

The 2022 Winter Olympics:
Sharing the perceptions of
Auckland's Chinese Diaspora

Researcher: Zerui Chen

Primary supervisor: Dr Richard Wright

Secondary Supervisor: Dr Kath Godber

Faculty of Health and Environmental Sciences

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Sport Science, Auckland University of Technology, 2019.

Acknowledgement

I would like to express my special thanks to my primary supervisor, Dr Richard Wright, and second supervisor, Dr Kath Godber, for their professional advice, help and encouragement since I started to write this research.

I would also like to thank my family for their financial support during the period of writing this research.

I am grateful to the research participants for their time and interest in this research.

I would like to thank Snowplanet for allowing me to approach participants on their site.

Finally, I would like to thank the authors on the reference list who have provided me with inspiration and direction.

Abstract

In 2015, Beijing (China) became the first city to win the rights to host both the Summer and Winter Olympic Games. This research was designed with the intention of discovering the extent to which Auckland's Chinese diaspora believe that hosting the 2022 Winter Olympic Games will leave a positive or negative legacy for those living in Beijing, China. This research starts with a literature review that explores the existing sport event management research from a triple bottom line perspective (economic, social and environmental). From there, the researcher focused specifically on three types of legacies (economic, socio-cultural, environmental). A qualitative research approach provides the framework for this study. A range of established research methods was used to secure the recruitment of seven participants: four recent Chinese migrants (CM) and three New Zealanders of Chinese origin (NC). Semi-structured interviews were used to gather a valuable data set that was subsequently interpreted using thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Eleven positive and eight negative perceptions emerged from the data analysis process, each of which was linked to one of the following legacy-related themes: socio-cultural, economic, reputation, environment, and infrastructure. These themes were compared with the current empirical research literature. From the integration of research findings and literature, some limitations and recommendations were generated. In sum, the majority of the participants placed the socio-cultural impacts as being the most important, followed by economic and reputational impacts. The potential infrastructure and environmental legacies were of less importance. The individual interviews revealed a collective belief that the opportunity for social and cultural exchanges, the facilitation of national cohesion/nationalism (national pride) and an increased opportunity to participate in local sports were all positive impacts of Beijing hosting the Winter Olympic Games in 2022. Concerns about the safety of locals, an abuse/loss of human rights and the disruption to everyday life were raised as potential negative consequences of hosting the event. According to the research findings, further research is required and recommended to investigate the potential impact and legacy of the 2022 Winter Olympic Games. For example, more research is needed to investigate the reputational legacy of these Games from a positive and negative viewpoint. Additional research to investigate the environmental and Infrastructural (physical) legacies would also be beneficial (as supported by seven of the research participants). This research offers a valuable starting point for further research and debate about the perceptions of local diaspora regarding sporting mega-events.

Table of Contents

Table of Contents	4
Attestation of Authorship	7
Chapter One	8
1.1 Introduction	8
1.2. Defining sports mega-events	9
1.2.1. Introducing the Olympic Games	9
1.2.2. Beijing 2008 and the 2022 Olympic Games Bid	10
1.4 Rationale, Aim and Objectives	11
1.3.1 Research question.....	12
1.3.2 Research objectives	12
1.4 Structure of the thesis	12
Chapter Two: Literature review	13
2.1 introduction	13
2.2 Sustainable sports event management	13
2.2.1 An economic perspective (profit)	14
2.2.2. An environmental perspective (Planet)	16
2.2.3 A social perspective (People)	19
2.3 Sports event legacies	23
2.3.1. Economic.....	23
2.3.2. Socio-cultural	30
2.3.3. Environmental.....	38
2.4. Chapter Summary	44
Chapter Three - Methodology	45
3.1 Introduction	45
3.2. Research paradigm	45
3.2.1 Interpretive paradigm	46
3.3. Research Methodology	47
3.3.1. A qualitative approach	48
3.4 Quality Control	48
3.4.1 Credibility	50
3.4.2. Dependability	50
3.4.3. Confirmability.....	50
3.4.4. Transferability	51
3.4.5. Triangulation	51
3.4.6. Peer debriefing.....	52

3.4.7. Member checking	52
3.4.8. Thick description	53
3.5. Ethical considerations	54
3.5.1 Confidentiality	55
3.5.2 Minimisation of risk	55
3.6. Research methods I: Data Collection	55
3.6.1. Semi-structured interview	57
3.7. Research methods II: Data Analysis	58
3.7.1. The six steps of thematic analysis	60
3.7.2. The application of the six steps.....	61
Table 1 Code construction and theme identification	62
3.8. Chapter summary.....	63
Chapter Four- Research findings and discussion	64
4.1. Introduction	64
4.2. Participant profiles.....	64
4.2.1. The profile of Chinese migrants.....	64
4.2.2. The profile of New Zealanders of Chinese origin.....	65
4.3. The perceived importance to host destination.....	66
Table 2 The Themes	66
Table 3 Perceived legacy for Beijing host residents.....	67
4.4. Perceived socio-cultural legacy (Theme 1)	68
4.5. Perceived economic legacy (Theme 2)	74
4.6. Perceived reputation legacy (Theme 3)	77
4.7. Infrastructure legacy (Theme 4).....	82
4.8. Environmental legacy (Theme 5)	85
4.9. Chapter summary.....	86
Chapter Five - Conclusion	88
5.1. Introduction	88
5.2 Recommendations	91
5.3 Limitations.....	91
References	93
Appendices.....	109
Appendix A.....	109
Appendix B	113
Appendix C	114
Appendix D.....	115
Appendix E	119

List of tables

Table 1

Code construction and theme identification p.63

Table 2

The themes p.68

Table 3

Perceived legacy for Beijing host residents p.69

Attestation of Authorship

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person (except where explicitly defined in the acknowledgements), nor material which to a substantial extent has been submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution of higher learning.

Zerui Chen

Date: 12nd March 2020.

Chapter One

1.1 Introduction

According to Getz (2008), there are different types of sporting events. Major and sports mega-events have captured the attention of national governments and the international media (Getz, 2008; Masterman, 2004; Muller, 2015; Preuss, 2007). Thousands of sports events are held every year around the world, ranging from local to large-scale charity events (London marathon), from world cups and world championships (Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA), International Cricket Council) through to the Summer and Winter Olympic Games. There are many reasons why cities and countries bid to host such sport events. These include, but are not limited to, the promise of noticeable positive economic returns (Parent & Séguin, 2007; Seraphin, Platania, Spencer & Modica, 2018), the potential for noteworthy socio-cultural or political rewards (Brown, Essex, Assaker & Smith, 2017; Grix & Houlihan, 2014; Koosha, Yoosefy & Khabiri, 2017) and/or the promotion of a new or improved global reputation (Lai, 2015).

This research is designed with the intention to investigate the extent to which Auckland's Chinese diaspora believe that hosting the 2022 Winter Olympic Games will leave a positive or negative legacy for those living in Beijing, China. In the field of sports event management, the term of legacy has been interpreted as a tangible or intangible, positive or negative impact on the host destination before, during and after the hosting of major sports events (Masterman, 2004; Preuss, 2007). Despite all the promises, there is also a plethora of proven costs and problematic uncertainties attached and the number of countries bidding to host sports mega-events has declined over the past decade (Muller, 2015). For example, only four expressions of interest were submitted for the 2024 Summer Games, with only two cities completing the full bidding process (Liu, Hautbois & Desbordes, 2017). The noticeable increase in mega-event bids being withdrawn during the bidding process, often due to a perceived lack of local community support, has captured the attention of mainstream media as well as several sports event management scholars (Hartman & Zandberg, 2015; McGillivray & Turner, 2017). This study investigates sports mega-events in order to understand how sport and event management influence perceptions about the 2022 Winter Olympics in China. This chapter provides an introduction to this study and offers further background information about the research context and a rationale for the aims and objectives created. An overview of the thesis structure is also provided.

1.2. Defining sports mega-events

Sports mega-events can be understood as sporting events that are hosted by different cities or countries under the authorisation of an international sports organisation (such as International Olympic Committee (IOC) and FIFA) in a fixed routine in the sporting calendar (Preuss, 2007). Such sports events generally require a large number of resources (financial investment, physical infrastructure and human capital), a long preparation period (5-10 years) and complex event management (Müller, 2015). The definition of mega-events not only indicates the large scale of the events but also points out the influences of these events on the world (Kirby, Duignan & McGillivray, 2018). Mega-events such as the Olympic Games (Summer and Winter) have been widely considered as an essential tool for host cities and nations to receive benefits (Gruneau, Horne & Borowy, 2016).

1.2.1. Introducing the Olympic Games

According to the history of the Olympic Games, most Olympics have undertaken an overrun budget on an average of 179% (Jones, Scott & Khaled, 2006). For instance, the negative legacy of the 2004 Athens Summer Olympics includes abandoned sports facilities and bulk environmental impacts. This mega-event cost roughly 3.4% of Greece's gross domestic product (GDP) in order to run the event smoothly (Dwyer, Jago & Forsyth, 2016). Ironically, the Olympic Games are widely regarded as having originated from Greece (Ratkowski & Ratkowska, 2018). The ancient Games were staged in Olympia (Greece), from 776 BC through 393 AD but the first modern Olympics were not hosted in Athens (Greece) until 1896. The ancient Olympic Games were considered as an essential part of a local festival (Ratkowski & Ratkowska, 2018). Widespread public interest in winter sports during the early 20th century became the catalyst to the decision to include winter sports in the Olympic Games (Zhang & Zhai, 2019). The Winter Olympics were not included in the Games however until 1924 (Essex & Chalkley, 2004).

According to Essex and Chalkley (2004), globally, the Winter Olympics is the largest winter games with a variety of winter sports, implemented every four years. The same as the Summer Olympics, the rights to host the Winter Olympics are decided by a vote of IOC members. The athletes who are involved in the Winter Games are approximately five times less than the athletes in the Summer Olympics and the television revenue of the Winter Games is half of the figure for the Summer Games (Essex & Chalkley, 2004). Furthermore, the Summer Games are predominately operated with a large population in the central areas of cities, whereas the Winter Games are normally conducted in the rural areas due to the constraint of the nature of

winter sports (Gold & Gold, 2017). As argued by Essex and Chalkley (2004), when compared to the Summer Games, fewer people are interested in the Winter Games, and the Winter Games tend to be operated in more constrained locations (Essex & Chalkley, 2004). However, both the Summer and Winter Olympics require a new or renovated infrastructure, the development of local transportation and accommodation as well as other facilities (Gold & Gold, 2011).

From 1924 to 1994, the Winter Olympics and the Summer Olympics were held together (Gold & Gold, 2017). The first Winter Olympics, held in Chamonix, France, despite being winter sports activities, were included in the Summer Olympics, for example, figure skating and ice hockey. After 1994, the Winter Olympics were held separately. In the first Winter Olympic Games, 16 countries were involved, with 258 athletes competing in 9 winter sports. This was recorded as a giant step for winter sports (Brittain, Bocarro, Byers & Swart, 2018). Beneke (2018) stated that countries who always participate in the Winter Olympics are primarily from a few continents of the world. Of the 23 Winter Olympics hosted in recent history, most were hosted in Europe (14 times) and North American (6 times). Prior to the 2018 Games, hosted in PyeongChang, South Korea, the Winter Olympics had only been hosted twice in Asia, with both these events being in Japan (1972 Sapporo and 1998 Nagano). A lack of bidding nations, however, recently resulted in the IOC having to break from their tradition of never hosting two consecutive games on the same continent. The 24th Winter Olympics Games scheduled for 2022 had two bidders, both of which were from cities in Asia; Beijing (China) and Almaty (the Republic of Kazakhstan). Beijing won the most votes at the 128th IOC Session in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia on July 31, 2015.

1.2.2. Beijing 2008 and the 2022 Olympic Games Bid

Originally, eight countries wanted to host the 2022 Winter Olympics. Lausanne and Munich subsequently abandoned their initial expressions of interest before the bidding stage, whilst Stockholm, Cracow, Lviv and Oslo all withdrew from the process once it was underway (Kozłowski, 2015; MacAloon, 2016). As noted above, the only two candidates left in the race were Beijing and Almaty (Livingstone, 2015), an outcome that in itself threatened the viability and validity of the various promises found within the IOC's Agenda 2020 document (MacAloon, 2016). In choosing Beijing, the city would become the first in the world to have hosted both the Summer and the Winter Olympic Games.

Since the beginning of the 20th Century, the Chinese have never stopped pursuing opportunities to be involved in or host Olympics (Luo & Huang, 2013). Beijing, the capital city of China with a population of over 21 million people, has submitted bidding documents for the Summer Olympics twice (Luo & Huang, 2013). The first failed bid was to host the 2000 Olympic Games. According to Gold and Gold (2011), the bid lost out to Sydney, Australia, due to the IOC's concerns around human rights issues in China. China's first successful bid was for the 2008 Summer Olympics in Beijing.

According to Brittain et al. (2018), the 2008 Olympic Games was operated smoothly and effectively. It was widely recognised as a high-standard modern model for subsequent mega-events. The benefits encountered from hosting the 2008 Summer Olympics Games have been documented in several studies over the past decade. For example, there have been articles that focused on the development of tourism (Singh & Zhou, 2016), the rise of reputation for globalisation (Park & Tae, 2016), new infrastructure and sports equipment (Gold & Gold, 2011), accommodation for locals (*Chinese Law and Government*, 2008), efficiency of transportation (Leeds, Mirikitani & Tang, 2009), reduction of air pollution (Zhou, et al., 2010), investment in urban regeneration (Li, 2013), social and cultural exchange (*Chinese Law and Government*, 2008) and the promotion of global image (Liu, Broom & Wilson, 2014).

