire area has taken decades to make progress and the only significant progress has been made due to the additional investments created using two main apparatus, the Brazil 2014 World Cup and Rio 2016 Olympic Games. In a later section data springing up from this project illustrates construction costs spiralling out of control, posing wider transportation issues for locals. In relation to the construction and transportation plans, particularly where the Olympic Boulevard and planned transportation was earmarked for sites that back in the early 2010s, heavy duty roads and tunnels existed and much of these areas were highly polluted (see Figure 16).

Figure 16: Praça Mauá in 2011 (Zenato and Silva, 2017)



Transportation routes were therefore re-routed in order to be able to regenerate Porto Maravilha as part of the wider city plans. The placement of designated stops and stations such as BRT and VLT were designed implicitly to force out local communities in the process for commercial and retail gain. Alongside this, there was scepticism from the local community about which transportation upgrades would benefit, and ultimately longer term delays in building this infrastructure is represented through comments with local businesses and citizens living or working in the port. Combined with other issues there were poor integration of ancillary facilities and venues created for the Games. These venues also lacked a maintenance fund that was going to manage these facilities over time due to Rio de Janeiro's state of emergency declared pre-Games (Watts, 2016). The role of real estate development was also highlighted as a key factor. In the run up to the Games corporate vacancy rates has been increasing in the port zone (Cushman and Wakefield, 2016; Jones Lang LaSalle, 2016). This led to even more abandonment and unoccupied industrial spaces due to limited market value and appeal. The funding of these projects was also attached to CEPACs, and these schemes were found to be not effective at regenerating urban areas in other cities and districts (see section 3.2). Lastly, these games-related developments were marred by corruption scandals with senior politicians (Kelner, 2017). As a result, there were major challenges around the allocation and transparency of spending for urban development projects.

Table 14: Porto Maravilha's planning and infrastructure evidence (adapted from Kirby and Crabb, 2019)

Urban infrastructure themes	Focus and impacts
Budgets and costs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unrealistic budget projects • Construction costs overran
Construction and transportation plans	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Transportation faults • Location of routes • Who did it serve to benefit?
Stadiums, venues and ancillary facilities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Poor planning and integration of ancillary infrastructure and recreational facilities • Lack of investment and maintenance in facilities
Real estate development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Abandonment and unoccupied industrial urban space • Increasing corporate vacancy rates
Transparency and corruption	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Marred by corruption scandals • Event-related infrastructure funding

Depending on where you were located across the port region (see Figure 6 on the areas located across the whole district), some citizens felt that planning and regeneration works as a result of the Games were favourable to aiding the value of the local area. The city hall combined with CDURP were hopeful of tactically ploughing through a whole range of urban projects to help to reimage a new central space (Smith, 2019). They used the coming of the Games to re-spark transformation in the region including the under-invested port region. Many of the participants highlighted the lack of consultation in planning mechanisms and the inability of the local state to listen to common needs of those locals living in and around the Porto Maravilha. One tour guide and resident (#1, #3) eluded to the disconnect with the priorities of the locals:

'These plans were not good, we really need education, health and sanitation but the government only imagines these transformations...'

Legacy and regeneration projects that were intended to enhance the port region were often slapdash with little planning or involvement from the locals and or community groups. Pre and post Games issues such as transport costs, access to Porto Maravilha and the rarity of availability of support for these business traders. This included types of programmes that were delivered during the Games, at for example, the Rio Museum of Art. The change from weekday to weekend is stark. On a number of visits the researcher noted that Tuesday's seemed to more frenetic than the likes of weekend trade in the port (see Figure 17). The port had increasingly been developed over a number of phases. This was discussed by one the museums who said that:

'Everything has changed. MAR [Rio Museum of Art] was built because of the Olympics. It is the first cultural facility in this space since the revitalisation. Born for the city, but for the purpose of the Olympics (#6)'.

Figure 17: Olympic Boulevard and the Museum of Tomorrow



Planning concerns were recognised by a number of participants who raised trepidation and deep unease regarding money being diverted away from other neighbourhoods and re-directed to the infrastructure in the port region (#1, #2 and #3). This is typical of the types of mega projects, particularly related to planning decisions and engagement in the hosting process (e.g. Majoor, 2011; Souliotis, Sayas and Maloutas, 2014; Smith and McGillivray, 2020). A prime local planning subject and issue was stressed in relation to the cable car that connected the outskirts of Porto Maravilha and Morro da Providência, the favela situated above the port area (see Figures 15 and 18 below).

Figure 18: Guarded and not in use Providência cable car (Teleférico da Providência)



In the planning stages of initially constructing the cable car residents were not consulted and the original plans would have left thousand dislodged from their homes, and since its building and the subsequent Olympic Games it stopped operating in 2016 (Zimbalist, 2017). The cable car continues to be out of action and speaking to local businesses located in the port this had caused wide ranging issues, such as being unable to access central Boulevard spaces to gain work, and the inability to foster partnerships specifically for weekly events and food and drink festivals. One local tour operator commented on the state of the cable car:

'In 2011, the former mayor came to speak to us about the transformation of the favela. It was running for the whole of the World Cup and Olympic Games. I asked about the cable car restarting [in 2018] and we hear nothing' (#3).

A number of local businesses continue to campaign for its renewal, and this includes residents who live in Morro da Providência due to a loss in tourists visiting the favela. However, it was noted by one of the interviewees that is not strictly just about bringing back the cable car, it is about how this form of urban mobility can help to support locals, when he remarked "most of the people who use it are not residents because they want to go across to other neighbourhoods or go to work" (#3). Urban planning like introducing types of overground transportation is debated as being an effective strategy to boost local access to services (Kassens-Noor, 2019; Zagorianakos, 2004). Another local business located in Providência commented:

'The money to fix the cable car in Providencia is small and needed for locals to do business, but they want to remove many residents. We don't understand the ports project. It's not a democratic process' (#9).

4.4 Local authority infrastructure planning

The creation of new infrastructure often saddled with long-terms payoffs and debts require long-term use programming, and such planning approaches offer this realisation in order to be able to conceive the production of policy development as part of a wider urban development strategy (Roche, 1994). This much more comprehensive outlook is also understood to offer multiple other benefits including motivating tourism policy development. The manipulations forged in the area reflect the apparent shift in focus building stronger urban tourism through urban scapegoats like new cultural attractions (e.g. Museum of Tomorrow) and other heritage assets. Changes in broader city policy such as the introduction of divisive CEPACs were seen to necessitate a more deceptive vehicle to pursue urban development projects. In this sense, mega sporting events can signal a change in urban development politics and affect the development agenda of the city (Burbank, Andranovich and Heyying, 2002). Event priorities end up become planning priorities and crowd out the real infrastructure needs of the host population, providing precedence to the visiting international socially mobile societies (Müller, 2015c). The requirements of infrastructure and support for urban development of other live spaces for the event provide the distraction and which ended up becoming subsumed, overriding the broader urban policy arrangements and consequently eroding urban spatial territories. Although, the plans for Porto Maravilha were not specifically contained in the bidding documentation (see Rio 2016, 2009), developments projects were incorporated into the expanded scope and upward trajectory of local development (see IOC, 2017a). One local business insisted that the development was beneficial to the locality:

'This area has changed dramatically, it is another place, before the revitalisation of the square. There are the public, cariocas, people who visit the city today also see Praça Mauá as a tourist spot, which they did not see before. Before it was a dirty

place, linked to prostitution, it was not a very good place. And now the square is there, it continues to be occupied' (#9).

In the medium term, local authority planning was aligned to key aspirations of urban re-imagining of the Porto Maravilha landscape. Specifically the building of new cultural attractions, retail and commercial spaces for visitor consumption (see Figure 19 below). This raised public policy concerns justified as part of the development timetable (Burbank, Andranovich and Heyying, 2002). Local interests became seized upon not due to the support for the greater good and needs of the local populations, but to deploy systematic change of the government to rush through reforms and prop-up big business demands, which on the face of it, could support local interests, but ultimately led to a tirade of economic leakage. Vento (2017) asserts that these projects are 'conduits of neoliberalisation' and urban policy mechanisms unleashed to propose these mega sporting event projects are symbols of elitist decision-making. These urban projects are treated as vacuous and depraved means to appear like they are providing multiple benefits to those people it should be attempting to help. On the other hand, policy reforms are able to ratchet up an impetus which seeks to dislodge and move the gaze from the concealed urban plans to potential conversion into popular sites. Müller (2015a) proposed a number of symptoms including elite capture and 'rule of exception' for hosting regions of the mega sporting event syndrome as he refers to. This is reflective of what happened in Rio on this occasion. Elite capture formed the basis of the Porto Maravilha project which were hastily plunged through and removed legal requirements which gave the local authorities the control over hustling populations out of their home areas and reallocating them into wastelands. The project had hostile beginnings with financial backing from a range of actors seeking to predicate their private ventures on to the people of the port. As these were new policy formations there were no legislation preventing them from investing, buying up and overthrowing property and infrastructure which they could use as a vehicle to experiment with urban land. The public-private partnership developed by the consortium Porto Novo won the bidding process to manage

the construction works and maintenance schemes linked to the development (Becerril, 2017; PACS, 2017). What this case emphasises is interventions of this scale are full frontal upheavals that gradually reduce the control and say of populations in how local services are delivered.