1.4 Rationale, Aim and Objectives

This study was designed to investigate the extent to which Auckland's Chinese diaspora believe that hosting the 2022 Winter Olympic Games will leave a positive or negative legacy for those living in Beijing, China. While many researchers have investigated why cities and countries have started to bid for hosting mega-events, a lack of understanding exists as to why China would want to host the Winter Olympics so soon after hosting the Summer Games. To date, few studies have captured the opinions of Chinese migrants living elsewhere in the world (Chen & Tian, 2015). Purposive sampling strategies were used to recruit New Zealanders of Chinese origin/heritage and recent migrants from China, aged 18 and above. The study also targeted participants with an interest in Snowsport, either through active participation or through passive spectatorship. This decision was made based on a belief that they would be more likely to have some prior knowledge of, and an opinion on, the topic of the Winter Olympics being hosted in China.

1.3.1 Research question

To what extent does Auckland's Chinese diaspora believe that hosting the 2022 Winter Olympic Games will leave a positive or negative legacy for those living in Beijing, China?

1.3.2 Research objectives

To answer the above research question, the study was structured around the completion of the following five objectives.

1. To conduct an extensive literature review on sports event management and the types of mega-events legacies relative to the host population in order to provide a solid platform for the study.
2. To conduct semi-structured individual interviews with Auckland-based Chinese migrants and New Zealanders of Chinese origin who are actively involved in snow sport and sports activities, in order to ask them to share their thoughts on Beijing hosting the 2022 Winter Olympic Games.
3. To analyse the individual interviews that emerged from the interviews, using thematic analysis to code and identify recurring themes in order to discover the meaning of participants' perceptions in relation to the research question.
4. To compare and contrast the research findings that were derived from analysing and interpreting the interviews of participants with the literature on sports event legacy in order to find out the similarities and differences between research findings and previous studies.
5. To create a series of insightful recommendations that point out how further research can be conducted in a similar research direction.

1.4 Structure of the thesis

Chapter two is a literature review that consists of two primary sections, sports event management and sports event legacy. Chapter three (methodology) illustrates the research paradigm, methodology, quality control and ethical considerations. In the same chapter, this researcher also demonstrates how he collected and analysed data. Chapter four reveals the research findings, including the perceived legacies for the host destination, and discussion about these research findings. Lastly, in the conclusion chapter, key information about this research is summarised from previous sections to create a series of recommendations in relation to future research potential. Lastly, research limitations were listed.

Chapter Two: Literature review

2.1 introduction

According to Emery (2010), at the beginning of the 20th century, the complexity of event management attracted a large amount of attention from sports industry-related professionals. This chapter follows the concept of the triple bottom line (economic, environmental, social perspectives) of sports event management in order to demonstrate the theoretical framework and sustainable development in mega-events (Smith, 2009). After demonstrating sustainable sports event management from three perspectives, this chapter also synthesizes how sports events legacy has been investigated in previous literature with other perspectives, including economic, socio-cultural, environmental, infrastructure, image and identity as well as media legacy.

2.2 Sustainable sports event management

The definition of the sustainable environment has been widely recognised as meeting the environmental demands in the present without compromising the needs of following generations (Collins, Jones & Munday, 2009; Crabb, 2018; Marin-Aguilar & Vila-López, 2014; Deng & Poon, 2013). However, in 2017, Guizzardi, Mariani and Prayag argued a clear justification for the classification of sustainability. Sustainability can be classified into two categories; weak and strong sustainability (Guizzardi et al., 2017). The former focuses on managing existing resources for following generations, whereas strong sustainability concentrates on reducing the consumption of existing resources for the future generation.

Getz (2000) argued that there was a lack of empirical studies in the sports event management industry. Twenty years later and this is definitely no longer the case. A plethora of studies have, over the past two decades, revealed the benefits of hosting mega or major events for host countries. Furthermore, there has also been a small library worth of studies that question the findings of these studies, and which paint a very different picture regarding the impact and legacies of hosting major sports events (Muller, 2015). Much of the more critical sports event management literature argues that the proposed benefits of hosting mega-events will not naturally come to host destinations. Instead, positive legacies need to be well designed from the outset of the bidding process and built around the development of short-term and long-term sustainability (Minnaert, 2012).

2.2.1 An economic perspective (profit)

Mega-events serve the purpose to attract local and global investments and expenditure, which has been recognised by some as the prompts of city development opportunities. For example, Salvati and Zitti (2017) demonstrated that the development of a city lies in their ability to attract financial investment. Such investment and expenditure generate economic potential for the host cities pre, during and after the mega-events, such as the investment in operations, tourism, sports facilities, event venues and exporting products (Wang & Li, 2013). These potential economic potentials have arguably been a main reason that contributed to the decision of hosting a mega-event among host cities. Hosting a mega-event is not only used to gain economic benefits but also employed to promote host cities in order to enhance their global image and culture. Even though the terms of event economy do not reflect the overall mega-event spirit, these terms are often considered the standard of success of an event (Dwyer, Jago & Forsyth, 2016).

The economy of mega-events has been prioritised in the concept of sports event management (Getz, 2008). The search for economic generation has contributed to an upward trend for hosting major or sports mega-events since the beginning of the 21st century (Emery, 2010). As argued by Masterman (2004), economic generation plays a key role in relation to the processes of event management. Within the economic aspect of sports event management, economic impacts of mega-events have been well documented, such as economic assessment and forecasting (Reis & Sperandei, 2014). Interestingly, the concept of mega-events' economy may have originated from some negative legacy of early mega-events. For instance, the negative legacy of a mega-event, such as terrorism, international competition between countries, a lack of enough budget, overspending and the abandonment of sports facilities (Wilson, 2015). These problems are a barrier to countries wanting to host mega-events.

The expenditures and investments before, during and after mega-events have been classified into direct and indirect economic impacts (Wang & Li, 2013). There are five direct financial effects: costs of operation, investments in tourism, expenditure for new and refurbished infrastructure, sports venues, and investments from outside the host country. Indirect effects have not been clearly identified, but can be related to the intangible legacy of mega-events, such as development of employment opportunities, increasing value of labour and social welfare (Blake, 2004; Bohlmann & Van, 2005). Through the lens of economy, the hosts of major sports and mega-events should be financially and socially encouraged by regional and national governments in order to

maximise the development of event-related infrastructure and other facilities (Baim, 2004).

In 1984, Los Angeles organised the Summer Olympic Games successfully and the overall profit was as high as 225 million US dollars, which created a new concept of commercial operation for the Olympic Games (Wilson, 2015). Since then, more and more cities have tended to boost their local economy and employment by hosting sports mega-events (Reis & Sperandei, 2014). Los Angeles and Munich were the only two cities to submit applications for the 1984 Olympic Games. Munich cancelled their application for the event due to insufficient budget (Wilson, 2015). When Los Angeles won the right to host this event, the US government refused to give any economic support because of financial difficulties (Dyreson, 2015). Similarly, the host city (Los Angeles) also refused to pay for this event in order to avoid the potential financial burden on the locals (Dyreson, 2015). Therefore, the Olympic Committee decided to give concessions and compromises, allowing the host city to operate the event commercially in order to solve the problem of insufficient budget for the event (Wilson, 2015).

The 1988 Seoul Olympics earned \$400 million through the sale of television rights. Four years later, the Atlanta Olympics earned \$900 million from selling television rights. It was surprising that the figure for selling the television rights of the 2000 Sydney Olympics was three times the figure for the 1988 Seoul Olympics (Dyreson, 2015). Mega-events can also be used as a means of promoting the development of urban infrastructure and sports facilities, such as urban transport (Getz & McConnell, 2011), housing (accommodation) (Essex & Chalkley, 2004), and new and renovated sports venues (Preuss, 2015) in spite of a number of event-related infrastructures having been abandoned in some host cities. Some scholars have investigated the economic effects of mega-events on the tourism industry. As argued by Hritz and Ross (2010), the host of a mega-event may increase their local tourism exposure and tourism recognition, which has the potential to generate financial benefits and attract investments during and after the event.

In many cases, the widespread dispersion of economic impacts becomes a barrier to accurately calculate the impacts of a mega-event (Wang & Li, 2013). For example, an existing investment may attract more investments. Furthermore, the underestimation of the mega-events budget has been widely critiqued based on the negative economic legacy (Müller, 2015). However, mega-events are able to open access for host cities to gain considerable financial benefits. It is evident that hosting mega-events is able to

offer a positive economic legacy and benefits to the host population (Salvati & Zitti, 2017). A mega-event has been seen as an economic opportunity that contributes to the growth of local employment and income rates because of the urgent and high demand for manpower and material resources (Wang & Li, 2013). There is also research that points out the financial benefits to the host destination of hosting a sporting mega-event.

To maximise the competitive advantage from organising a sports event, there is another consideration even more important than the economy (Jones, Scott & Khaled, 2006). For example, there are many problems that should be considered in terms of the event economy when hosting a sports event, such as how to get funding for the event, avoiding running out of budget and the economic risks of organising a mega-event (Reis & Sperandei, 2014). It is possible many more pre-works should be achieved and planned properly before gaining economic benefits from hosting an event. In 2006, Jones, Scott, and Khaled asserted that financial achievements cannot be achieved as easily as the guarantees of success have been written in an event protocol. This is because plans are only written on pieces of paper but have not yet been proven to be practical in a real case. Furthermore, mega-events have been significantly related to extensive costs (Müller, 2015).

Additionally, one of the most challenging issues of mega-events is about the management and utilisation of sports venues after the mega-events have finished. Although all host cities have been devoted to prolonging and increasing the usage of these venues, there are still many venues that have not been profitably used (Liu, Hautbois & Desbordes, 2017; Preuss, 2015). This will further lead to an economic burden for the host city residents, government and national government. For example, in Brazil, the host of both the 2014 FIFA World Cup and 2016 Rio Summer Olympic Games, the Brazilian government have been publicly criticised for abandoning sports stadiums and the economy deficit of the events (more than 10 billion US dollars) (Penfold, 2019). The president of Brazil was impeached because of the negative economic legacy of these events (Penfold, 2019).

2.2.2. An environmental perspective (Planet)

Environmental impacts are one of the most important parts of sports event management. The agreement on the conception of developing a sustainable environment is globally rising at an alarming rate (Crabb, 2018). The environmental impacts of hosting a mega-event are under consideration by different sports event committees, such as FIFA and IOC (Deng & Poon, 2013). Consequently, it is not

surprising that the environmental effects have been largely connected to the concepts of a sustainable environment before, during and after a mega-event (Guizzardi, Mariani & Prayag, 2017). Since candidate cities realise the importance of managing the environmental impacts of mega-events, the steps of chasing sustainable development of the environment of mega-events have never stopped (Collins, Jones & Munday, 2009).

Sustainable development goals have been used by Crabb (2018) as a strategy to create a forestry-based project to offset greenhouse gases during a mega-event. However, this strategy is not a long-term solution to the environmental impacts, instead, it can only be used to reduce greenhouse gases from event activities within the short term (Crabb, 2018). As can be seen from some academic articles, some scholars evaluated the consequences of the environmental impacts of mega-events through quantitative approaches, such as environmental input-output modelling (Guizzardi, Mariani & Prayag, 2017) and ecological footprint analysis (Pereira, Camara, Ribeiro & Filimonau, 2017). Environmental input-output modelling is predominately recognised as an economic assessment in which event-related environmental impacts have been traced (Guizzardi, Mariani & Prayag, 2017). The ecological footprint is a measurement of comparison between the resources consumed for staging a particular event and the availability of those resources in the world (Pereira, Camara, Ribeiro & Filimonau, 2017). These quantitative approaches can be used to measure the environmental impacts of a mega-event in a fixed period. However, due to the complex environmental impacts of mega-events over extended periods, it is not easy to evaluate all the environmental impacts of mega-events quantitatively (Collins, Jones & Munday, 2009).

The sustainable environment and ecological orientation of a mega-event could be conceptualised as an active attitude of the host city to deal with the considerable global issues of environmental degradation and ecological imbalance (Wang, Wang & Wang, 2019). The promotion of a sustainable environment in mega-events can be employed to enhance environmental awareness among the host population or even the world population (Toffano, Oliveira, Ribeiro & Filimonau, 2017). According to Specq (2016), the majority of consumers are latent green consumers despite their different ethnicities and social status. This is because if two products are largely the same (such as price and quality), consumers tended to purchase the one with lower harmful ingredients to their living environment (Specq, 2016). After that, Narula, Rai and Sharma (2018) found that consumers are willing to reduce or exclude the consumption and intake of harmful products when they realise the severity of the damage of these products to the

ecosystem. It has also been found that people are also very concerned about the environmental impact of products and are willing to pay more for environmental protection (Specq, 2016).

People's environmental awareness is largely dependent on how governments convey and shape the concept of the sustainable environment (Crabb, 2018). For example, if a government employs hosting a mega-event as a way to promote and form the concept of sustainability and an eco-environment, this may have a significant impact on the environmental awareness of local residents and the future ecological environment in the host city. This is because local people may know and realise what will harm the environment through the implementation of mega-events (Wang, Wang & Wang, 2019). Furthermore, the encouragement of greening and eco mega-events can reduce the use of non-renewable resources (such as fossil fuel), while improving the use of renewable resources, such as wind, solar, hydro and biomass energy (Crabb, 2018).

A positive environmental legacy can be also connected to the development of city branding. In 2014, Marin-Aguilar and Vila-López demonstrated that the improvement of a city brand is a primary contributor to the rising standard of living among the host population by investigating 398 residents of Aguascalientes (Mexico). The results of their study show that there was a positive link between the compliance of a sustainable environment of mega-events and the development of a city brand. After that, the improvement of a city brand could be further related to the rising standard of living among locals. This potentially indicates that the host government could receive more benefits than expected, such as support from residents for the next bidding of a mega-event, the promotion of a city brand, the rising reputation for sports activities, and the development of business and tourism (Hayes & Karamichas, 2012). It is not surprising that the promotion and control of a sustainable environment of mega-events results in the development of the city brand and the quality of life of locals. Many scholars from the tourism and sports event management industry have conducted research in the same field, investigating the relationship between mega-events and the increasing image of city branding. According to Bookman (2018), a city brand is defined as a multifaceted element (including a combination of brand definition, brand name, design and symbol) within the services of a city in order to perform differently from the increasing global competition.

As argued by Marin-Aguilar and Vila-López (2014), it is difficult to maintain a good balance between consumption and production during a mega-event. This is because of the conflicts between different elements within a mega-event, more specifically, the

conflicts between economic and environmental sustainability. A study by Getz (2008) points out that economic sustainability of mega-events has been prioritised in previous literature, and that literature often lacks the implication of validity and practical operation of environmental practices for a mega-event. For example, the host cities have the potential to destroy the local environment because of the potential economic benefits of hosting a mega-event (Crabb, 2018). Furthermore, these negative environmental impacts are often linked to public discontent and debate, and relatively less research has been done in this field when compared to research in the field of the positive economic impacts of mega-events (Guizzardi, Mariani & Prayag, 2017; Jones & Ponzini, 2018).

2.2.3 A social perspective (People)

Although a few scholars have investigated the social influences of mega-events (Deery & Jago, 2010; Epstein & Yuthas, 2014; Koosha, Yoosefy & Khabiri, 2017; Preuss, 2007; Roche, 2006), there is still an increasing call for social sustainability research in the field of sports event management (Smith, 2009). Social sustainability studies take different forms within the field of sports event management. The focus of the research literature has been dedicated to how social impacts are capable to affect different people and communities through various ways of participating, volunteering and attending mega-events (Welty, Borland, Lobpries & Cohen, 2015). Hence, social impacts of mega-events have been identified to be related to host populations. For example, the social impacts of sporting events contribute to community cohesion (Roche, 2006), business cooperation (Minnaert, 2012), social inclusion (O'Brien & Chalip, 2007), more frequent communication, social interaction (Smith, 2009), and cultural diversity (Welty, Borland, Lobpries & Cohen, 2015), which can be considered as an attainment of increasing social capital (Minnaert, 2012).

Social influences are one of the most important elements of sports event management and are considered as planned or unplanned structure into the branch of legacy during and after a mega-event (Preuss, 2015). Social impacts refer to people who consciously or unconsciously influence others' intentions, behaviours and emotions, which can be hardly measured due to the variety of categories of social influences (Epstein & Yuthas, 2014). The social impacts of mega-event research have been predominately supported by the theory of social exchange in order to understand the sophisticated perceptions and reactions of locals. In terms of social exchange theory, several variables have been theoretically and practically demonstrated as essential points to support intercultural exchanges and the development of tourism, the economy and the environment (Deery & Jago, 2010). Mega-events can be identified as a multicultural

carrier and can also be considered as a vehicle for the dissemination of traditions and standards of sports culture (Roche, 2017).

In order to meet the demands of positive social sustainability, mega-events can increase social capital and accelerate the growth of social and financial equity and well-being (Smith, 2009). Social capital has been connected to social and cultural relationships and networks between people (Minnaert, 2012). Coincidentally, mega-events may assist individuals to increase and enhance individual relationships and a sense of belonging to communities (Minnaert, 2012). The terms of social impacts have been especially emphasised as the promotion of a “one world” social awareness in Olympic Games. Social impacts encourage host countries to have an awareness of the global characteristics of Olympic events while also promoting the concept of global society within the range of participating countries in the Olympics (Smith, 2009).

As argued by Preuss (2015), the legacy a mega-event leaves behind not only highlights the tangible impacts on host cities, such as the economy and infrastructure, but also reflects on the intangible impacts on host cities, such as multi-culturalism, social development, soft power and the image of the country. The potential social benefits of hosting a mega-event not only develop the social interactions at a surface level (such as communications, interpersonal relationships and social networks), but also reflect on a deeper level (such as a sense of social belonging and presence) (O'Brien & Chalip, 2007; Welty, Borland, Lobpries & Cohen, 2015). In 2015, Cope, Flaherty, Young and Brown found that the social impacts of the Olympics are linked to an essential positive influence on the upward trend of social satisfaction levels among local communities. Additionally, host cities and countries often utilise sports mega-events as a contributing strategy to reach social targets through social exchanges and social disruption (Koosha, Yoosefy & Khabiri, 2017). For example, during mega-events, the role-modelling from athletes can be used to transform and influence the local people's characteristics in order to consolidate their traditional culture and values (Silvestre, 2009).

Another example by Smith (2009) indicates that social impacts may facilitate globalisation from the perspectives of interactional, institutional and experiential dimensions. Some studies have revealed that social impacts are related to the consolidation of local culture and multiculturalism. As pointed out by Roche (2006), the influence of sports mega-events and the high degree of attention from mass media are integrated as a way in which host cities vigorously promote and spread their culture (historical, local and architectural), customs and sportsmanship. Furthermore, sports mega-events provide a platform for the exhibition of local cultures and for others to

explore local traditions, which is the innovation or development of multiculturalism among host cities (Roche, 2006). However, the social impacts of mega-events may occur differently depending on the scale of the host community, for example, the complexity of the social structure of small communities is perhaps lower than the complexity of metropolitan cities (Preuss, 2015). Consequently, the focus on the social impacts of mega-events has become more popular due to the variety of social influences, such as the expression of different traditions, customs, cultural, social values and beliefs (Koosha, Yoosefy & Khabiri, 2017).

Cope et al. (2015) reported that the social impacts of mega-events were a “one-time short term” social disruption to the host population by some scholars before the 20th century. However, the relevant impacts from mega-events on the host cities and countries cannot be evaluated in one-off or short-term perceptions, because these events are often highly exposed to the public on a large scale even before the event is completed (Silvestre, 2009). In another study Minnaert (2012) argued that a mega-event may operate in a short period, but its impacts and meaning may remain for an extended period. A recent study by Koosha, Yoosefy and Khabiri (2017) found that scholars tended to evaluate the potential mega-events value and effects on social exchanges and disruption, in both the short-term and long-term when the topic of social impacts became more popular. Meanwhile, the host of a mega-event can be related to an opportunity that improves social investment in the long term (Koosha, Yoosefy & Khabiri, 2017).

Corruption is also recognised as a serious issue in mega-events (Müller, 2015). Corruption exists in various industries of different societies, ranging from an individual level to a societal level (Kulczycki & Koenigstorfer, 2016). Corruption is defined as the obtaining of a person's private interests, which is often obtained through the misuse of public resources and power and departing from the concepts and regulations of society (Sandholtz & Koetzle, 2000). According to the World Economic Forum (2008), it was estimated that up to 2.6 trillion US dollars (approximately 5% of global gross domestic product) will be costed each year because of the negative impacts of corruption (as cited by Santos, Gursoy, Ribeiro & Panosso, 2019). The claim for the problem of corruption is sharply increasing because of the negative effects of corruption. For example, a large amount of attention has been attracted from scholars in different fields because corruption contributes to the negative impacts on the development and efficiency of the global economy (Santos et al., 2019). It is therefore not surprising that corruption leads to the negative legacy and risks of a mega-event. As argued by Kulczycki and Koenigstorfer (2016), it is evident that the sports industry is not free from the issue of corruption, which potentially affects the impression of individuals about the

image of athletes, different teams, organisations or even host destinations. After that, it is not surprising that the innate problem of corruption and lack of transparency are considered as an immoral issue among mega-events (Nunkoo, Ribeiro, Sunnassee & Gursoy, 2018).

Corruption can involve many aspects in sports events, such as some candidate countries gaining an advantage in bidding processes for hosting a sports event through bribery. Bribery can be used as a commercial strategy to obtain illegal commercial benefits, or to influence the fairness (improper refereeing behaviour or the use of illegal drugs) within sports events (Apuzzo, Clifford & Rashbaum, 2015). According to Masters (2015), doping (the use of illegal drugs) and match-fixing (improper refereeing behaviours) are the most common two categories of corruption in sports activities. Doping and match-fixing have been related to improving athletic performance (Apuzzo, Clifford & Rashbaum, 2015). Meanwhile, the problem of match-fixing has become more serious because it is related to the gambling industry (Kulczycki & Koenigstorfer, 2016; Masters, 2015). However, there is limited evidence about corruption in bidding processes (Brooks, Aleem & Button, 2013).

The effects of corruption cannot be accurately measured because of the multi-faceted nature of corruption in the sports industry (Kulczycki & Koenigstorfer, 2016). As a result, this literature will only list one well-known corruption example to reflectively demonstrate how corruption may negatively impact sports events. For instance, FIFA representatives were accused because they sold the rights for TV broadcasting at a price that was much lower than the market average (Kulczycki & Koenigstorfer, 2016). The impacts of corruption can be detrimental to a sports event or even to the host population. For example, people do not have equitable access to their rights, resources, incomes and the opportunities of employment because of the negative impacts of corruption, which potentially changes the points of view of the public about the legitimacy of public office (Brooks, Aleem & Button, 2013). A further study by Nunkoo, Ribeiro, Sunnassee and Gursoy (2018) indicated that the corrupt behaviours have the potential to affect the attitudes of the vast majority about a sports event, specifically, the public's perceived perceptions about corrupt behaviours is able to create negative emotions. At the same time, the corrupt behaviours can make individuals judge the fairness of the sports event, the event-related services and products as well as the brands of sponsors (Nunkoo et al., 2018). Additionally, the negative impacts of corruption contribute to the reduction of the public image of the hosting population and can result in the business practices and relationships between sports organisations and different stakeholders (Brooks, Aleem & Button, 2013).

2.3 Sports event legacies

Recently, governments have shown their intention and interest to be engaged in the increasing competition of hosting sporting mega-events among cities and nations. As a result, it is vital that governments start to consider the comprehensive event legacy before, during and after a hosting, and the whole impacts (advantages and disadvantages) of an event, on the host population (Preuss, 2015). The original concept of legacy merged with a Melbourne bid in 1956, but now the generally understood legacy begins with the IOC in a global symposium (Sant, Mason & Hinch, 2013). The effects of the legacy of a sporting event cannot be accurately measured (Preuss, 2014). Legacies have been identified as being either arranged or unarranged, feasible or infeasible, positive or negative (Preuss, 2014).

Sports event legacy has played an essential role in the evolution of sports mega-events (Agha, Fairley & Gibson, 2012). An event legacy can be classified as tangible (such as the impacts on infrastructure, facilities and economy) and intangible (social impacts, sports participation, the impact on employment and cultural impacts) (Preuss, 2014). It is evident that a positive legacy will bring a number of benefits to the host cities, such as the development of infrastructure (Preuss, 2015), the development of social and cultural exchanges (Roche, 2017), the boost of economy (Gruneau, Horne & Borowy, 2016) as well as the development of technology (Chanaron, 2014). However, some literature has revealed the negative legacy of hosting a mega-event, such as the abandonment of sports facilities and stadiums, the deficit of economy in the host cities (Gold & Gold, 2011) or even corruption (Kulczycki & Koenigstorfer, 2016). In this section, the literature review demonstrates the theoretical framework of legacy from both tangible (infrastructure and tourism) and intangible (media and image) aspects, as well as identifying the potential risks (financial risks, the risks of abandonment of infrastructure and corruption of hosting a mega-event).

2.3.1. Economic

Academics have investigated the economic legacy of hosting a mega-event from different directions, such as the boost to GDP, the increase of employment and investment analysis studies as well as tourism (Chengli, Huaichun & Hsiouwei, 2011). With the continuous expansion of the scale of sports competitions and the gradual deepening of commercial operations, the nature and content of sports competitions have undergone tremendous changes (Brittain, 2018). Therefore, the sports competition is no longer just a competition with a variety of sports, instead, it is a complex synthesis of many components, including business, culture, entertainment and

competition. Mega-events are organised by the efforts from not only many host countries but also the efforts of audiences, the media and sponsors (Masterman, 2004). As a result, a mega-event is a product of the development of human society, which absorbs a large amount of social and economic input to meet its own survival and development needs (Brittain, 2018).

A mega-event generates economic benefits through its own methods that promote the development of the social economy (Gruneau, Horne & Borowy, 2016). Simply put, the economic impact of mega-events refers to the net economic changes that the host destination could bring in addition to local market values from hosting mega-events (Masterman, 2004). For example, when a country holds a mega-event, there will inevitably be some foreign and new capital flowing into the circulation of the economic system of the host destination (Masterman, 2004). Therefore, economic legacy may be used directly as an importation criterion for measuring the motivation and success of hosting a mega-event in some studies (Getz, 2019). For example, the 23rd Olympic Games in 1984 reversed the continuous economic loss from hosting mega-events, earning \$250 million, which set off the enthusiasm for holding mega-events globally (Dyreson, 2015). The hosting of sporting mega-events is recognised as one of the most effective economical modes within the sports industry, especially when an event is successfully being held, which can bring long-term economic benefits and social effects to the host country (Reis & Sperandei, 2014).

China has now become one of the most active countries in the world to host such events to derive benefits (Lai, 2015). Each country has its own strategic purpose to bid for the Olympic Games, such as the 2004 Athens Olympics, the 2006 Turin Winter Olympics, the 2008 Beijing Olympics, and the 2010 Vancouver-Whistler Winter Olympics (Chengli, Huaichun & Hsiouwei, 2011). These host cities aimed to improve the outlook of the host cities, updating urban infrastructure and improving event preparation skills and experiences (Parent, 2008). Therefore, taking a strategic viewpoint, one of the ambitions among host counties is to highlight their image in order to gain higher international status and influence (Lai, 2015).