Figure 19: Photos of Praça Mauá, displaying the Rio Museum of Art, cruise ships in the background and the Museum of Tomorrow



4.5 Regeneration policy processes of Porto Maravilha

As already highlighted in the introduction to the case study section planning in relation to the Porto Maravilha regeneration processes was highly contested. Reconfigurations catalysed by the Porto Maravilha project has changed the dynamics in the Pier Maua plaza area, which as interviewee 2 emphasised, was originally a “bus depot, this was where people changed buses and there was an overpass that went over it”. This was reiterated by a cultural organisation located in the port area who exemplified that the land was:

‘Completely destroyed... it was a bus parking lot... nothing happened here before it was a dead zone... with this project, what happened is that you have a completely renovated area’ (#4).

Interviewee 8 emphatically noted that in relation to the area “you would needed to have seen it before because it was really degraded, it was really ugly and its developed a lot and it’s still developing. That area was actually the area that benefited the most” (#5). The final parts of the port area heading past AquaRio, and other large corporates is symptomatic of the types of business the port seeks to lure into its web (CDURP, 2020a). AquaRio was a brand new visitor attraction that popped up as a result of this development. The attraction opened in October 2016 after the Games and is supposedly the largest marine aquarium in South America, with conservation at the forefront of their activities (AquaRio, 2018, see Figure 20 below).

Figure 20: Outside AquaRio



The placement is interesting, and this was highlighted by a number of interviewees. One food trader highlighted:

'AquaRio and the museum are attractive to the public, it brings lots of tourists along this open pathway. This is the good side of the work for Porto Maravilha. In other places not so much, but Porto Maravilha is very well used' (#7).

Moving further out from the main port precinct and square it is evident of the sad state of affairs for Vila Olímpica da Gamboa (Gamboa Olympic Village). The venue was inaugurated in 2004 as a recreation centre and physical site designed to support sport and leisure activities (e.g. athletics, swimming and skateboarding) for the local community in Gamboa. This centre featured as part of the urban port zone revitalisation campaign and strategies, yet potentially acting as a mere distraction to other event-led regeneration processes took hold of the area (Sadd, 2010; Sánchez and Broudehoux, 2013). The current situation of the facilities is utterly unfathomable with minimal foresight and planning to upkeep and maintain the condition (pictured below).

Figure 21: Recreational centre, park and fencing



As has noted on numerous occasions across a raft of research, the setup for such events of this scale sees wholesale capital investments employed by political and corporate entities and are structurally levered as weapons of policy change (Roche, 1992). In the case of Porto Maravilha pre-event preparations encouraged both the public and private sector to bring

forward plans that had already been determined or ones in which had been earmarked for the future. The deliberate exploitation of rejuvenation attempts of urban areas is commonplace for cities and nations and again Rio's hosting emphasised the lack of a systematic approach to guide how these regeneration efforts affected social impacts, such as housing, deprivation levels and rental and real estate pricing. What has been acknowledged in terms of commercial activity is the decline of rental and commercial prices in the port region even with the coming of this event. Mega sporting events like Rio 2016 was a useful ploy by the 'urban boosters' who have advocated for growth strategies to compete against other nations (Hiller, 2000). Forms of urban transformation were structurally established to target big business expansion and economic development, as opposed to the local community who are powerless to reject such a 'cavalier' approach and misplacement of priorities from the government. This is true of this urban development as locals called for improvements to health, education and sanitisation which could envisage improvements in society. However, those areas are not mechanisms that can be exploited quickly. Viehoff and Poynter (2015) argue that promoting rapid large-scale urban renewal is very much a short-term pathway to mobilise public and private investment to show means of legitimacy. This new projected legitimacy of a region is expected to change the perception of what locals and visitors see and experience in these areas. But as is openly visible across sites in Porto Maravilha and as you flow in and out of areas such as Gamboa the stark reality and uncomfortable state is quite unimaginable.

In preparation for Rio 2016 the readiness of venues were flagged as unfit, receiving the fallout of media headlines and press coverage (Horne and Silvestre, 2016). This is emphasised by the words of interviewee 12 who infers to the poor and depressing sights which litter this space:

'This use to be setup as a skate park. You can see there was a track here for running and you can see the condition of this and a football installation... they build it and

leave, there's no maintenance, there's no budget to take care of this stuff... This park use to be a really nice facility when they opened it. It's absolutely shocking' (#12).

Whilst the researcher was visiting families and groups of children occupied the swimming pool as well as a dance class who had unlocked the facility, which was not fit for use and abandoned for an extended period of time:

'You got the three training pools, there's one for little babies, this [pointing to another pool] is supposed to be a lap pool. This is an open swimming pool here now' (#12).

Another business accentuated that the “area [warehouses along the pier] was abandoned I think for more than 40 years before the remodelling” (#6). However, the majority of participants felt that the developments led to significant damages to Porto Maravilha. Additionally, industrial buildings and port warehouses continue to remain abandoned (see Figure 22). In particular, money has been diverted from Games-related programmes to other urban projects. Local, small businesses were not involved in these processes and post-Games no programme of activity was in place, with little integrated into a much broader programme of business engagement (e.g. #12). Examples like the Barcelona Olympic Games underline how vast urban infrastructure can unlock future investments and facilitate positive urban change (Preuss, 2005).

Figure 22: Deserted industrial buildings and empty port warehouses



The Porto Maravilha setting shows the carelessness of uncoordinated planning and cooperation with users, local businesses and the wider community. Unsatisfactory results achieved for deprived urban populations fearing change and that's exactly what they received. Researchers have illustrated much more effectively that event-led regeneration can be accomplished using regeneration partnerships, local resident ownership and trust associated with decision-making (e.g. Christie and Gibb, 2015). In the scenario of Rio 2016 all of these integral components were omitted from the urban regeneration processes, many of which largely engendering a 'you complain, we still won't listen' approach unless they perceived it to be worthy to generate cash in the short-term. One tour operator made reference to the diversion of funds away from local services:

'\$R10bn to do the museum, VLT and some buildings to improve the streets. We need health service and sanitation!' (#10).

Studies have raised concerns about how these events can divert attention from local communities generally impacted the most dramatic by these events (e.g. Clark, Kearns and Cleland, 2016). The problematic experiences in Porto Maravilha are due to the rhetoric and promised legacy being targeted towards urban boosters, big business and more affluent communities. The interests of the many were not promoted, and instead calculated efforts were implemented to throttle the communities to submission (Horne, 2017). Sadd's (2010)

contemplations are apt here but also very contradictory of these types of urban exercises. She writes that embedding a range of social projects can be the impetus to raising the standards for some of the most disadvantaged groups. Yet, from a developing nation angle such radical reforms instead go on to subjugate local communities to even more harsh treatment. The emphasis on such urban planning mechanisms misses the point, bombards citizens with new regimes they don't understand, in addition to destabilising the urban enterprises in which the local economy relies on to shore up the financial state of the region.

4.6 Transportation extension and development in Porto Maravilha

The development of new urban transport networks in Porto Maravilha was viewed by some as a mechanism to specifically target and remove citizens and place them in much harder to reach locations. Focus of this analysis will centre on the re-imagination of the light rail vehicle (VLT). One intended strategy was the planning and targeted interventions in Porto Maravilha, and the overarching implementation of the VLT. The government promise was to add substantial investment in transportation to connect routes stretching in and out of Porto Maravilha. The mayor at the time, Paes', ideas on the transit reforms were to link the transport networks - metro, buses and airports, particularly the 28km light rail from Gamboa to Central to Santos Dumont terminal (Carvalho, 2016; CDURP, 2016). The controversy was evident surrounding which members of the local community the VLT served and the planned placement of the VLT tracks on streets. This assertion was highlighted by some participants, who claimed that:

'It's not a means of transportation... it's a means of changing the neighbourhood, of valuing the neighbourhood' (#5).