When considering the host counties from an economic legacy perspective, hosting mega-events can also bring long-term economic benefits to the host destination, such as attracting foreign capital and generating employment opportunities (Reis & Sperandei, 2014). However, a study by Domareski, Fumi and Dos (2019) pointed out that the motivation of hosting a mega-event depends on two primary reasons:

- The expectation to develop social legacies.

- The expectation to develop economic legacies.

Mega-events (such as the Olympics Games) demand a tremendous investment in which opportunities and risks co-exist (Chengli, Huaichun & Hsiouwei, 2011). To be optimistic, economic growth and social development can be triggered when a mega-event is being hosted successfully (Furrer, 2002). When taking the view from the opposite side, host countries should be aware that such large-scale events may have excessive budgetary costs. Request for further excessive investments may result in a much worse situation for the host countries (Furrer, 2002). Consequently, hosting a mega-event has been summarized as a high-risk strategy to facilitate the development of local economic structure because it may or may not develop the host country's national GDP (Andranovich, Burbank & Heying, 2000).

In order to comprehensively investigate the principles of economic legacy of hosting the 2022 Winter Olympics, this review divides the positive economic legacy into two sub-sections. Investment is discussed separately while the tourism industry and employment opportunities are discussed in relation to each other. After that, the rationales of negative economic influence (the financial burden on both local taxpayers and government and disturbing other local developing projects) are considered together.

There are many forms of investments for a mega-event, and these investments are not limited to the direct sponsorship of mega-events. Inward funding can also include the investments from investors in various industries, such as sports goods, construction, catering, and media industries (Gruneau, Horne & Borowy, 2016). The success of a mega-event will bring many benefits to the host country, such as shaping and reshaping national image (Lai, 2015), developing the environment (Collins, Flynn, Munday & Roberts, 2007) and boosting country's soft power (Grix & Houlihan, 2014). However, the literature from mega-event legacy indicates a much higher concentration on the feasible positive economic legacy of hosting a mega-event (Furrer, 2002). As argued by Lin (2012), there are many economic impacts of hosting mega-events, which can improve a city's infrastructure, improve a city's appearance, and even increase the visibility of a host city in the world. Hosting is a brilliant opportunity for the hosts to present themselves or enhance their profiles on an international stage (Lai, 2015). Besides, the economic legacy of holding mega-events can breed new industries, promote urban employment, improve import and export trade and other associated positive effects (Gruneau, Horne & Borowy, 2016).

The formation of the commercial value of sports mega-events has a direct or indirect connection with the hosting place (Chanaron, 2014). In other words, holding mega-events can affect the development of the local market and the process of business development because of the massive attention from individuals, commercial organisations, sponsors and investors (Reis & Sperandei, 2014). Foreign capital pays attention to these mega-events in order to enhance the corporate brand image (Reis & Sperandei, 2014). As a result, the host countries can improve their urban facilities and support the local environment through the sponsorship of this capital in order to not only better complete the preparations for the event but also foster the physical legacy (Reis & Sperandei, 2014). Inward investments are one of the rationales that underpin the positive economic influences of the perceived economic legacy for Beijing, China. Therefore, this research demonstrates why inward investments may become a positive economic impact on Beijing and how inward investments have benefited some host cities through hosting mega-events. The commercialisation of sports mega-events has become an important way to promote the development of host destinations (Chanaron, 2014).

The tangible or intangible value generated by mega-events also attracts these commercial brands, sponsors and investors to invest in the mega-events in order to facilitate their brand awareness and image as a marketing strategy (Chengli, Huaichun & Hsiouwei, 2011). Therefore, these attentions on mega-events may provide ample inward investments for moving the host destination's commercialisation forward or the material needs of the sporting event because mega-events can provide suitable development space for foreign capital and international businesses (Gruneau, Horne & Borowy, 2016). Historically, even hosting mega-events has the potential to suffer from economic risk taking, it may create economic benefits for host destinations from facilitating the vitality of global entrepreneurship because the arrival of new businesses may result in a new marketing environment, investments and wealth for the host places (Hayduk, 2019). It is also common that a respectable amount of the overall cost of hosting mega-events is supported by external economic resources (inward investments) rather than providing financial and material resources or taking financial risks only by host locals and governments themselves (Chanaron, 2014).

The commercialisation of mega-sporting events can simultaneously attract foreign capital investment in the tourism industry and thus have a positive impact on the host destinations, such as the upgrading of local infrastructure (Gruneau, Horne & Borowy, 2016). Meanwhile, investors may also invest in other areas, such as souvenir products of mega-events. As argued by Lai (2015), investments in peripheral products of the

2008 Beijing Summer Olympic were beneficial for both investors and China. This is because China had access to substantial financial support from transfer intangible assets (power of sales), and investors profited from selling peripheral products, such as tickets and souvenirs (Lai, 2015). Most importantly, the sales of peripheral products around this event did not only result in economic benefits but also led to the improvement of city branding in Beijing (Lai, 2015). Consequently, by comparing existing literature and the perceptions of participants, it is possible that hosting the 2022 Winter Olympics may bring considerable commercial investments and a series of positive impacts to China.

Domareski, Fumi and Dos (2019) point out that holding mega-events may bring long-term tourism resources (such as repeat tourists to the host destination rather than a single visit). These long-lasting tourism resources are often able to bring higher incomes, cultural exchanges, solutions to maintain visitors during the off-season period and more benefits to both local people and the government, which can be considered as a way for host countries to change the travel behaviours of many people around the world (Getz, 2008). For example, the number of visitors has dramatically increased by 419% to the host destination (Barcelona) of the 1992 Summer Olympics over the past 25 years (Donato, I Povill, Chappelet, Edmondson & I Lagares, 2017). Taking another example (the 2010 Shanghai World Expo) from China, the event attracted approximately 99.8 million visitors to the host city nine months before the opening (Dogru, 2016).

Subsequent research by Getz (2019) shows that there is an upward trend for more and more people to travel to host destinations for various sporting events. However, the repeat tourists and the development of tourism cannot be achieved without the endeavor of host countries to tackle some issues properly, such as the infrastructure required for tourism use and the image creation of host countries (Getz & McConnell, 2011). Therefore, host cities tend to invest more in improving transportation infrastructure, and even work hard to improve the local environment through manipulating water quality and air quality in order to better display their image and bring more convenience to host residents (S raphin, Platania, Spencer & Modica, 2018). Besides, the host city government normally carries out land resource integration through demolition and relocation in order to improve urban infrastructure and create more economic profits after mega-events (S raphin, Platania, Spencer & Modica, 2018).

Finally, the literature indicates that previous mega-events (such as the Olympic Games and FIFA World Cup) have played an important role in stimulating the employment of the host city, whether long-term or short-term employment opportunities (Gruneau, Horne & Borowy, 2016). For example, the 1984 Los Angeles Olympic Games created 25,000 jobs (Neufeind, Güntert & Wehner, 2013). Four years later, the Seoul Olympics brought employment opportunities to 34,000 locals (Neufeind, Güntert & Wehner, 2013). In the 1992 Barcelona Olympic Games, the number of new jobs was increased by 59,000 per year during the preparation period from 1987 to 1992 (Neufeind, Güntert & Wehner, 2013). Moving more specifically to Beijing, Beijing faced great employment pressure in the early 21st century, which was effectively alleviated by hosting the 2008 Olympic Games (Feddersen & Maennig, 2013).

All in all, foreign capital will mainly flow into the local service industry, such as accommodation, catering, transportation, intermediary services and other service industries and departments, which create job vacancies for local workers. The creation of these employment opportunities is due to the positive influence of financial legacy from hosting mega-events (Feddersen & Maennig, 2013). For example, hotels and restaurants contribute to additional economic growth in the local economic system during the sales process when employees provide services to foreigners. Consequently, hosting the 2022 winter Olympics can have a positive impact on Beijing's employment opportunities and thriving tourism may also affect local employment opportunities.

Much of the existing literature directly or indirectly indicates that the hosting of mega-events will bring financial burdens to both the host government and population (Chanaron, 2014; Domareski, Fumi & Dos, 2019; Reis & Sperandei, 2014). Scholars point out that the utilisation rate of event venues and corresponding facilities remain at a low level or even zero per cent, thus resulting in economic issues and waste of resources that can be counted into the financial burden on both host governments and locals (Gruneau, Horne & Borowy, 2016). For example, the Olympic Games in Montreal in 1976 had a serious economic loss because of the renovation and construction of event infrastructure (Patel, Bosela & Delatte, 2013). This is because their actual expenditure in the infrastructure of the event was 10 times more than the original budget of \$125 million in the bidding document, which subsequently led to the 15-day Olympics requiring Montreal taxpayers to help the government bear nearly a billion dollars of Olympic debt for a few decades (Patel, Bosela & Delatte, 2013). Instead of focusing on the whole picture of the negative economic influence of event infrastructure, Lindau, Petzhold, Tavares and Facchini (2016) concentrated on the

economic pressure from traffic problems during mega-events on the host governments. For example, during the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games, the railway station in Sydney Olympic Park became a major mode of transportation and the buses can be the second, with the excessive hourly tension of transporting 50,000 (about 30 trains) and 28,000 visitors, respectively (Pereira, Camara, Ribeiro & Filimonau, 2017). This forced the local government to take effective measures to ease the tension of the traffic and thus increase the additional costs on transportation and financial burden on local government (Pereira, Camara, Ribeiro & Filimonau, 2017).

The negative economic influences of hosting mega-events are not only limited to the economic burden of the local government, but also the rising prices of daily necessities that are caused by the influx of tourists, which will increase the economic burden of both tourists and residents (Reis & Sperandei, 2014). For instance, the price of daily necessities can soar, such as it took three euros to buy a bottle of mineral water, the price of accommodation increased substantially and the price of dishes at local restaurants increased by three to five times during the 2004 Athens Olympic Games (Samatas, 2011). Although this could be an economic benefit to some locals, the local non-beneficiaries needed to bear the economic burden of the rising price of local daily necessities that are caused by the event (Reis & Sperandei, 2014).

The momentary economic gains and losses are not an accurate measure of the success of mega-event legacies (Getz & McConnell, 2011). For example, if the cost of an event does not include the expenditure on infrastructure, many mega-events can generate significant positive economic effects, whereas if the calculation is counted, the result would be largely different (Getz & McConnell, 2011). Many of the existing studies look at short-term event operating expenses (such as event budget, investments, financial burden and event expenditure or even economic losses) of mega-events rather than taking into account how many conveniences can be offered by these operating costs for locals or the availability of economic value that can be generated in the future (Getz & McConnell, 2011).

There is some evidence that shows the host population undertakes too much economic pressure that should not belong to them when they are hosting a mega-event, thus affecting other local development projects negatively. For example, riots remained for more than half a year in Brazil because of the increase in the price of bus tickets for the 2014 World Cup, which has been considered as one of the Brazil's biggest protests in the past 20 years since the Brazil government wanted to host the 2014 World Cup in the country (Lindau, Petzhold, Tavares & Facchini, 2016). The protests were initially

caused by bus price hikes and then escalated to shift public attention to a broader issue (Lindau, Petzhold, Tavares & Facchini, 2016). Although the Brazilian government subsequently cancelled plans to increase bus fares by nine cents, these protests continued to seriously affect the quality of life of locals, the efficiency of local transportation and other urban development projects (Lindau, Petzhold, Tavares & Facchini, 2016).

2.3.2. Socio-cultural

Sporting mega-events (such as the Olympic Games and the FIFA World cup) are a part of modern sports and a manifestation of modern civilization (Koosha, Yoosefy & Khabiri, 2017). Mega-events are widely adopted as spectacular socio-cultural events that have their unique characteristics and global significance (Preuss, 2007).

Therefore, these sporting events should be considered as an open social occasion for athletes or anyone who is associated with these events, which indicates that these events are an essential driving force of international social and cultural significance (Koosha, Yoosefy & Khabiri, 2017). As the Olympics is a platform for athletes from different cultures to show their level of exercise or health every four years, it becomes a special condition where people with different social and cultural characteristics or backgrounds are gathered in one place (the host destination) and an integration of multiple social and cultural components, such as the way that people respect their customs, traditions, languages and religions as well as how people behave differently (Savić, 2007). It also shows that the Olympic Games are a mixture of Eastern and Western cultures that enable people from different ethnic and cultural backgrounds to contribute to modern society (Savić, 2007).

The socio-cultural legacy of mega-events is considered as an intangible legacy that remains during and after the hosting of the events (Preuss, 2007). As argued by Koosha, Yoosefy and Khabiri (2017), the concepts of socio-cultural legacy represent an impact that differs from the computable effects on the host population, which is sometimes more essential than the countable or tangible values (physical infrastructure or economic products) that returns to the host population by hosting mega-events. The natural traditions of mega-events are often combined with the goals that the host governments want to achieve, such as urban infrastructural, corporate and industrial development (Deery & Jago, 2010). These events, therefore, give host countries opportunities to pursue social and cultural ambitions, such as capturing the attention of the world and portraying the image of the host city or country (Penfold, 2019).

There are many positive socio-cultural legacies that have been discussed quite often, such as cultural diversity, the promotion of national identity, quality of life of locals, improved education and the enhancement of local traditions and cultures (Penfold, 2019). As discussed by Koosha, Yoosefy and Khabiri (2017), hosting mega-events is able to enhance the experiences and skills of local people to promote the host city brand or to solve special safety problems. A further example by Swart and Bob (2012) points out that the positive social legacy of a mega-event can relate to the function of gathering experiences in event management and a way of advocating voluntarism in the host place. For example, the UK government employed the hosting of 2012 London Olympics Games as a method to develop social and cultural exchange between communities and locals, which resulted in the passionate attitudes of locals about being involved in volunteering. Furthermore, the socio-cultural legacy of hosting mega-events can also influence the achievement of political goals of host governments. For example, the Chinese government used the host of the 2008 Olympic Games to reduce the cultural and social distance between China and other countries from the world (Chen & Tian, 2015).

South Africa used the 2010 World Cup to address local poverty and low quality of life (Swart & Bob, 2012). Following that, London utilised the hosting of the 2012 Olympics Games as a socio-cultural legacy strategy to derive the development of local life quality and equity (Mahtani, et al., 2013). However, the dark side of negative social legacies of mega-events is concerned by scholars from various insights, such as the safety of residents, the growth of prostitution, an increase in the crime rate and drug-dealing (Cornelissen, Bob & Swart, 2011). Even though academics have investigated these social issues. However, these social issues are still tough to be controlled and monitored (Swart & Bob, 2012). Taking the perspective from the tourism industry, a negative socio-cultural legacy of hosting mega-events could indirectly lead to an obstacle to the development of the tourism industry, the loss of employees for the tourism industry or the local hostility to visitors, resulting in many adverse effects (Cornelissen, Bob, & Swart, 2011). Hosting mega-events may also generate a series of other negative socio-cultural legacies for the host population or country, such as traffic jams, housing tensions, impact on the safety of residents, over-commercialisation or cultural conflicts (Minaert, 2012).

Globally, there is an upward trend that countries have high intention to host mega-events because they think the hosting of these events will promote and reinforce their international reputation despite a recent low interest for hosting Olympic Games (Grix, 2012). Therefore, the continuous improvement of the processes of internationalization

and globalisation in sporting mega-events has attracted many scholars to focus on the role of reputation legacy (such as national image and city branding) to host cities. For example, Broudehoux (2017) found that the hosting of the 2010 India Commonwealth Games and the 2014 Brazil Football World Cup offered opportunities for both countries to shape and reshape their global image, which has been considered as a step for both countries to perform on the world stage, even the events have created some negative legacies. Furthermore, Qatar wants to achieve the purposes of economic, social and reputation development by hosting the upcoming 2022 World Cup (Henderson, 2014).

2.3.2.1. The Media

With the continuous improvement of people's living standards and the increase in leisure time, people's interests are more diversified. At the same time, the exciting moments and unpredictable results of sports events attract more and more people to pay attention to sports events (Kim, Cheong & Kim, 2016). For example, an approximately 33 billion TV audience watched the 1998 French FIFA World Cup (Allmers & Maennig, 2009). In the following 2000 Sydney Olympic Games, the audiences reached 3.6 billion (Yanni & Dimitris, 2002). Two years later, the figure for the 2002 Japan and South Korea World Cup reached 40 billion people (Hong, 2013). In 2006, up to 50 billion TV viewers watched the 2006 Germany World Cup (Allmers & Maennig, 2009). Consequently, due to the increasing worldwide attention in mega-events, sports media is able to make huge profits through TV broadcasting (Kim, Cheong & Kim, 2016). At the same time, the host country has also received corresponding benefits due to the promotion of mass media, such as the improvement of soft power and global image (Rowe, 2011).

Mutual benefits act as a key foundation for the convergence or cooperation between mega-events and media industry. Since the early coverage of sporting events until most recently, the media coverage of sports mega-events can be divided into two categories: old media and new media (Roche, 2017). The old media disseminates information on sports mega-events primarily in the form of television, newspapers and magazines. Although the old media is relatively backward when compared with the current mainstream mass media, the importance of old media has been emphasised and related to the progress and development of mega-events in an era called television-age media (Roche, 2017). Custódio and Gouveia (2007) asserted that the old media has been transformed into a version of the new media by two contributing developments. Firstly, both host nation and international audiences are able to watch the details of sporting competitions and competitors in their homes without the barrier

of geographical location. Secondly, audiences are now able to watch mega-events in more convenient ways, such as a mobile phone and laptop.

Due to the rapid development and innovation of digital technology, the media coverage of modern mega-events becomes more advanced. For example, the use of the Internet, mobile phones and other new media are factors that stimulate the development of the coverage of modern sports mega-events. Especially, the innovation and improvement of satellite technology, which contributed to the revival of new media after the 1964 Tokyo Olympic Games (Wenner & Billings, 2017). Satellite technology has opened access for global audiences to observe real-time moving images or live sites (Rowe & Baker, 2012; Rowe, 2019; Wenner & Billings, 2017).

It is possible that media coverage has the potential to offer benefits to host countries or even the world. Swart, Linley and Bob (2013) introduced one of the latent benefits of hosting a mega-event: sports mass media can enhance the global image and reputation of host countries. For instance, in 2004, the Portugal European Football Championships were related to the improvement of national profile and image by using the coverage of sports mass media to affect people's perception about the cognitive image and destination image of Portugal (Custódio & Gouveia, 2007). Six years later, South Africa used the opportunity of media exposure of hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup to reposition or reform a positive global image despite earlier Western media taking a negative viewpoint about South Africa. The sports mega-events media can be also related to positive social legacy. In 2013, Swart, Linley and Bob asserted that sports media consists of a way of sociology for people to understand the complex social phenomena and cultural movements of both past, current nature of mega-events and feasible futures.

The excessive involvement of mass media has the potential to affect the progress of mega-events, which is the drawback of the cooperation between mega-events and mass media (Bailard & Major, 2018). It is possible that some media interfered with the conduction of sports events in order to increase the ratings and maximize profits. For example, the swimming competition of the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games was originally scheduled in the evening. However, the swimming competition was finally scheduled in the morning in order to enable audiences in Europe and the United States to watch competitions without time difference. When compared with the 1994 United States World Cup, a more serious issue seemingly occurred. Several games were replaced to midday (average temperature of 40 degrees or more) in order to meet the demands of the live broadcast (Falkheimer, 2007). Hence, at least, these media interventions are likely to influence athletes' performance or to disrupt their original plans. Another

problem is that sports media tend to report on the privacy and private lives of athletes in order to attract much more public attention (Anderson & Bushman, 2002). Some of the more serious reports were false news even in the absence of verification of information to achieve the so-called "sensational effect" (Anderson & Bushman, 2002).

2.3.2.2. Image and Identity

The tourism industry of a host destination is positively and negatively influenced by the image impacts of a mega-event (Liu, 2015). For example, a change in the image of a place can make a significant contribution to local tourism. For example, a highly industrialized country can use the transformation of the image as a strategy to turn it into a tourist destination that people yearn for (Ferrari & Guala, 2017). Besides, as discussed by Kenyon and Bodet (2018), the image of a city has the potential to influence people's determinations and behaviours towards their travel destination. In other words, if people have the opportunity to travel to a new place, they are more likely to choose a place with an outstanding image to spend their money. The development of the country image can create further tourism visitations. Similarly, the development of the tourism industry could promote and enhance a country's image.

According to Broudehoux (2017), national image is a complex synthesis that includes both internal and external images, which is an important part of a country's soft power. The internal image can be interpreted as a subjective perception, evaluation and recognition of a country's citizens for the country's economic movements, political activities, cultural behaviours and itself (Grix, 2012). The external image of a country can be understood as the subjective feelings of different countries or individuals outside of the country for the country's beliefs, culture, environment, politics and identity (Grix, 2012). The formation of the image of a country relies heavily not only on how the country shapes the characteristics of the existence of national identity to the different societies, but also on how mass media disseminates the influence of the country to the wider public across different countries, which determines the public impression and perception of the internal and external image of a country (Knott, Fyall & Jones, 2017).

An outstanding national image can not only promote economic development and cultural exchange but also foster a sense of self-confidence and pride among a countries' residents, which takes a country up to an advantageous position in the complicated and furious international competition (Grix, 2012). For instance, the co-hosting of the 2002 FIFA World Cup has been served as a catalyst for South Korea to develop the recognition of public to national image (Kim & Morrison, 2005).

Regarding the connection between soft power and global image, global image can be used as a precondition for the development of national soft power (Grix, 2012). The potential domestic and international political benefits of hosting sporting mega-events have become a focus of emerging powers (Grix & Lee, 2013). This is because more and more literature indicate that the sporting and hosting success of mega-events can be connected with the political attraction and soft power of host destinations on an international stage (Grix & Lee, 2013). Furthermore, one of the main advantages of hosting mega-events is that host countries can share their knowledge, values and beliefs of sports culture with other countries, which allows other countries or individuals to take shape of a memorable impression or understanding about the traditional culture, sportsmanship and social behaviour of the host countries (Almeida, Marchi & Pike, 2014).

The national image can improve the country's soft power by improving tourism and import and export transactions (Almeida, Marchi & Pike, 2014). There are also some examples about how countries have derived the development of soft power or have received benefits from the progress of soft power. The showcase of the 2008 Olympic Games not only represents the sharp growth of the economy and contemporary technology in China, but also is one of the key contributors to the intangible development of soft power that China has been chasing (Chen, Copapinto & Luo, 2012; Giulianotti, 2015; Schiffman, 2017).

Through developing the soft power of China, China not only has the influence of being able to compete with other countries, but also the communication between China and the rest of the world (Giulianotti, 2015). As argued by Luo (2012), the national soft power of China has become one of the most effective intangible weapons for them on the diplomatic battlefield of the world. After that, through the hosting of the 2016 Olympic Games, Brazil has improved the country's soft power, which has achieved several political goals for the local government, such as multiculturalism, determining international status in the United Nations and establishing friendly diplomatic relations (Almeida, Marchi & Pike, 2014).

A brand is framed as a name, term, logo, symbol, design, or a combination of these components, which becomes a way for others to identify and distinguish differences (Marin-Aguilar & Vila-López, 2014). Cities can be branded like a product, which specifically means that the effects of a city's brand enables people to understand and get familiar with the place as well as generate some good perceptions about it, which

has served as an intangible asset of a city (Knott, Fyall & Jones, 2017). The city brand is a whole that includes the historical and cultural accumulation of a city and the combination of the city's natural and human resources, which is a symbol of the city's prosperity and international competitiveness (Lee, 2013). Marin-Aguilar and Vila-López (2014) pointed out that the integration of city brands into sporting mega-events is a key facilitator to maximize or maintain positive event legacies of an event through appropriate and strategic planning as well as unique marketing strategies for the event.

The shaping or reshaping of cities brands through hosting mega-events can be considered as an event conducive to the host governments. For example, local governments can utilise the city branding created by the events to accomplish many political goals, such as the promotion of the events, the security of employment rate, the allocation of human and social resources as well as diplomatic advantages (Lee, 2013). Therefore, when compared to cities with low city branding, cities with high city branding have more potential to gain more advantages. For example, people are more willing to study, work, travel, live and invest in well-known cities. This will further deepen the city's brand characteristics and attract internationally renowned companies to settle in and thus create special recognition effects and stability in the local development process, such as the development of urban natural and land resources, cultural diversity and production capacity (Marin-Aguilar & Vila-López, 2014).

The impact of the transformation, promotion and change of a country's image has not been only identified to contribute to the development of the tourism industry. For example, London (UK) intended to host a mega-event to alleviate or eliminate people's negative perceptions about London. As argued by Kenyon and Bodet (2018), the UK used the strategy of hosting the 2012 Summer Olympic Games to deal with the negative pre-existing perceptions about the UK from both local and global communities. However, the positive and developing image of a country while hosting a mega-event will not automatically come to the hosting destination, as the image should be elaborately planned and maintained (Kangjuan, Gyula, Wang, Zheng & Sun, 2017).

The sports industry and the tourism industry are two different industries that belong to modern society (Jerkunica, Miljak & Todorović, 2017). Both Industries have their business targets and specific industry-related products, and both industries have their customers, thus forming their unique marketing. However, when these two industries confront the demands of marketing expansion and economic development, the sports industry and the tourism industry can be combined to form a sports tourism industry (Ratkowski & Ratkowska, 2018). As argued by Alexandris and Kaplanidou (2014),

sports tourism has been defined as implicit and explicit tourism benefits in relation to a traveler who comes to watch and participates in a live environment of sports-related activities. Moreover, the facilities and infrastructures built for sporting mega-events provide conveniences and future development opportunities for the sports tourism industry, such as urban renewal and transportation (Wang & Jin, 2019). Consequently, the impact of the sports tourism industry is not simply a combination of sports and tourism, but the advantages of both industries have been taken.

Until recently, more and more people have travelled for sports events, which becomes one of the most popular travelling reasons for ever-changing sports marketing (Lesjak, Axelsson & Mekinc, 2017). This is because people are gradually having more free time and money than before. Especially, affordable travel options and the international interest in sports events have been contributing factors for the development of sport tourism since 2000 (Lesjak, Axelsson & Mekinc, 2017). Sports tourism has also increasingly attracted plenty of attention because of its financial, social, cultural and environmental effects on the travelling destinations (Akovlev, Dimitrov, Koteski & Serafimova, 2017). Most importantly, the successful sports tourism legacy of a sports mega-event is capable to increase the number of potential tourists, sport tourism-related revenues, sports participation, the pride of the local community, city visibility and image (Alexandris & Kaplanidou, 2014).