In this sense, problems in assembling the integrated transport system were the ongoing dilemmas faced by city planners, policymakers and the local organising committee. In some extreme cases for neighbourhoods urban planning devices like the execution of the VLT have dogmatically reaped chaos upon citizens, leaving behind a homogenised, characterless ghost town - awaiting the next urban retail market pump (see Figure 23). Accessibility and the temporary creation of transport systems for the local population was a highly questionable tactic pursued by the local authority. Transport development and management is one of the toughest Olympic Games hurdles to overcome in relation to delivering these urban development projects on time and readying these services for not only local communities, but also the increased numbers of tourists. Investments in improving travel capacity on public transport systems are often emphasised as Games legacy products

(Currie and Shalaby, 2012). The state of the VLT enhancement is clearly visible in Porto Maravilha and how it aided tourists movement across the city such as linking central areas to the Olympic Boulevard attractions e.g. AquaRio site. However, the delays, hold-ups and uncertainty have ravaged parts of the Porto Maravilha including roads along through in Gamboa. These developments have created tensions with local communities on the ground as businesses have had to close in the short-term with little or no support from the local authority.

Figure 23: Transportation line works disruption



4.7 Local development issues in urban spaces

Bound to these urban development projects such as in Porto Maravilha is servicing local and urban spaces. However, key spaces served external visitors and international commercial interests. There are urban public spaces which are viewed as the centrepiece of urban regeneration masterplan and suitable for future event animation and engagement, for instance, Praça Mauá and Olympic Boulevard areas. An international cultural relations organisation describes these spaces as:

'Areas that allow for big events and shows and the structure that is very open and its central so people can find it easier to access' (#7).

Cultural events and business initiatives in Praça Mauá (e.g. pop-up markets have led to additions to the port's annual programme of events and festivals (Kirby and Crabb, 2019). This contrasts to an adventure tourism operator offering cultural tours in the region. They explained that:

'It's beautiful [referring to the port area], it is a legacy... It was good, it paid off... People abroad will come here because of the museums and the new Porto Maravilha' (#7).

New tourist sites have generated some interest in the local area. For example, the establishment of AquaRio. However, some urban zones nearby have been unable to create long-lasting inclusive spaces for small business interactions and enhancement. In the whole scheme of physical development, land use shifts have caused spaces to become redundant, as one interviewee exemplified:

'It's a completely unusable public space... very little greenery, it's not a space that the public can use however they want to' (#9).

Barring a kids playground and small green patches there has been a lack of animation and interest in these spaces (see Figure 24). Therefore, the redistribution of benefits imparted by urban and spatial transformation in Porto Maravilha has not fashioned and harvested accessible permanent areas to house local business communities.

Figure 24: AquaRio green space



The changing usage of space was very prevalent in Porto Maravilha, especially in the recently revamped Olympic Boulevard. As already discussed this has morphed from a urban “dead zone” (#9) and been transformed into an overtly commercialised and touristic space. Although, a number of small traders noticed the positive shift of these developments, there were also others who were critical of how much opportunity there is for them to use these spaces, specifically, on an ad-hoc basis for festivals like the gastronomic festivals highlighted by a number of participants.

The changing face of local development in Porto Maravilha was noted by a number interviewees (e.g. #1, #7 and #12). They stressed that urban development projects had ransacked and overridden their community needs. This includes the prioritisation of large scale construction over more pressing issues such as improving healthcare, education and sanitisation for those living in the favela communities. Although, the magnitude of these interventions has been rained-in since the recent collapse of Brazil’s economy. In the run-up to the Olympics these projects had caused incredible disruption across Porto Maravilha.

New VLT lines had shattered local businesses and often these tracks remained unfinished. This was pointed out by one of the walking tour operators. The development authority responsible for the completion of wide ranging works had not been keen to engage with the locals in and around the port. This includes those communities overlooking Porto Maravilha e.g. Morro da Providência. One local tour guide and inhabitant of the favela explained they had now resorted to turning up at the city hall unannounced to put forward the case of forming better links with community groups as a result of not having their views accounted for at city and state level talks. There is still a whole heap of issues associated with enhancing urban mobility for local populations, and although it can be said that the alterations in the central Olympic Boulevard have proved popular from some individuals, others had remarked that new public services had not made a positive difference to locals daily lives. A very common sight throughout the port area were new bike scheme hubs (see Figure 25). However, during the researchers time in the research location he did not see one user of any of these bikes, or in fact many bikes at all. On the whole, there seemed to be very little visibility or promotion of these bike spaces. Even little room for areas where people could find shade from the heat. This was shared by one of the interviewees who said that these spaces are completely unusable for the public:

'You can see nobody is using the space at all. Not for leisure' (#3).

Figure 25: Public cycling infrastructure



Spaces do not seem inviting, and the urban setting is not constructed to promote the use of these areas for extended periods of time. For example, the visualisation and implementation of seating throughout Praça Mauá is sporadic and not fit for public consumption, especially the ways in which local populations and visitors are able to interact with these spaces (see Figure 26). Urban planning in the short-term has failed to tackle how all areas seamlessly fit together as one, emboldening the local landscape to meet the needs of those people who want to proactively use these spaces. This not only has short-term effects but also longer-term implications for how people occupy these open spaces. This includes mechanisms for promoting small business activity in addition to how the creation of new space can be used as vehicles for ad-hoc forms of expression. One of the downfalls in the context of this urban development was the lack of community involvement or consultation right through from bid conception to after the event had taken place. For example, there were few ties with city planners and planning principles and the proximity of the most deprived to transportation was not reflective of these developments (Hiller, 2000). They merely transferred the abandonment and urban dilapidation to other places and as a result did not transform property and commercial levels or create areas for additional capital investment. This urban development was simply a dream plucked up to entice the local populations to be content with this event on the basis that it presents an opportunity to improve areas and create more liveable environments. In fact it did the exact opposite and penalised citizens for not being wealthy and having the capabilities to either stand up to this change or leave the port indefinitely. There is an accepted notion that host cities have to carefully integrate realistic strategies for Olympic-related infrastructure development, and in particular one that emphasises priority to the local community (Essex and Chalkley, 2004). The Porto Maravilha's efforts were viewed as slapdash and uncoordinated with money being filtered out of key infrastructure and other priorities such as access to local sporting facilities. Land use planning was seen as convoluted with limited structure or appraisal of where landmarks could be located. The Olympic Boulevard emphasises this through the inclusion of two major cultural landmarks which could have spread wider across the development.

The stoppages and continuations of development such as the VLT has snaffled up all of the local material assets which communities value the most. In its wake small business communities have wiped out along the perimeter due to the sheer scale of disruption, and seemingly only businesses on street corners remained and these may be mothballed in future if all of the buildings continue to decay. The developments of the live site for the Games and the permanent creations in and around the Olympic Boulevard have been revealed as a battle ground for local and political confrontation. Urban civic spaces including the building of new squares and attractions in Porto Maravilha have opened up the space to commodification and containment processes (McGillivray and Frew, 2015). Space has been territorialised for the live sites and re-territorialised following the event to secure the planned objectives by imposing further structures and to subvert the ability of local citizens to use and interact in these spaces (McGillivray and Frew, 2015).

Figure 26: Lack of activity in the Olympic Boulevard



Academics such as Misener and Mason (2006) emphasise that sporting events can provide opportunities for local development strategies employed by cities as well as offering a means of forming coalitions for residents to get involved in citizen participation. The consumption within these newly developed Porto Maravilha spaces does seem to resonate with the local communities in terms of these spaces can be used primarily for civic good. This was a criticism of some of the participants that actually much of the development is not fit for purpose and does not attract local communities to want to engage and interact in these

zones. This is also an argument that tourists too were not factored into what types of activities and culture they would be keen to experience in these event-touristic environments. Although, during the Games Rio de Janeiro demonstrated the disorganisation of host community tourist and event spaces (e.g. Duignan and McGillivray, 2019). This continued long after the event showing the unintentional and ill-prepared planning aspects corresponding to the transformation of Porto Maravilha. Essentially spaces across the city during the Games resembled platforms of resistance and the propensity for smooth space to emerge offering leverageable benefits for local entrepreneurs (e.g. Duignan and McGillivray, 2019). This has not been found to be represented of spaces such as the Olympic Boulevard, where conditions have been placed on local actors to prevent them from moving and accessing those spaces for their benefit. Those small traders located outside out of the Museum of Tomorrow do not have a license to trade there as exemplified by one of the interviewees (#5) and can be forced out at short notice or penalised for operating in those areas. Their merely use these areas to latch on to tourists for the time being until they get re-located to another space.