Lesjak, Axelsson and Mekinc (2017) argued that hosting a mega-event can offer developing countries a shortcut to developing tourism and global recognition. Therefore, many host countries have been using sports tourism as a facilitator for country development (Nyikana, Tichaawa & Swart, 2014). For instance, the intention of hosting the 2010 FIFA World cup in South Africa was divided into two major purposes (Fourie & Spronk, 2011). Firstly, South Africa intended to facilitate the growth of the value of tourism. The second purpose is that South Africa wanted to shape South Africa's cities into an attractive travel destination in order to ensure a positive and long-lasting legacy through hosting the World Cup. Finally, South Africa could be successful in achieving the two purposes. For example, according to FIFA (2010), in 2010, the FIFA World Cup attracted roughly 310 thousand international tourists to South Africa and contributed approximately \$500 million to the host destination (as cited in Baumann & Matheson, 2018). Furthermore, football fans have shown an intention to revisit or travel to South Africa (Moyo, Swart & Hattingh, 2020).

Baumann and Matheson (2018) asserted that there is an upward trend indicating that developing counties host mega-events for the pursuit of economic development, such

as the South Africa 2010, the FIFA World Cup, the Brazil (2014 FIFA World Cup and the 2016 Summer Olympic Games) and Russia (2012 Winter Games and 2018 FIFA World Cup). Furthermore, sports event tourism is able to provide significant financial effects on the host population, or even host counties (Lesjak, Axelsson & Mekinc, 2017). The amount of money spent by visitors can develop a local financial base and local tax revenues, which opens access for the host population to develop their total GDP. For example, the sport tourism industry contributed approximately 10% of the global tourism market, contributing nearly 600 billion dollars for each year (Hritz & Ross, 2010).

In 2017, the figure for sports tourism was almost three times more than the figure in 2010, representing 25% of the total tourism market (Vegara-ferri, Saura, Lopen-Gullon, Sanchen, & Agosto, 2018). However, some studies have shown that developing countries do not simply employ mega-events to pursue monetary benefits through the development of sports tourism (Getz, 2008; Getz & McConnell, 2011; Hritz & Ross, 2010; Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2007). These countries use sports tourism as a tool that makes their countries take the initiative in the furious international competition among other countries, such as improving soft power or sending a signal to international communities (Nyikana, Tichaawa & Swart, 2014). Host countries have attracted plenty of local and international attention because of the positivity and enthusiasm for mega-sports events. The media coverage of these events has the potential to bring tourists and investors to host destinations. Sports tourism, therefore, can be considered as a primary or secondary branding strategy for host nations (Nyikana, Tichaawa & Swart, 2014).

2.3.3. Environmental

Although mega-events are a strong driving force for social development, human activities involved in the events have a certain degree of environmental influence on host destinations or the global environment (Wang, Wang & Wang, 2019). Certainly, the purpose of mega-events is to provide a space and stage for the development of global competitive sports, while bringing social benefits and business opportunities to host countries (Vishwas, Janaina & Maria, 2019). Therefore, the environment often becomes a victim of hosting mega-events or a point that is forgotten because host countries or the population often place their interests (such as economic benefits and infrastructure development) above the ecological environment (Vishwas, Janaina & Maria, 2019). As the material needs of mega-events are consistently growing, the maintenance of the natural environment often becomes the main contradiction in the development of mega-events. Therefore, how to host a mega-event under the

protection or enhancement of the natural environment has become a problem that plagues various host countries (Hayes & Karamichas, 2012).

The development of the local environment is identified as a rationale of the positive influence of environmental legacy. The positive impact of mega-events on the urban or national environment is mainly reflected in several aspects through host countries. As argued by Chen and Tian, (2015), local natural heritage environment resources can be protected because of hosting these events. Furthermore, the host and surrounding cities can receive the benefits of restoring and preserving the urban natural landscape from hosting, which in turn leads to the minimisation of environmental damage and crisis to host destinations (Karadakis & Kaplanidou, 2012).

However, efforts have been mostly made to mitigate existing negative environmental impacts in order to pursue a positive environmental legacy in most host cities. For example, the co-hosting (Japan and Korea) of the 2002 FIFA World Cup encouraged Korea to build a great regional park on reclaimed landfills (Vishwas, Janaina & Maria, 2019). Meanwhile, the local government of Seoul introduced a series of policies to reinforce the importance of the control and monitoring of air quality around event stadiums, which has been further positively linked to the awareness of an environmentally friendly World Cup through different information channels (Vishwas, Janaina & Maria, 2019). Following that, in the run-up to the 2008 Olympic games, Beijing implemented a number of policies to control and support local air quality, such as developing alternative energy sources, improving energy efficiency or controlling pollutants (such as the restriction of private vehicles and the prohibition of factories that pollute the air) (Jin, Zhang, Ma & Connaughton, 2011).

Hosting mega-events can give rise to environmental pollution in host destinations, such as the pollution and destruction of the original ecology. For instance, the 1992 Winter Olympics was hosted under the serious circumstance of deforestation in France, with up to 30 hectares of natural forests destroyed in order to make room for the event (May, 1995). This indicates that France sacrificed the local ecological environment with the intention to derive benefits from hosting the Winter Olympics, but ultimately these problems led to further pollution, imbalances and crises to the local ecosystem (May, 1995). Taking the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games as another example, even Beijing has mediated the issues of air pollution in Beijing. The event operation occupied 38 sporting venues (16 new venues, 14 renovated venues and 8 temporary venues) which induced the destruction of the original geology of the city, the reduction of the greening area and biodiversity as well as pollution to the original ecological environment (Chen & Tian, 2015). However, these events not only bring direct pollution but also indirect

pollution. For example, massive production, the water usage of event venues will consume many water resources and increase the discharge of urban sewage (Hayes & Karamichas, 2012). After that, the increase of visitors will lead to the problem that surges the municipal solid waste in the host country during the event, including the waste of packaging materials (such as plastic bottles and paper) and non-recyclable food waste inside and outside event venues (Wang, Wang & Wang, 2019). Additionally, the hosting of mega-events may also cause changes in local temperature and humidity due to the extensive use of stadium lighting equipment (Hayes & Karamichas, 2012). Furthermore, the heavy use of local traffic (such as cars, motorcycles and buses) not only increases greenhouse gases in the host city but also causes noise pollution (Preuss, 2015). For example, up to 12.5% of residents in Sydney thought that hosting the 2000 Olympic Games interrupted their normal life with noise pollution.

2.3.3.1 Infrastructural

Infrastructure is an essential part of sports event legacy, which is not only prepared for upcoming sporting events but also serves purposes after the sporting events for locals and the public (Pereira, 2018; Swart & Bob, 2012). Infrastructure covers a wide range of event-related facilities, including new or renovated designated sports event-related venues and facilities (Pereira, 2018). The host counties should carry out a large-scale renovation and construction in the project of the development of infrastructure because of the compulsory demands of hosting a mega-event (Essex & Chalkley, 2004). Previous literature tended to carry out research on the impacts of total expenditure of sports event infrastructure (Wu, Li & Lin, 2016). For example, two studies point out that South Korea and Japan spent 1.65 billion and 11.39 billion US dollars, respectively, on the infrastructure for the 2002 FIFA Football World Cup (Baade & Matheson, 2004; Lee & Bang, 2005). Another study by Gratton, Shibli, and Coleman (2005), demonstrates the infrastructure costs for the 2002 Manchester Commonwealth Games was £670 million. In these studies, the comparison between the final expenditure of infrastructure and the original budget for it becomes a way to measure whether the legacy of infrastructure projects is positive or negative. Even though these studies are able to identify whether or not a host city managed the budget on event infrastructure properly, there is still a lack of consideration on the long-term legacy of infrastructure when the event is completed (Müller, 2015; Stewart & Rayner, 2016).

It is possible that an identical infrastructure development strategy may result in various cities differently, it may play a positive role for some host cities, and a risky role for others (Swart & Bob, 2012). There are some host cities where the event-related

infrastructure was completed within the budget. However, even when the infrastructure projects were completed within the budget, the event venues and some event-related facilities were running at extremely low capacity or abandoned, which has been widely recognised as a negative legacy (white elephant) (Sturup, 2013). For instance, a host city (Kiev) of Ukraine renovated infrastructure for the European Football Championship, and the renovated facilities were only running at 10% of total capacity after the event in 2013 (Müller, 2015). When compared to some countries who underestimated the costs of infrastructure, the results might contradict those who manage the budget properly. The countries where infrastructure was built with a high cost also have the potential to optimise the value of infrastructure in order to benefit locals, regional communities or even countries after the event. When comparing the two cases above, it is controversial that the event-related facilities within the budget are largely related to a negative sports event legacy, whereas the infrastructure not within the budget can be connected to a positive legacy regardless of the underestimation of the costs. This explicitly and implicitly indicates that the total expenditure of sports event infrastructure is not enough to prove whether the infrastructure legacy within host cities is successful or not.

The number of participating athletes in the Winter Olympics is approximately five times fewer than the number in the Summer Olympics and the television revenue for the Winter Olympics is barely half that of the revenue for the Summer Olympics (Essex & Chalkley, 2004). Even though these numbers can fluctuate, the public interest in the Winter Olympics is still relatively less than the interest in the Summer Olympics (Kang & Kim, 2019). However, the infrastructure and facility requirements for hosting a Winter Games and Summer Games are proportionally similar, such as sports stadiums, accommodation and transportation (Essex & Chalkley, 2004). Even at some special points, the Winter Olympics will cost more budget than estimated, such as the needs for special locations (alpine environments) and expensive equipment to run the event smoothly (Essex & Chalkley, 2004).

Consequently, the hosting of a mega-event requires a large amount of investment in event infrastructure (Bama & Tembi, 2016). For instance, Japan and Korea spent roughly up to \$6 billion on stadiums for the co-hosting of the 2002 FIFA world cup (Bama & Tembi, 2016). A few years later, although the expenditure on the stadiums of the 2010 FIFA World Cup was nearly half that of the 2022 FIFA world cup, it was still expensive. According to Bama and Tembi (2016), FIFA required South Africa to provide a minimum of eight venues where 40,000 to 60,000 spectators could be seated in 2010, which cost as much as \$2.5 billion of the overall budget. Although these

examples are not the Winter Olympics, they can also reflect how high the cost of infrastructure is. As a result, host counties should consider the advantages and disadvantages of hosting a mega-event since the investment is so large. As asserted by Robbins (2012), the development benefits and risks of holding a mega-event should be placed on center stage because of the large number of resources required for the preparation of these events and the direct or indirect impact of resource consumption on the host population. In other words, these infrastructures may bring benefits or burdens to the local community, depending on how the host country plans the event specifically and properly (Preuss, 2015). Hence, many specialists from sports event management have emphasised both the positive and negative nature of hosting mega-events (Bama & Tembi, 2016).

Academics have expressed interest in discovering how a positive infrastructure legacy affects the host population. Brittain, Bocarro, Byers and Swart (2018) introduces that the promised development of infrastructure is frequently used by candidate cities as a bidding strategy to obtain the rights of hosting a mega-event. Furthermore, the renovated and new infrastructure for mega-events is able to bring better comfort, views and divisions to both local social and economic structure, which has the potential to effectively attract more spectators to local sports clubs for a while once the infrastructural improvements have been done (Kirby & Crabb, 2019). Besides, new landmark buildings (such as new stadiums) can become synonymous with the host city that represents its characteristics to enhance the image of the city (Cornelissen, Bob & Swart, 2011). Furthermore, a positive infrastructure legacy can be also served as a key role in the sustainability of future urban development and locals' recreational use (Essex & Chalkley, 2004). Meanwhile, a positive infrastructure legacy can be also connected to subsequent financial improvement, the vitality of local businesses and the core competitiveness of the host country on the international stage (Bama & Tembi, 2016).

Some scholars have also linked a positive infrastructure legacy to the increase in local sports participation (Reis, Frawley, Hodgetts, Thomson & Hughes, 2017) and new investment in the local tourism industry (Essex & Chalkley, 2004). As argued by Bama and Tembi (2016), if the infrastructure legacy is positive in a host county, the host country can receive the subsequent benefits (such as financial benefits) for as long as 30 years. Selecting the 1988 Seoul Olympic Games as an example, the event infrastructure has been making benefits for the local people since the event finished (Cho & Bairner, 2012). The stadiums have been employed for different purposes, such as organising sports events, running physical education programs or social and cultural entertainment (Cho & Bairner, 2012). The water management system that was

renovated for the Olympic Games still plays a key role in the guarantee of the quality of local lives (Cho & Bairner, 2012). Furthermore, the large number of accommodations built by the government enables middle-income groups to obtain housing security (Cho & Bairner, 2012).

Although the above example represents a pointer for host nations about how a sustainable infrastructure legacy could benefit the host destination, these benefits are primarily based on the premise of rigorous planning, appropriate management and operation of the infrastructure (Preuss, 2007). As pointed out by Pereira (2018), the event infrastructure may or may not benefit the host destination, depending heavily on how the development of local transportation can be distributed properly based on the real needs of locals. Additionally, the post-event reasonable application of sports infrastructure (such as accommodations, stadiums and transportation) are frequently associated with the long-lasting sustainability of sporting mega-events (Bama & Tembi, 2016).

Several studies have emphasised how local communities could be negatively impacted by conducting mega-events. According to Li (2013), thousands of residents have coercively vacated their homes for new infrastructure to come into that place. However, the layout of the sports venues is essential for an event or reuse after the event, which should be considered regarding the size of stadiums, a space with less pollution, greening degree, the sufficiency of water and power resources, the convenience of traffic and event-related accessories (such as hotels) (Gratton, Shibli & Coleman, 2005). Hence, the sports stadiums or related facilities are often located in the central place of the host city, which might occupy a large space in a crowded out downtown. This leads to a reduction of public spaces that might otherwise be used for public entertainment or even accommodation for residents. For example, except other buildings in the Summer Olympics (such as the Olympic village and parking lots), the venues for the Summer Olympics can usually occupy a space as large as approximately 700 hectares (Malfas, Houlihan & Theodoraki, 2004).