4.8 Bankruptcy and corruption of development schemes

Concerns regarding the use of public money associated with not only the Rio 2016 Olympic Games but also the 2014 Men's Football World Cup were emphasised by many of the interviewees. Individuals and especially small business became increasingly frustrated by the waste of public money and lack in transparency of those elites in the position to gain from manoeuvring commercial deals with real estate providers. With regards to the potential hosting opportunities from the Games for Rio one of the interviewees perspectives illustrated that:

'The Olympic Games can be viewed in the same light and as the state of rights, constitution, sport, art and economics. This is the big picture of where the money is, and corruption is together and because of this, problems occur. The intention is to find opportunities to make more money flow around the same players. So when the Olympics were voted to happen and we got elected as the host city, I cried...' (#1).

Other major events have followed a similar chain of events (e.g. the 2014 Men's Football World Cup) and this process is being repeated time after time but for different scales of events across the economy. "This trend is just repeating" said one interviewee (#11). The responsibility of the government to provide sustainable long-term maintenance plans was eluded to by another interviewee:

'That's another part of the problem is that a lot of these projects that they build for the Olympics or for the World Cup they've never been maintained. There's never a maintenance budget to keep things. Because you know you can't steal from that. You need this 100 or 200 million budget in order for the corruption to happen... An opportunity for massive theft. That's all it is' (#2).

Building the infrastructure for the Games afforded the likelihood of money to be plundered and embezzled by the organisers. One interviewee noted:

'It's kind of, you have a budget but its ends up tripling in the course of building... they never finish building them and its hundreds of millions. The government organises the corruption through these mega-projects, through these white elephants' (#12).

Propping up individuals and aspirational outward looking projects are viewed as drivers of corrupt undertakings. These sentiments are shared by a tour operator in the port region:

'A museum [Museum of Tomorrow] that is what we call a white elephant to attract the viewers, and many other big museums are doing that around the world' (#14).

At this point, it's worth emphasising the 'construction industrial complex' exemplified by Zirin (2016). This process involves a power grab of industrial areas earmarked for substantial construction. In this instance a mega-project like an Olympic Games provides the impetus and "another reason and need for a herd of white elephants because that's the money game" (#12). These comments are echoed by other small businesses in the port. Authors such as Ferrari and Guala (2017) claim that mega sporting events produce long-lasting effects like attracting and stimulating investments. But this context illustrates that investments derived from large-scale project rejuvenations have not come to fruition. Albeit, they have provoked a physical recapturing of a large area of the port. Investment potential has not been realised in the port region and you can go as far as suggesting that there was no concrete value that could be linked to these urban initiatives. The re-development in Porto Maravilha signalled their intent that the makeover could transform these spaces. But there was never any attempt from the elites to design a detailed proposition as to how local and the small business community can benefit from these efforts. Nevertheless, the Games did act as a catalyst for urban change, but it was not what the urban local populations anticipated or were hankering - specifically, in revitalising areas and accommodating citizen participation in these spaces (e.g. parks and playground areas), overhauling the state of transportation or creating better business outcomes for small traders.

4.9 Urban competitiveness, commercial and trade development

A plethora of factors have influenced the current state and projections for retail and industrial office space in the port region. The macro environment of hosting two MSEs (2014 Men's Football World Cup and Rio 2016 Olympic Games) in Brazil, combined with corruption scandals and the regeneration of Porto Maravilha injected a sudden influx of new prime retail office supply (Murray, Monetti and Ween, 2018). Furthermore, overbuilding and a reduction in businesses has produced a hike in vacancy rates which has consequently sharply impinged upon the rental office market (Murray, Monetti and Ween, 2018). Yet, the prolonged absence of amenities like retail and service facilities has implications for how attractive and competitive the region is to invest in and sway other key players to move their occupancy to vastly developing districts. As a result of the Games, the Rio de Janeiro City Government intended to foster the "establishment and competitiveness of SME's in the city" (Rio de Janeiro City Government, 2013: 179). Although, it was noted that the business competitiveness did improve in the short-term for certain organisations, this was partly down to "increased capacity for new management projects" and those organisations "who were able to prepare themselves took advantage of the opportunities" (#11 and #13). But the limited understanding of how small businesses could prepare for the Games was acknowledged as a common denominator for many of the participants. These findings resonate with prior studies into businesses inability to be fully prepared for the coming of the global spectacles (Jones, Woolley and Currie, 2015).

The skyline along the western part of the port zone had certainly more emphasis in attempting to attract international conglomerates. What the researcher found was a mixture of derelict industrial buildings alongside brand new empty skyscrapers (see Figure 27). There were some exceptions here such as the new AquaRio. However, on the whole, one interviewee talked openly about the rental prices here which had been increased to make it

look like a worthwhile investment (#2) but had failed in convincing large businesses to invest in the port area, even as part of the urban regeneration plan.

Figure 27: Unfinished high-rise building in the port zone



In terms of the competitiveness of commercial and retail units, the new industrial installations and building sites strewn amongst the city's physical landscape have impacted the level of activity from corporate agents. There are examples of partially completed and unoccupied high-rise buildings scattered along the port zone. Discussing the corporate buildings in the area, one business remarked in 2018:

'They are all empty... One of the recent reports determined the corporate vacancy rate in the port zone as 82%, another other one cited it as 87.5%. It said that the port zone has the cheapest corporate rental rates and the city's vacancy rate was 36%... But in the port zone you have got the empty old buildings that are falling down and then you have got these brand new buildings that are also empty (#2).'

Stimulating and retaining substantial investment from international corporations to lure them to relocate their offices into the region was an important aspect of delivering event-led urban change. This and roles of other urban infrastructure is illustrated by an exchange tour operator who described the area as:

‘Potential to put a lot of investment in skyscrapers to sell or rent offices from big companies all over the world... so the museum [Museum of Tomorrow] was one of those strategies, to attract the viewers to a region’ (#10).

In the immediate term the number of buildings constructed has contracted (Cushman and Wakefield, 2020; Jones Lang LaSalle, 2020), however real estate markets and the restricted presence of small business due to high rents continues to erode the investment potential and value of the region. The main concern emphasised here is the public-private financing to transform areas designated in the main Porto Maravilha hubs such as the Olympic Boulevard, as the state ran into financial difficulties there was no means to maintain those areas and buildings were left to the private occupants. For those businesses like the two museums located in the Olympic Boulevard, that is not an issue if they can generate visitors and income. But for many of the industrial sites and space this relies on capital injections from public and private organisations. Where there was no public money, there was unlikely to be any private investment.

4.10 Business partnership and entrepreneurship challenges and opportunities

Small business traders were still increasingly under valued and under sold by new urban developments. A number of reports produced by the local authority and CDURP emphasised the importance of supporting micro and small businesses during the Games (e.g. CDURP, 2020c; SEBRAE, 2016). In the port area there had been a couple of new businesses emerge as a result of the Games, including AquaRio and a global energy project management company Subsea 7 (see Figure 28 and Subsea 7, 2018). However, there have also been a series of businesses fail during this period e.g. Hotel Intercity in Porto Maravilha which opened in 2016 and later closed in 2020 (CDURP, 2020c; CDURP, 2021).

Figure 28: Business located at Utopia AquaRio



Participants who were able to better negotiate their networks were those senior figures (e.g. Executive Directors) who stretched themselves more widely across not only the zones in Porto Maravilha but beyond into the city and other districts, such as the city hall. A tour operator commented:

'We have some help from the mayorship, one of the companies in the association [adventure tourism association] also works for the mayorship. So this helped'. They did some gatherings before the Olympics, especially the mayorship (#12).

The same people were members of shared working groups and much larger association support networks. This gave those individuals the opportunity to share best practice and discuss how they were going to deal with a raft of issues connected to tourism and the new developments in the port. Another cultural business emphasised the role of this area in fostering new business during the Games:

'During the Olympics, we received many parties and many business meetings from people who were here from big companies. That's what the companies did. But, for example, I didn't have a new sponsor. There was no financial investment action because of the Olympics, except for the investment that the city makes and the normal sponsors' (#9).

On the contrary, the majority of interviewees indicated they had not received any sort of advice and support from government providers or schemes including from the city hall mayorship. Another small business noted:

'The participation of the city hall was not very good for our business, especially from the state government' (#19).