Throughout the history of mega or major events, the personal property rights of host city locals have been continuously attacked. For example, before London became the host city of the 2012 Summer Olympics, the local government of Clays Lane (a place in America) added the promise of "at least as good, if not better" for the relocation of housing of local residents who will vacate their homes for new infrastructure as a part of the bidding strategy (Armstrong, Hobbs, & Lindsay, 2011). Meanwhile, the representatives of Clays Lane's government also promised to increase the space,

quality and comfort of these resettlement houses. However, once London won the bid, the promises were turned into a version of "in so far as is reasonably practicable" (Armstrong, Hobbs, & Lindsay, 2011). The residents subsequently argued that they were extremely dissatisfied and would not move out due to the change of the promise. However, the final answer from the government as if there were no large-scale locals who wanted to be relocated, the locals will be isolated or even marginalized (Armstrong, Hobbs, & Lindsay, 2011). Another example occurred in Russia, when up to 1000 homes were taken by the Russian government in order to leave plenty of space for new highways and sports venues in the 2014 Sochi Winter Olympic Games (Crout, 2018). A further example in Rio indicates an upward trend of public space "infringement" until recently, the private property of low-income communities has been exploited for the infrastructure of 2016 Summer Games (Crout, 2018). Due to a limited number of studies about public space "infringement", this literature review only describes a limited number of examples, which at least reflects the serious issue of public space "infringement" due to hosting a mega-event.

2.4. Chapter Summary

The comprehensive literature review offered within this chapter illustrates that this is no longer a subject area lacking empirical evidence (Getz, 2000). The past two decades has seen plenty of academic and industry discourse on the overlapping subjects of sustainable sports event management and sports event legacy. The first section offered a systematic review of the sports event management literature from three perspectives: economic (profit), social (people) and environmental (planet). The closely connected sports event legacy literature was presented in three parts: economic, socio-cultural and environmental. The role of the media and the importance of (brand) image and identity was placed under the heading of socio-cultural legacy, although it could easily have been given its own section. Likewise, the subject of infrastructural legacy has, for the sake of this review, been placed under the heading of environmental legacy. In the next chapter, research demonstrates the research paradigm, methodology, techniques of quality control and ethical considerations as well as the research methods for data collection and analysis, are discussed in detail.

Chapter Three - Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The aim of this research is to identify the extent to which Auckland's Chinese diaspora believe that hosting the 2022 Winter Olympic Games will leave a positive or negative legacy for those living in Beijing, China. This chapter outlines the research process and presents a critical rationale for the methodology in order to help the researcher to answer the research question. The chapter starts with a background explanation of the paradigm that underpins this research and the methodology chosen. The chapter also offers an explanation and description of the adopted interpretive qualitative approach, data collection (including participant profiles) and analysis, and a discussion of the trustworthiness and ethical considerations relevant to this research.

3.2. Research paradigm

The current study is situated within an interpretivism inquiry paradigm, emphasising the variable and personal nature of social constructions (Lincoln, 1994). Such social constructions can be elicited and refined only through interaction *between and among* investigator and respondents (Lincoln, 1994). Research paradigms indicate what is worthy to learn and how knowledge is designed while providing a series of assumptions for the researcher to pursue when interpreting events and the world (Kankam, 2019). Additionally, research paradigms have been considered as various perspectives of perceptions about the world and have also been identified as a cornerstone for undertaking research (Lapan, Quartaroli & Riemer, 2012).

As pointed out by Lapan, Quartaroli and Riemer (2012), researchers can find out the reality and the nature of research questions by pursuing assumptions. At the same time, assumptions lead researchers to discover appropriate research methodologies for research questions and investigate how data can be better collected, analysed and transcribed. In other words, a comprehensive understanding of research paradigms plays a key role for researchers when they are undertaking a research project. Through a worldwide lens, qualitative industry experts Denzin and Lincoln (2000) realised that research paradigms can be considered as a strategy to understand the world (human interactions and constructions), which can inform basic human principles for researchers to facilitate the generation of meaningful data. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), the paradigm is not a single point, it is a comprehensive combination that covers four basic elements: ontology (truth), axiology (values), epistemology (knowledge) and methodology (strategy). Davis and Fisher (2018) categorised research paradigms into three primary groups: positivism, critical and interpretive

paradigms. Other paradigms, such as post-positivist and pragmatic paradigms have evolved from the three original paradigm categories (Davies & Fisher, 2018). However, only the interpretive paradigm is used to shape the theoretical framework in this research.

3.2.1 Interpretive paradigm

The central meaning of the interpretive paradigm can be viewed as an ontological method that assists researchers to observe directly the inner components of truth or the intricate and complex meanings of social phenomena and social structures (Kankam, 2019). The interpretive paradigm is one of the most compelling approaches among researchers as it primarily relies on a relativist ontology rather than positivist approaches (Davies & Fisher, 2018). This is probably because the interpretive paradigm does not verify and test theories but develops insights by persuading and deducing inductively (Davies & Fisher, 2018). Researchers in the field of interpretive approaches believe that truth and reality are not universally or consistently existing (Kankam, 2019). As a result, interpretivists hold a view that focuses on the importance of context and realism (Kankam, 2019).

The study of real-world human experiences and the meaning of social phenomenon from a subjective or an epistemological perspective can be prioritised in a study that employs an interpretive paradigm (Kankam, 2019; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). Hence, interpretive researchers normally devote a large amount of effort to investigating participants' subjective understanding, opinions, and experiences on a phenomenon (Kankam, 2019). Many qualitative research methodologies are informed by interpretive paradigms, such as grounded theory, ethnography, and narrative inquiry (Davies & Fisher, 2018). Several data collection techniques can be used to derive the interpretive data set, for example, individual/focus groups interview and observation (Davies & Fisher, 2018). The number of recruited participants should be limited to a small number in order to obtain an abundant and meaningful interpretation of their experiences about their world within the data set (Kankam, 2019). When creating knowledge and interpreting data collections, interpretivists are inevitably involved in the process of acknowledging and examining their potential research biases, the connection between themselves and the research findings, which means the interpretive paradigm is a strategy for researchers to get themselves into a self-reflective process (Davies & Fisher, 2018). According to Kivunja and Kuyini (2017), the four dimensions of trustworthiness (credibility, dependability, confirmability, and transferability) can be verified through conducting an interpretive paradigm approach, which differs from the dimensions of positivist criteria, such as validity and reliability.

Interpretive paradigms have been critiqued because of the limitation of transferability and a lack of applications of research findings to a common population (Davies & Fisher, 2018). However, Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) argued that subjects are being studied because of the contribution of interpretive paradigms. Instead of taking the viewpoints of researchers, interpretive paradigms are trying to understand and observe the interviewees' perspectives and viewpoints in order to make that contribution (Stavraki, 2014). This is because the interpretive paradigm focuses on participants' understanding, experiences and thoughts of an event as a foundation to analyse, understand and infer the potential meaning of the event and the relationship between participants' perceptions about the event and the context of the event (Kankam, 2019). In other words, the essence of the interpretive paradigm is to discover and study the participants' interpretation of an event or the world.

The characteristics of the interpretive approach in this research have been identified and classified as follows. Firstly, the real context of a social world cannot be represented by the single perspective of an individual, instead, it should be reflected by socially constructed and multiple-dimensional perspectives (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). Secondly, the researcher interacts with participants frequently in order to become familiar with their experiences about the world. Finally, this research respects and acknowledges the actual situations in the pursuit of truth and the generation of knowledge is contributed by research findings in order to control and avoid potential research biases (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017).

3.3. Research Methodology

A research methodology is recognised as a social and scientific discourse that involves investigating the way people behave, think and speak (Tesch, 2013). Research methodology holds a solid position between research techniques (methods and processes) and research discussions in both qualitative and quantitative research (Tesch, 2013). From the perspective of researchers, methodology provides a series of theoretical foundations that not only allows researchers to distinguish and evaluate the position of themselves within their research but also offers a deep insight in terms of the way of engaging with interviewees and the way of reporting their studies (Bansal, Tima, Smith & Vaara, 2018). Additionally, research methodology is recognised as an expression about the thoughts of researchers, provides a process to explore in-depth the research questions, and categorises research techniques (such as sampling). The research methodology also identifies how data can be processed and analysed (Taylor, Bogdan & DeVault, 2015). As pointed out by Tesch (2013), researchers can be also

identified as interpretivists who identify, discover, represent, evaluate and assess patterns and insights of inductive theorising in order to enable readers to understand the combination of theories and reality.

3.3.1. A qualitative approach

A qualitative research approach was applied to this study. Qualitative research enables the researcher to understand perceptions and meanings (Punch, 2005). Parent and Seguin (2007) pointed out that the sub-divisions of features within sports events are frequently indistinctive. This is probably because a sporting event not only includes the classification of different numerical data but also contains something that cannot be measured. For example, sporting events include several different characteristics relative to regional customs, local culture or even religion (Getz, 2008). It is widely recognised that quantitative research might tell people how things have been done or can be done by utilising the evidence from numerical data collection (Stake, 2010). This approach was selected because qualitative methodology relates to an ample description of different personal action, people's perceptions and understanding (Stake, 2010).

It is apparent that quantitative (objective numerical) research is not able to evaluate and demonstrate all phenomena in the world (Tesch, 2013). As argued by Stake (2010), human phenomena cannot be entirely demonstrated in quantities because they represent people's experiences, senses, intuitions, psychological activities and the expression of human behaviours and preferences. For example, although quantitative research provides descriptions about how things can be exactly done, it lacks an awareness of the inherent socially constructed phenomena (human phenomena) as compared to the deep insight that is provided by qualitative research (Yates & Leggett, 2016). Hence, scholars can investigate and discover the social and cultural behaviours, theories and principles due to the research patterns of qualitative research by focusing on the how and why of stories, which cannot be comprehensively illustrated in quantitative research (Stake, 2010).

3.4 Quality Control

As argued by Connell (2016), it is necessary that researchers consider a way to certify their research is a worthy choice for readers. As a result, it is necessary to evaluate and improve the trustworthiness in this research. There is an existing debate that qualitative research has been considered as a soft science when compared to the experimental methods and scientific background of quantitative research (Cope, 2014). Academics have critiqued qualitative research in different ways because the qualitative

researcher is normally subjective rather than being objective (Guest, MacQueen & Namey, 2012). This is probably because the primary feature of most quantitative research is based on the objective research directions, sufficient scientific data and large sample size, which has been further linked to research bias in qualitative research when compared to quantitative research (Guest, MacQueen & Namey, 2012). However, critiques have even been made concerning qualitative research, qualitative research inevitably differs from quantitative research in finding a way to approach or study humans (Guest, MacQueen & Namey, 2012).

Lincoln and Guba's (1985) study is the first publication that indicates four criteria associated with trustworthiness to ensure and develop trustworthiness within qualitative research: credibility, dependability, confirmability, and transferability. Therefore, four essential criteria will be considered as the basis for the trustworthiness of this paper in order to create a reliable data collection and trustworthy research. By doing so, the theories of these vital elements are firstly identified and demonstrated in this chapter. After that, this chapter discusses how the researcher will maintain trustworthiness in this research and how trustworthiness can be applied in this research in order to ensure the quality of data, interpretation of the stories and even the quality of this research (Connelly, 2016).

All in all, there are four criteria established in this study: credibility, dependability, confirmability, and transferability. After that, there are some techniques have been employed to ensure these four criteria, such as triangulation, peer debriefing, member checking and thick description. For example, all these techniques have been employed to support the credibility of trustworthiness. After that, the dependability of trustworthiness is ensured by using peer debriefing and member checking. Lastly, the confirmability and transferability of trustworthiness are backed up by employing triangulation and thick description, respectively. However, even though the mainstream of trustworthiness criteria has been mentioned above, there are still some potential risks that might interfere with the trustworthiness of this study, such as ethical considerations, the recruitment of participants and the conduction of data analysis (Connelly, 2016). This study considers the ethical implications in three ways (voluntary participation, confidentiality and minimization of risks) and identifies themes in the conduction of data analysis (refer to section 3.5). Additionally, this study established the basic standard of recruitment of participants. As a result, this study will minimise the impact of the above risks on trustworthiness to ensure the integrity and trustworthiness of this research.

3.4.1 Credibility

When the reader and other researchers can immediately agree with the social and human experiences expressed by the author, this qualitative research can be recognised as credible and trustworthy research (Cope, 2014). Credibility has been considered as the most essential criterion of trustworthiness for researchers to express their confidence about the truth of findings within a research study. This criterion not only represents the confidence of the researcher about findings in qualitative research but can also be used to testify or certify the internal validity of a quantitative study (Connelly, 2016). Several techniques are frequently used by researchers to ensure and support the credibility of research, such as member-checking, reflective journaling, observation, peer-debriefing, triangulation and prolonged involvement (Connelly, 2016).

3.4.2. Dependability

According to Connelly (2016), methods to ensure the dependability can be various, such as process logs and peer debriefing. The aim of dependability in this research is to certify or confirm whether the information matches the representation of research findings and interpretations (Cope, 2014). The position of dependability in qualitative research is as important as the position of reliability in quantitative research (Amankwaa, 2016). Dependability can be considered as the consistency and stabilisation of a data collection in research (Connelly, 2016). In other words, dependability is a way for researchers to make their data collection repeatable in similar situations or conditions (Amankwaa, 2016; Cope, 2014).