Other interviewees remarked on the role of partnerships and networking not being enacted due to Games-related development. One business stated:

'During the Olympics we did not establish a network and we did not gain any other partnerships. This was difficult' (#12).

Existing elite networks which were alluded to by many throughout the course of the research project have the potential to continue to optimise or shut-out small organisations from access

to resources, skills, training and other capabilities that could be harnessed on the back of this scale of event. One small business operating in the port during the Games said:

‘SEBRAE, which is a business program network came here to collect information from us, to find out if we needed any kind of advice. If our business is well located and here there will be a good target audience for us. SEBRAE does offer help!’ (#14).

Partnerships between businesses positioned more effectively in their networks, for example those close to the likes of SEBRAE was noteworthy in the context of a tour operator association. They had been able to work together on a scheme and utilise their personal connections to access supply chain training and business workshops. Within this assessment it can be argued these existing networks propagated the necessary response of ameliorating those disadvantaged and deprived who lack the access and this is also reflective of the wider inequalities within the area (Stevenson, 2016). Business legacy drivers and barriers are linked to the networking complexity such as the structure apparent, speed of internationalisation and country constraints (Kaplanidou, Emadi, Sagas, Diop and Fritz, 2016). On the whole, limited financial resources and constraints of networking alongside the business challenges linked to the development of Porto Maravilha managed to stifle small business activity. This was highlighted by many of the participants barring a couple of interviewees who were able to negotiate business opportunities using their networking capacity.

4.11 Leveraging small business opportunities from urban development programmes

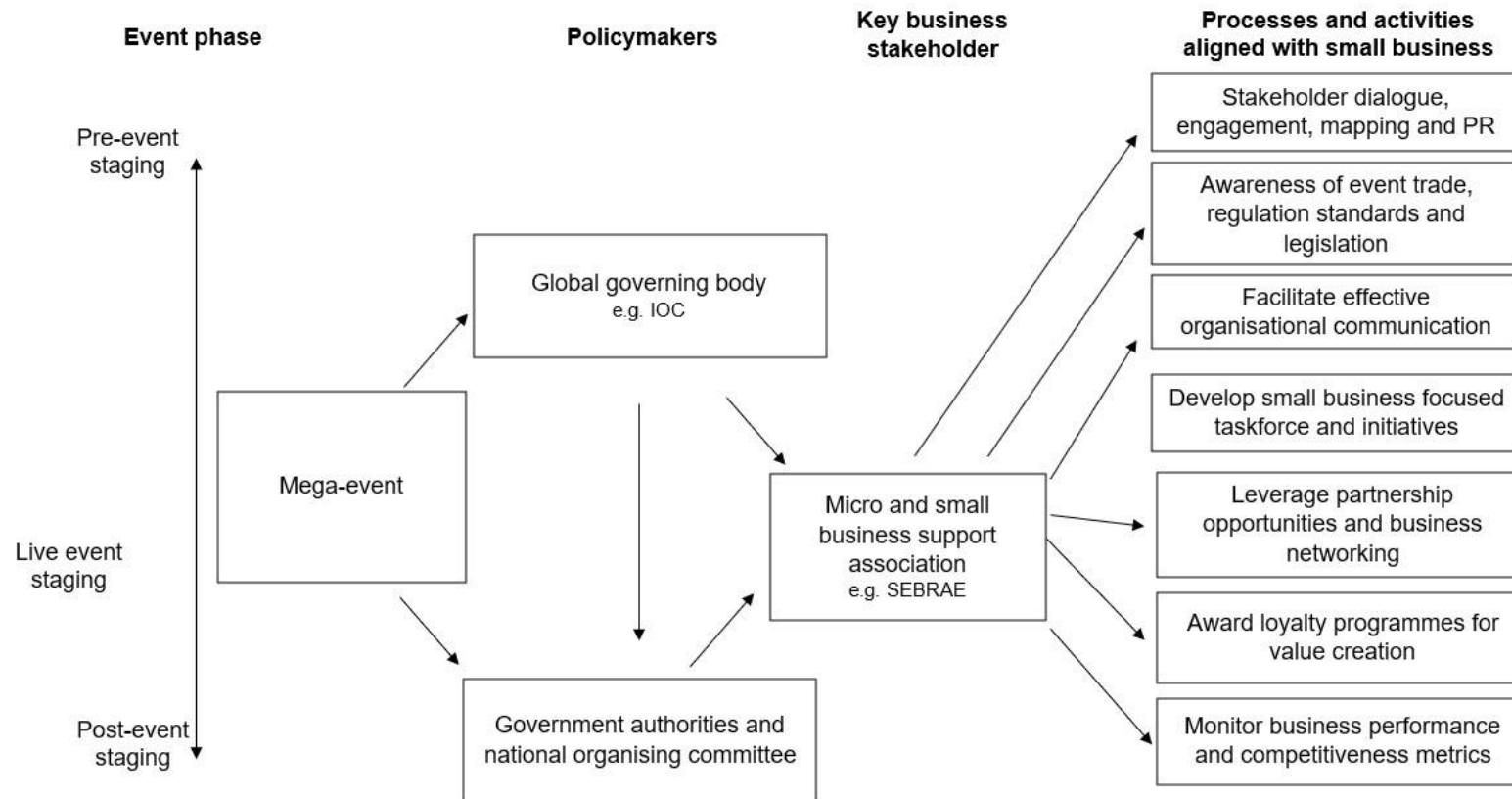
Reflecting on existing insights and evidence presented in this chapter it is now pertinent to establish some recommendations to better develop mechanisms for small business who are usually left behind as part of urban regeneration projects, as well as considering what practical measures can be introduced at the local and global organising levels for host cities, local organising committees and global governing bodies. Table 15 and Figure 29 clearly outline a proposal for redistributing benefits back to the hands of micro and small businesses, so they consequently spread monetary flows around the local and regional economies. During each of the event phases, the Mega Event Business Inclusion (MEBI) model highlights the role of key global and local policy actors, in addition to how key business stakeholders (e.g. SEBRAE) can facilitate and align their activities and processes to harness small business outputs. This business inclusion model encompasses a wider range of stakeholders including corporate interests and needs (Freeman, 1984; Wood, 1991). At the pre-event phase, it is necessary for local authority, city or state to establish a planning council and through the adoption of influential business leaders align urban development plans to meet the requirements of local businesses. In addition to setting up a series of frequent regional training sessions on trading standards, legislation and highlighting supply and tender opportunities associated with preparing to host a mega sporting event. During the delivery phase of the mega sporting event trading meetings and event should be created at the hosting venues as well as Olympic houses and national pre-training camps. Plans will need to be reconfigured to manage the inclusion and access of micro and small businesses alongside international sponsors in urban public spaces. Once we reach the handover and legacy phase there needs to be continued advice on leveraging post-event commercial opportunities and aligning local connections and best practice sharing forums with the next hosting region.

Table 15: Leveraging micro and small business mega sporting event outputs: A manifesto proposition (adapted from Kirby, Duignan and McGillivray, 2018)

Event phase	Process for micro and small business integration
Planning	<p>Establish a MSB event planning council, network/association and/or local business leader to align development plans to the needs of business and develop local supply chains</p> <p>Create MSB workshops and training on the event trading standards which can be delivered by partner networks or regional groups</p> <p>Maintain a transparent supply and tender database to create access</p>
Delivery	<p>Create meetings at key venues to trade with international ambassadors</p> <p>Forming business events, forums and exhibition programmes with Olympic houses or pre-event training camps</p> <p>Management of local MSB access to urban public spaces</p>
Handover and legacy	<p>Continued advice workshops on post-event commercial opportunities</p> <p>Establishing a MSB sharing forum with future hosts</p>

	Aligning networks with regional event leveraging such as tourism and trading opportunities
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Figure 29: Mega Event Business Inclusion Model (adapted from Chalip, 2004; Freeman, 1984; Kirby, Duignan and McGillivray, 2018; Wood, 1991)



4.12 Summarising the findings and discussions

To conclude this chapter, these findings and discussion have grappled with a number of areas, including Porto Maravilha's development-related legacy aspirations and outcomes, development structures associated with infrastructure planning, transportation and regeneration processes, urban space reconfigurations, commercial trade and corruption concerns associated with the urban development project, as well as business partnership opportunities and challenges. The final part of the chapter resulted in a practical model devised on leveraging small business opportunities from urban development programmes. There is an evolving narrative surrounding the urban politics of event-led development attached to mega sporting event planning (Lauermann, 2016b). Cities perceive these events as viable mechanisms to realign local entrepreneurship and urban development all in one swift move. Politicians and other business interest groups use these lavish investments and infrastructure modernisations programmes as a signal for engines of growth (Müller and Pickles, 2015). Without this event this financing could not seep into envisaged infrastructure plans. This narrative of uber modernisations to continue progressing at a similar rate of other parts of the world is dependent on politicians scripting that they need construction to further improve local resources (Müller and Pickles, 2015). In fact, this development would have taken shape eventually, but just not in the immediate future of the city. Plans were ramped to meet the deadline around hosting such an event. The pursuit of urban development can lead to an erosion of the public in the planning processes, and events act as instruments in the production and transformation of urban space (Oliver, 2017). The city's involvement in the planning and preparation of mega sporting can be stunted through the undemocratic and the cajoling of a bid package together by a bunch of urban elites who somehow think they are immune to comebacks from its citizens. The private use of public funds is proffered up as a means to shore up the investment capital required to facilitate urban regeneration (Oliver, 2017). This is particularly the case for the Porto Maravilha and although not being a central proposition to the initial bid, it was plucked up to apply through a pervasive method and one

in which can be as mastermind tactic in identifying additional streams of cash which can later be extorted in the process of meeting the demands and conditions to host the mega sporting event.

Chapter 5: Conclusions and recommendations

5.1 Introduction to the conclusions and recommendations

In the following chapter, the overall conclusions and a number of recommendations will be stated with regards to the thesis. Firstly, the researcher will recap and explain how the research objectives of this study have been argued and claimed against a set of key theoretical, methodological and practical contributions. The use of structured frameworks such as Attride-Stirling's (2001) approach forged a series of network structures (see Figure 12). This was designed using key findings and linkages between coded data. Following on from this, the researcher will discuss the study's implications for policy and practice and what this research poses in relation to future research directions for upcoming mega sporting events, coupled with how this thesis can inform policymakers, public authorities and local organising committees in better seeking to engage key stakeholders, such as micro and small business. This then leads into expressing how the researcher's thesis has served to have an impact externally to completing this project. For example, the role of presenting work and findings to subject-related academic and policy networks. Limitations of the research study are outlined and explained in order to acknowledge potential frailties of undertaking a study positioned in this developing nation context. In the closing section a final reflection note is offered on the researcher's experience and as well as projecting future policy shifts with regards to preparing for upcoming mega sporting events.

Table 16: Research objectives recap

Research objectives	
Research objective 1	Examine the medium-term effects of hosting the Rio 2016 Olympic Games on micro and small business in Porto Maravilha
Research objective 2	Analyse how and why local space was transformed for micro and small business in response to Games-related infrastructure regeneration
Research objective 3	Identify ways to better re-distribute and leverage commercial opportunities for marginalised small business communities in the context of this urban development project

5.2 Thesis contributions to knowledge

In Table 17, the researcher has provided a summary of the key contributions to knowledge relating this back to the respective sections of the thesis and outlining the theoretical, methodological or practical areas the researcher contributed to across the thesis. These contributions to knowledge will now be discussed in greater detail.

Table 17: Thesis contributions to knowledge

Contribution to knowledge	Section	Description
Theoretical	See literature review and findings chapters	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Urban infrastructure zoning and spaces • Small business communities • Medium-term mega sporting event legacies • Commercial impacts • Business competitiveness • Post-event space transformations
Methodological	See methodology chapter	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Walking techniques • Use of digital and social media platforms
Practical	See findings and discussions chapter	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Urban infrastructure development • Micro and small business impacts • Event leveraging: A host city roadmap and manifesto proposition for leveraging micro and small business outputs

Building on the recent work of Kirby, Duignan and McGillivray's (2018) theoretical propositions and other investigations which have sought to shed light on immediate challenges including the lack of trading opportunities and the seeping business uncertainties facing specifically small businesses (e.g. Duignan and Pappalepore, 2019; Duignan, Pappalepore and Everett, 2019; Pappalepore and Duignan, 2016). As well to a lesser extent the vulnerability of local businesses across major sporting events (e.g. Carlini, Coghlan, Thomson and O'Neil, 2020). The arrival of the Rio 2016 Olympic Games and associated Porto Maravilha development was proffered up to be a major driver of commercial activity, expected to reverse the poor reputation of this area and shine a spotlight on the degraded industrial past of the port which still continues to serve the interests of the rich and powerful corporates. Perceptions and experiences of small firms have been tracked to provide deeper insights to support the nascent literature and empirical datasets on host community business impacts. Tourism, retail and local entrepreneurship impacts have been particularly distressing and deficient for those traders occupying central port spaces. They have been unable to convene and turnaround this historical setting into a thriving community of trading opportunities for local businesses. Instead, temporary animations at this location during the Games have ripened public spaces for subsequent commercial takeovers (Smith and McGillivray, 2020). Public space is eroded and turned into sanitised and highly spectacular sites in this context through unintended and slapdash urban regeneration tactics (Jacques, 2013; Kennelly and Watt, 2011). In the end, due to the lack of resources local communities became stilted and unable resist the encroaching commercialised landslide spoiling public spaces e.g. parks (Smith, 2019). Complexities relating to the use of CEPACs have placed substantial demands on micro and small businesses including their struggle to access resources, capital and even comprehend how these certificates are traded to investors (Mosciaro, Pereira and Aalbers, 2021: PACS, 2017). In addition to how investor manipulations have affected people and changed the urban demographics of the area. Without the internal skills or the ability to network efficiently or even understand the regulatory constraints they cannot seek to enhance their business performance (Kitching,

Hart and Wilson, 2015). This lends this area to more frequent inequalities for micro and small enterprises with many local entrepreneurs being unable to leverage benefits (Duignan and McGillivray, 2019; Stevenson, 2016). On this note, immediate or longer-term leveraging programmes were not actively planned or pursued to the knowledge of the researcher in the region to facilitate business benefits such as boosting visitation levels for an extended period (Chalip and Leyns, 2002; Duignan and Pappalepore, 2021; Sant, Misener and Mason, 2019). Hayduk (2019) purports that the strategy of leveraging mega sporting events to stimulate entrepreneurialism is unrealistic as there is no upside for a developing nation like Brazil with entrepreneurial levels not being affected, coupled with perceived difficulties in attracting investment and re-engaging tourism levels. Evidence presented throughout demonstrates how urban space is fraught with contests giving rise to widespread exclusions distorted by the projects objectives and outcomes whereby key locations are appropriated, controlled and supersede the interests of local people in favour of the ambitions of international corporations (Kirby and Duignan, 2020; Klauser, 2011; Stevens and Dovey, 2004).

As noted at the time by Geeraert and Gauthier (2017) the 2020 IOC Agenda is still up in the air as to whether it will deliver the reforms needed to control Games organiser's expenditure and unnecessary infrastructure development. Increasingly, what we need now is certainty that the changes will actually be reflected in the behaviour and direction of future host cities, specifically in curtailing disorganised planning over the odds and the exchange of urban development project masterplans which service very few and go on to become a burden for host cities. Stricter guidance and improved transparency in the funding streams and activities will actually provide host populations with some sense of how such works could affect their economies. The point being made is that these urban projects are continually wrapped up in layers unregulated legislation and the statement of intent by the urban elites is to dish out inscrutable urban policy which causes as much chaos as possible and strip vulnerable populations of their future, leaving them devoid them of any wholesale community

benefits. This investigation highlights the polarity of the IOC and host cities contractual clauses to deliver these events. Chiefly, data has shown that in connection with preparing to host the Games indirect costs like road, rail and other urban infrastructure incurred are not directly considered to be related to staging of these events but known formally as non-Olympic Games indirect costs (Flyvbjerg, Budzier and Lunn, 2021). These obligations to build new infrastructure and not being classed as imperative to the event itself provides the space for economies to dream up farfetched urban interventions that do not go on to benefit the citizens, who have effectually given their permission for this event to be brought to their city through the drawn out candidature process. Where is the incentive for host cities to construct long lasting sustainable urban developments? So the propositions and various recommendations of this thesis are to outline what urban planning mechanisms need to shift in this context.

As already noted, the thesis has three main objectives which are stated in the earlier part of this chapter. Linked to these research aims is that the hosting and implementation of the Olympic Games is such a mammoth intervention of an urban development project which seeks to represent a significant opportunity for the local authority to reimagine the future of the port. On the contrary, detailed and empirical analysis sought to demonstrate the complexities, vulnerabilities and challenges propagated to restrain small business activity and also stimulate urban and dynamic changes to the central post-hosting spaces. The perceptions and experiences of small firms left a lot to be desired in terms of positive, tangible legacies gained for many of the participants in the thesis. There are small amounts of literature that detail the sort of manifestations for small business communities and recognise the efforts needed to revitalise such urban spaces (e.g. Smith, 2019). However, this thesis focused on elucidating the complex picture of short and medium-term effects which are often pronounced but seem to be rarely activated 'for the many' through direct and distinguishable increases in commercial, trade and tourism levels and revenue. Alongside this the researcher wished to strengthen current analysis and knowledge on an array of

themes including event impacts, small firm legacies (these two often go hand-in-hand but possess very distinctive characteristics, which will be discussed shortly), local trading conditions and the absence of such possibilities e.g. urban competitiveness and tourism experiences.

As a consequence of this neoliberal urban development civic space has been seized upon, but not to leverage the uniqueness of small businesses, instead, to plough through change and act as a hive for touristic spaces of consumption. On that note this context shares similarities with a range of studies which argue that post-event spaces are 'brandscaped' and 'commercialised' (Osborn and Smith, 2016). Project planning has enabled the local authorities to permit extraordinary conditions to throttle the heartbeat and disturb the ability of micro and small businesses to continue to operate effectively without undue legislation. Medium-term analysis simply does not exist under the constraints of legacy projects which are only funded and finish 3-5 years following the event. In the case of Rio 2016, maintenance and financial support for facilities and infrastructure dried up as a result of economic recessions, and the final legacy report went under the radar when it was produced in 2018 (see Rio 2016, 2018a). As the thesis emphasises legacy in the cycle of events should be treated under the tenets of 15 years plus to truly transform areas for the public good of society. A number of authors have highlighted the difficulty in enacting the complexities of legacy (e.g. Horne, 2010; Preuss, 2007), with Horne (2007) asserting it is one of the 'known unknowns' of hosting mega sporting events. Talbot (2021) postulates that the academic and policy fraternity needs to better understand the dominant frames and discourses surrounding legacy to reform the current model of mega sporting event hosting, which obscures the critical analysis of the misunderstood legacy concept. Tomlinson (2014) raises an insightful rumination when considering how to best optimise the outputs and legacies from hosting the Games. He states, 'how can you leverage an elusive, ephemeral or amorphous force?' (2014: 150). Although, planned well in advance of hosting the temporary outlook of these events is a characterless juggernaut that wreaks havoc on a

city's development then moves on to its next victim. The fundamental ideas of how to envisage a stable and mutually beneficial legacy for its citizens are not well understood and the short-termism goals of the government and organising committees building plans override all other needs such as those of local business. Across the board the nurturing of such legacies failed to deliver on the central ambitions for host cities particularly in the longer-term, and this is viewed to leave behind carnage in the process of preparing for these colossal projects. Many commentators (e.g. Hiller, 1998; Pappalepore and Duignan, 2016; Preuss, 2015) emphasise a more integrative approach as opposed to largely piecemeal solutions sought to encapsulate the real legacies within the confines of not only the event but also the developments of the host city. Kirby and Crabb (2019) argue that visualising the importance of pre-event evaluation can help to inform how legacy returns are negotiated through for the hosting region. One thorny problem that you have here is the system is broken and it's pulled down by a global merry go round show of the best in-class flog-it sales firms overtly spouting and promising hard mass scale development that is bound to transform the urban environment. However, they are employed to present gargantuan and unrealistic claims and are not necessarily at the mercy of the people and how events like this will impact them as the end users (e.g. ARUP, 2017; EY Japan, 2020; KPMG, 2021; Mott MacDonald, 2018). As such consultancy firms tend to propagate the extensive opportunities of developing mega sporting event infrastructure, including the role of infrastructure in accelerating economic development, coupled with how cities and regions can cultivate public-private partnerships and grow access to capital (PwC, 2011). What is apparent here is that there is good practice emerging from major sporting events players especially those prior Games which have sought on the face of it to at least engage with local and small business traders and for Games-specific contracts (Kirby, Duignan and McGillivray, 2018).

5.3 Future research directions

Future research using exploratory and empirical case studies should seek to reverse some of the negative outcomes more commonly associated with these event-related regeneration projects. For this reason, this thesis could be used as a basis to improve or at least recognise how local authorities can fully leverage the opportunities of showcasing local business entrepreneurship, leveraging small business gains and changes in urban spatial planning following large chain event impacts (see Table 18).

Table 18: Future directions of mega sporting events summary

Future research theme	Research area and focus
Small business leveraging	Establishing how small businesses can benefit from driving social and economic gains is in its infancy
Urban space branding and visitor experiences	Reinterpreting the production and renewal of urban host city spaces
Commercialisation of urban public spaces	Staging events in public spaces (e.g. Smith, 2018; Smith and McGillivray, 2020)
Urban space visitor interactions	Local and visitor shape of urban/rural spaces (e.g. McGillivray, Duignan and Mielke, 2020)
Liminal mega sporting event spaces	Explorations into the how mega sporting event spaces can be planned to support local entrepreneurial consumption and flows around spaces

5.4 Researcher external engagement at events and networks

Over the course of the PhD the researcher has presented conceptual developments and practical findings over a dozen times. This includes attending a range of national and international business, enterprise, events, sports management and tourism themed conferences and workshops to broaden engagement and amplify this research (see Figure 30). The researcher has delivered presentations and talks at wide ranging conferences, symposiums and workshops. Associations and projects include the Association for Events Management Education (AEME), CARNiVAL's mega events legacy project, the Institute for Small Business and Entrepreneurship, Tourism Research Network (TouRNet) and The Football Collective. These presentations have been focused on topics covering mega sporting event legacies, urban entrepreneurship, business competitiveness, small business event impacts and infrastructure development. Furthermore, the researcher has joined relevant associations and networks including, the European Association for Sport Management (EASM), Critical Event Studies network and Leisure Studies Association.

Combined with this, the use of digital technologies (e.g. social media interactions) has stimulated the debate and enabled the researcher to share empirical findings, communicate with other researchers in the events field and disseminate vital information relating to key evidence of this research. Developing social media networks provided a vehicle to demonstrate the researchers' digital media aptitude to engage productively with other people and networks (See digital media engagement, Table 11).

Figure 30: Relevant conference and workshop talks

AEME Conference 2017 at Cardiff Metropolitan University
Future Directions in Events Research
Advancing sport mega-event research - five critical themes
Seth Kirby - Anglia Ruskin University

CARNIVAL Conference Programme 2017
Fostering small business socio-economic sustainability and legacies in the context of mega-events: A 'Stakeholder Theory' approach
Seth I. Kirby (Anglia Ruskin University, UK)



Regeneration, Enterprise, Sport and Tourism (REST-2)
LJMU
Seth I. Kirby
 Urban Entrepreneurism and Business Competitiveness: The State of Play for Rio de Janeiro
 Post-Games

2018 EASM PhD Student Seminar Malmö

 **Assessing small business impacts at Rio 2016: the case of Porto Maravilha**

 **EASM**

20th European Association for Sport Management (EASM) Conference
 PhD Student Seminar

THE INC 2018
 International Conference: "Tourism Hospitality & Events in a Changing World"
 26 – 28 June 2018
Seth I. Kirby

Meeting small business demands in mega-events: A reappraisal of CSR and entrepreneurial competitiveness

 **TouRNet**
 Tourism Research Network
Empowering the next generation of tourism scholars

4th Tourism Research Network PhD/ECR Symposium 2019
Succeeding with events
 Small business entrepreneurship and Rio 2016: post-Games outcomes for Porto Maravilha
Seth I. Kirby, Anglia Ruskin University, UK

27th EASM European Sport Management Conference, Seville 3-6 September 2019,
 Hotel Meliá Sevilla

Room: Prado
Sport Events and Tourism Chair: Emily Hayday
Who, When, And Why Needs Inflated Economic Impact Studies? Discontinue Analysis Of An Inflated Economic Impact Study Of A Local Sport Event (Khal, Vlasovsk)
Front Event Legacy Planning To Legacy Management (Scott, Rick)
Mega Sport Events, Infrastructure Development And Physical Legacies: The Case Of Brazil 2014 And Rio 2016 (S Kirby, Craib)
Leveraging Strategies For Sustainable Non-Mega Sporting Events: A Mixed-Method Approach (Ochoa, Yamaguchi)

Football Events & Politics Track
 (Chair: Paul Kitchen)
Boardroom

The Global Football Tourism League: Analysing the football tourism phenomenon
 (Felipe Tobar)

Mega-sporting events and sport for development legacies: the case of Brazil 2014
 (Seth Kirby)

Thursday **28th** November

 **FOOTBALL COLLECTIVE**
Seville 2019

5.5 Limitations of the thesis

As this thesis had a single case study focus it is bounded by time and area the research data was collected (Yin, 2018). The research was completed 2 years following the mega sporting event so there may have been other instrumental factors affecting key change for these communities which is not entirely associated with this mega sporting event. For example, local authority and state level decisions on urban development plans for the city, region and beyond. Other case studies from locations across the city including favela communities in Rio de Janeiro may delineate major differences in how similar urban developments have affected local communities. We are likely to see future event-related urban projects for both the Olympic Games and FIFA Football World Cup like this go under scrutiny and be challenged by local citizens. Particularly those associated with other developing nations who seek to enhance either their basic infrastructure, or who lack the stock of facilities necessary to meet the demands of hosting major sporting event.

The focus on a specific stakeholder group, micro and small businesses, may not provide the complete perspective from other marginalised and 'elite' communities (Oliver, 2010). Some of which may not agree with the perceptions and experiences demonstrated throughout this thesis. As mega sporting event disruptions may have actually improved the lives of some communities depending on where they are located or how they are integrated into the city. The thesis is also constrained by the researchers understanding of another language. As the researcher is not fluent in Portuguese and relied on a gatekeeper being available to translate some interviews for those participants who were fluent in English. This has implications for how views may be misinterpreted when translating from one language to another. The researcher attempted to mitigate this as much as possible by discussing and clarifying key parts of conversations and comparing the recordings against full interview transcripts.

On reflection, it is important to recognise and assess where I am positioned and situated in the research context. An outsider, who does not speak the language fluently and is aware that it may be viewed as a person from a so called 'richer nation' carrying out research into the lives of diverse cultural, excluded communities. Thus, conforming to the stereotypical perception and social norm of urban researchers. Additionally, the researcher brought to the research process a number of distinct and under the surface preconceptions relating to specific attitudes and beliefs which may have affected the researchers judgment (Solbue, 2011). Prior to undertaking a doctoral degree the researcher's background is considered to fall within a richer Western nation upbringing and his work experience background afforded the researcher various luxuries such as being able to attend school and university. In past work related roles the researcher had worked for non-profits, such as being involved in delivering sustainability projects for local community groups and other educational establishments. Participants interviewed for this project may have viewed the researcher as part of the network of 'corporate elites' and who is not really interested in hearing the true thoughts of individuals and their experiences, as these comments could be used against them (Welch, Marchan-Piekkari, Penttinen and Tahvanainen, 2002). On another level, it could be argued that the researcher may well side with participants who possess negative connotations towards the role of these urban projects due to being exposed to exploitation of local green spaces in past roles in the UK. As such, the researcher found it useful to convey personal experiences relating to some of the themes with the interviewees during the interviews. But the researcher recognises that this raises the possibility of the researcher providing biased responses and agreeing with the perspectives of certain participants. Perhaps, this could have affected how participants viewed this and needs to be reflected as a drawback for data collection. However, to this end, I have taken so much more away from this research project to try and instil a sense of appreciation to vastly divergent contexts and how I go about making a positive change in the world through understanding people, interactions and their experiences of urban change.

5.6 Final research note: charting the route ahead for mega sporting events

In 2020, the world was faced with a global battle to fight a new wave of disease and respond in an internationally joined-up way to alleviate the worst effects of a health crisis. On a city and national scale, both Brazil and Rio de Janeiro, underwent tremendous economic and social consequences as a result of the global pandemic, and their responses to COVID-19 has been criticised (Phillips, 2021). In relation to the hosting of mega sporting events, the planning and safe resumption of events due to COVID-19 saw events and urban development activities temporarily disabled, stalled and placed on hold due to the evolving, unparalleled and aberrant pandemic faced by organisations and communities (Ludvigsen and Hayton, 2020). So instead the aftermath of this global crisis is likely to cause far reaching consequences beyond the scope of this thesis assessment in Porto Maravilha. However, the impact and complexities of this Games-related development on small business communities is still critical to be examined especially in relation to future host cities as well as when considering the cause and effect of these project aims in the medium term-development of the city.

This thesis began as an investigation into the wider experiences and impacts of a number of stakeholders associated with the hosting of mega sporting events. The thesis developed into an investigation illustrating how small businesses have been shut out of the key development plans and areas at the expense of political elites who were able to manoeuvre systematic event-led development to further their urban planning agenda. In doing so, this thesis highlighted what's referred to as 'incentivised infrastructure goals' to demarcate space for specific groups of stakeholders (Easterling, 2014). The Porto Maravilha project enabled those who hold the power to retain their power, particularly over decision-making around urban plans. The status quo won over in the right to plan and exclude local community access to those spaces.

The case study approach also drew on a number of novel methodological approaches such as walking techniques combined with reflection vlogs which sought to understand the underlying consequences for those citizens, specifically small businesses, who are often besieged and left behind when it comes to their role in a mega sporting event. This thesis contributes to wide ranging literature focusing on the legacies of mega sporting events, event leveraging mechanisms and the role of creating liminal spaces in urban development zones (Easterling, 2014). The broader opportunities and challenges for engaging with stakeholder groups connected to these larger urban projects was explored in-depth to provide empirical data on the ground into how outcomes can or ought to be stimulated in these inherently tactical and confrontational spaces. At a practical level a roadmap was positioned to further advance the proposition of how key stakeholders like micro and small businesses can be better imagined and integrated into the urban planning aims of a sporting mega event.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Ethical approval form



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Chelmsford
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Date 20.10.17

Dear Student

Principal Investigator: Seth Kirby
FREP number: 021017

Project Title: Investigating the short term business impacts: the case of Rio 2016

I am pleased to inform you that your ethics application has been approved by the Faculty Research Ethics Panel (FREP) under the terms of Anglia Ruskin University's Research Ethics Policy (Dated 8 September 2016, Version 1.7).

Ethical approval is given for a period of 1 year for undergraduates/masters students, or 3 years for doctorate students and staff from date of this letter. If your research

Appendix 2: Risk assessment form

Anglia Ruskin University Higher Education Corporation
Risk Management

Appendix 2 – Risk Assessment Form (AR1)

Risk Assessment form (RA1)

Subject of assessment (May be an activity, hazard or relate to an individual) If chemical and / or biological hazards exist then a COSHH form must be completed http://my.anglia.ac.uk/sites/risk/default.aspx A research study 'Investigating the short term business impacts: the case of Rio 2016'. Dates: September 2017-March 2018. Location of research: Field research semi-structured interviews to be undertaken in Rio de Janeiro (January 2018).	RA conducted by.	Date. 20 July 2017	RA ref. no. RIORESEARC H/JUL/17
List the risk/s involved or describe the hazard <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Access to Brazil and the city of Rio de Janeiro (study location) as a researcher. 2. Air travel to Rio de Janeiro. 3. Travel from Rio de Janeiro International Airport to hotel accommodation. 4. There could be potential hazards connected to travelling across Rio. For instance relating to road traffic delays/accidents, public transport/walking hazards, health and safety risks, and other unforeseeable eventualities that may arise during the researchers stay; 5. The welfare of the participants/researcher before, during and after the interviews has taken place. Interviews will occur face-to-face at the organisation's registered office or headquarters. Questions asked to participants may cause emotional harm or stress. 6. Risk of verbal/physical abuse to the researcher. 7. Risk of the participants/interviewer feeling unwell in case of diseases and illness, such as food poisoning, stress etc. 			
List the current control measures in place. Please check the RM website for help and advice available at: http://my.anglia.ac.uk/sites/risk/default.aspx <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The Brazilian Consulate in London has been contacted and they have confirmed that permission is not required prior to conducting research in Brazil. The requirements for any traveller must ensure that they have sufficient funds for the duration of their stay and carry identification and bank statements to prove this if questioned by the authorities. 2. Interview questions will not intentionally cause emotional harm or distress, however the researcher is aware of the potential that this may occur. A Participant Information Sheet and consent form will be completed by participants prior to the interview being held. This will ensure that the participants are fully aware of the procedure and that they can request to withdraw at any stage if they so wish. Participants will be briefed and debriefed in order to prevent any physical, psychological or emotional harm. When visiting each site the researcher will seek to 			