3.4.3. Confirmability

Confirmability can be regarded as a researcher's strategy to enable the research findings are natural, sustainable and repeatable (Cope, 2014). The definition of confirmability has also been interpreted as the ability of a researcher to illustrate and identify the data interpretation associated with participants' opinions and perceptions without the researcher's instinctive research bias (Connelly, 2016). For example, qualitative research becomes more objective rather than just subjective, when researchers use techniques to maintain and develop the confirmability of trustworthiness within their studies (Cope, 2014). There are several ways for researchers to enhance confirmability, including the discussion about how interpretations and conclusions are completed, or the evidence about how the data collection is corresponding to final findings (Cope, 2014).

3.4.4. Transferability

Transferability can be used as a tool that ensures research findings are applicable for individuals under different situations (Connelly, 2016). In other words, the level of transferability is the fundamental element that determines the level of applicability of research findings outside of the scope of research (Pitney, 2004). As suggested by Connelly (2016), if those who are not included in a research study can link the findings with their experiences, this means that this qualitative research meets the criteria for transferability. Hence, for readers to efficiently know whether research findings are applicable or well-matched to their experiences, this research will provide enough information about the details and context of this study (Pitney, 2004). For example, the researcher provides a delicate and clear description of the context, participants and direction of this study to depict a big picture and resonate with potential readers. However, the purposes and expected research outcomes primarily determine the standards and criteria of transferability (Amankwaa, 2016). At the same time, the criteria of transferability are applicable for research only if a researcher intends to produce generalizations in terms of a particular phenomenon (Cope, 2014).

3.4.5. Triangulation

Triangulation was used to ensure the credibility and conformability in this research. Taking a viewpoint from a social scientist, if there is only one data source, the incompatible data and research bias will be automatically confronted by the researcher (Amankwaa, 2016). However, triangulation is not a way that distinguishes or labels the data collection as feasible or infeasible (Cope, 2014). As argued by Cope (2014), triangulation has been considered as one of the most frequently used techniques to enrich and enhance credibility and confirmability within qualitative research. By definition, triangulation has been widely accepted as a function that employs at least two associated databases to derive a comprehensive, realistic and rich viewpoint of existing phenomenon (Amankwaa, 2016). Most importantly, because of the benefits of using triangulation, the researcher can avoid or reduce the risks of having research bias from a single data source (Amankwaa, 2016).

In order to implement triangulation in this qualitative research, two data sources were used to support this research to be credible, including the data sources from New Zealanders of Chinese origin/ heritage and recent migrants from China. In order to triangulate the data set, the researcher distinguishes the compatibility between the interpretation of data collection and the data collected from both groups, which will help the researcher to gain in-depth insight about different dimensions of the same data collection and avoid research biases. After that, this research compares and contrasts

the similarities and differences between the data collection and previous literature in the discussion section in order to provide more credible research.

3.4.6. Peer debriefing

Peer debriefing was used as a strategy to ensure both credibility and dependability in this research, which has opened the access for the researcher to develop the quality of the stories, findings, theories and interpretations in order to ensure the trustworthiness, sustainability and neutrality of this study. Peer debriefing, also known as analytic triangulation, has been considered as a technique for researchers to triangulate research analytically (Amankwaa, 2016). Through the process of peer debriefing, researchers are able to discuss all of the research processes (such as research design, data analysis and findings) in a research study with their peers in order to obtain a concise, rigorous and repeatable research outcome from different perspectives regarding a similar condition (Cope, 2014). For a researcher, a theoretically ideal peer debriefer should have a deep insight into the potential problems while being able to make meaningful recommendations to the researchers' research data interpretations (Cope, 2014). This at least allows researchers to critically consider their research project through an alternative or different explanation and angle (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016).

As discussed by Merriam and Tisdell (2016), there are several ways for researchers to implement peer debriefing, such as presenting their studies at an academic conference or communicating their research with a qualitative research specialist on a regular basis. Consequently, all crucial content (research design, data analysis, data interpretation, discussion and conclusion processes) of this research study has been discussed and evaluated with the primary and secondary supervisors since this study was begun in order to come up with a convincing and unbiased research study.

3.4.7. Member checking

Member checking was identified as another crucial method to establish credibility and dependability within a qualitative study (Amankwaa, 2016). Member checking has also been widely regarded as respondent validation (Amankwaa, 2016). The process of member checking was introduced by Cope (2014). For example, when data analysis has been classified into themes and completed, the researcher sends a summary of the data analysis, transcriptions of video recordings and conclusions back to where the researcher originally derived the data from (interviewees) in order to ask for feedback. This enables the researcher to verify the accuracy of the data interpretation and the validity of the conclusion (Cope, 2014).

Some academics have argued and questioned the practicability of member checking because the data set of qualitative research may contain a variety of sources of information so that participants are less likely to think about it from their perspective (Cope, 2014). These data sources may include data from interviews and data from participants' body language during interviews or even from the researcher's notes (Amankwaa, 2016). Consequently, a respondent might have a concept that the interpretations are not their idea because of the hidden nature of final interpretations, even though there is something about what they were trying to express before (Cope, 2014). Therefore, member checking should not be considered as a method to argue whether data analysis is correct or not, but as a way to enhance and improve credibility and dependability of data analysis in this research (Cope, 2014).

To implement member checking, the researcher sent the transcription of audio-recording and the themes associated with their experiences back to the interviewees. At the same time, they are asked questions in communicating emails, such as do you think the transcriptions and interpretations match to your expression and thoughts? If they had any different opinion or viewpoint about the transcriptions and the draft themes, they were free to add, edit and delete irrelevant information after a discussion with the researcher. This helped to maintain the truth and accuracy of transcriptions and interpretations of data and avoid mistaken points. Once they had agreed with the authenticity and accuracy of transcriptions and themes, this information was then used to synthesize and summarize final version themes (research findings). After that, when final themes were completed, they received an email that contained the information about final themes.

3.4.8. Thick description

Thick description was recruited as a strategy to inform the transferability and credibility of trustworthiness in this research (Amankwaa, 2016). Thick description can be defined as a way for researchers to maintain external validity (transferability) (Corbetta, 2003). As argued by Corbetta (2003), thick description is a detailed description of the settings, including and excluding criteria of recruitment of participants, as well as the personal characteristics and information of the participants, and how the data is collected and summarized. This might help readers to identify whether the conclusions of a study are transferable to other individuals, communities, conditions and settings (Amankwaa, 2016).

As a result, to maintain transferability in this research, the researcher introduced the direction and expected outcomes of this study in order to depict a big picture for potential readers to have a clear idea about the context of the study. After that, data collection (such as sampling, inclusion criteria for the recruitment of participants and a brief description about each participant who has been participated in this research) and data analysis methods (such as thematic analysis) outlined in detail in the research methodology section in order to prove how the research conclusions are transferable to other settings and certify the external validity of this research.

3.5. Ethical considerations

Ethical approval was acquired from the AUT Ethics Committee prior to the commencement of the data collection process. In order to ensure all participants are willingly and voluntarily to be included in this research, an information pack was sent to each of them before individual interviews. This pack included a participant information sheet (Appendix A), pre-interview questions (Appendix B) and a consent form (Appendix C). The main purpose of this information pack was to let participants know if the specific content and the direction of this research are in line with their interests. This information pack would also enable them to understand that the reflective or personal experience information they share will be used as a part of the data collection in this research. At the same time, this information pack allowed them to understand that this study would not advantage or disadvantage them, and they had the right to choose whether or not to participate in this study. Once participants return the consent form and pre-interview questions, the researcher double-checked that the participants fully understood the information and confirmed whether they agreed that their individual interview data could become a part of this research. After that, the researcher proceeded to prepare the appropriate time and location of the interview for the mutual convenience of both the researcher and participants.

The participants were informed that they could withdraw from this research study at any time even if they had already been interviewed. Should they have wanted to withdraw, they were able to choose to have their individual interview information deleted or kept as a data source for this research. However, once all the interview data had been analyzed or interpreted, then their interview information was unable to be withdrawn. Furthermore, due to the complexity of language, these participants were asked to confirm that their interview recordings were an accurate representation of their answers. If they choose to be involved in the transcript verification process, they were free to add additional comments and clarification on the original basis of their interview data.

3.5.1 Confidentiality

When conducting data collection processes with participants, it is possible that some of their personal information will be exposed to the researcher. Every participant was asked to provide contact information once the researcher sent them a copy of pre-interview questions. However, it is their option that determines whether to provide their detailed contact information to the researcher. At the same time, the personal and interview information collected from participants was only to be used for the purposes of this study. Most importantly, the researcher was the only person who had the right to collect and have access to the personal information of participants in this research. As a result, the researcher guaranteed, by using codes, that their personal information and privacy would be protected and not be exposed to the public (except the supervisors).

When the contact details were gathered, their contact details were securely stored in an excel document that was located in the researcher's password-controlled laptop. After the completion of the consent form, the consent forms were stored separately from the data collection. All audio files regarding the seven individual interviews are stored on the researcher's password-protected laptop. The audio-recording of each interview was transcribed and the transcriptions of all interview audio-recording were assigned a code. All data will be stored for six years. Afterwards, all data will be fully deleted, paper data in relation to the research will be shredded.

3.5.2 Minimisation of risk

It was deemed unlikely that the interviewees would suffer from high levels of discomfort or embarrassment through participating in this study. When conducting the interviews, the researcher avoided serious and sensitive issues. However, it was acknowledged that some of the research questions may initiate an emotional response. Consequently, the interviewees were informed of their right to refuse to answer any research question or even turn off the audio-recording devices during an interview in order to minimize potential risks.

3.6. Research methods I: Data Collection

Sampling has been defined as one of the most important research techniques that identify appropriate participants based on the inclusion and exclusion criteria of potential participants in a research study (Corbetta, 2003). However, sampling is not limited to how to select appropriate participants. It is considered as a speculative and reflective approach because it enables researchers to obtain feasible results when they encounter or learn from different samples (Corbetta, 2003). As argued by EL-Masri (2017), sampling can be recognised as a research technique that reflects a nearly

natural human act. According to Corbin, Strauss and Strauss (2008), sampling can be classified into two major sampling strategies: probability sampling and non-probability sampling.

Convenience sampling is a way for researchers to easily find and reach samples (Corbetta, 2003). When compared to convenience sampling, the sampling procedures of the purposive sampling strategy depend heavily on the expected research outcomes and purposes of a research study (Thompson, 2012). Therefore, all selected samples should be highly or completely related to the purposes of research (Thompson, 2012). In other words, purposive samples should fit with the purposes of the authors' lists about the considerations of their research. When considering the selection of suitable participants, purposive and convenience sampling were the two non-probability sampling strategies chosen (Punch, 2005). The participants needed to meet specific criteria:

- Resident in New Zealand
- New Zealanders of Chinese origin/ heritage or recent migrants from China
- Over the age of 18 years
- Some snow sports experience

Two sample groups (New Zealanders of Chinese origin/ heritage and recent migrants from China) were invited to participate in this research in Auckland. There are two reasons why New Zealanders of Chinese origin/ heritage or recent migrants from China were selected for this study, rather than those currently living in Beijing or elsewhere in China. First, people who live outside of China would have a different viewpoint based on their access to different, unbiased, information (i.e. local media reports on the bidding process and legacy-related plans). Second, it was agreed that people who live in Beijing might do not have the opportunity to share what they really thought due to the well-documented constraints around freedom of speech, which would have had negatively affected/compromised the reliability and truthfulness of the findings. The study targeted participants with an interest in Snowsport, either through active participation or through passive spectatorship. This decision was made based on a belief that they would be more likely to have some prior knowledge of, and an opinion on, the topic of the Winter Olympics being hosted in China.

To gain access to these participants, the researcher obtained permission to recruit participants during a couple of visits to Snowplanet, an Auckland-based artificial indoor ski-field. A site consent was completed (Appendix D) and the manager of Snowplanet was asked to distribute an advert (Appendix E) to potential participants according to the

pre-specified criteria of this study (see above). Potential participants were asked to complete pre-interview questions and to complete a consent form (see Appendix A-C). When the pre-interview question forms were collected, the inclusion criteria were applied and all participants were informed of their selection/non-selection.

In total, 21 potential participants were asked to complete pre-interview questions. However, after comparing these potential participants, twelve were selected as suitable interviewees because of the inclusion criteria. After sending an invitation to these potential participants, seven agreed to be interviewed. Among the seven participants, there were four males and three females, three were New Zealanders of Chinese origin (NC) and four were recent migrants from China (CM). The seven participants were given the opportunity to be interviewed in English or Mandarin, the latter of which was chosen by all involved. The interviews were translated from Mandarin into English by the researcher, prior to the thematic analysis process.

3.6.1. Semi-structured interview

Semi-structured interview is considered as one of the most essential research techniques to acquire and accumulate personal meanings (Walliman, 2011). During the period from July 2019 to August 2019, seven semi-structured interviews took place at AUT's campus and Snowplanet. All interviews took 45 to 60 minutes, including the process of getting to know each other and break time. An audio-recording device (phone) was used to record the interview information. After interviewing the first couple of interviewees, the brief model of data collection was conceptualised and took shape. This not only allowed the rest of the interviews to be completed more appropriately and in detail and also provided opportunities for the researcher to critically revise and identify problems in the interview questions at the planning stage. The interview audio-recording of each individual interview was transcribed and turned into a document. This was sent back to the seven interviewees in order to ensure the quality, accuracy and reality of the transcription (a form of member checking).

In these semi-structured interviews, the researcher prepared a list of open-ended research questions (Appendix F) about the research outline and expected research outcomes. As deliberated by Walliman (2011), when participants are being interviewed, these open-ended research questions enable research investigators to constantly consider and question the direction of their research and even the position of themselves in their research in a more rigorous and detailed way. However, there is no strict standard that can determine how researchers ask indicative research questions in detail (Hammond & Wellington, 2013). For example, researchers are able to ask extra

follow-up questions after asking the research questions in order to obtain more in-depth data from participants (Bernstein & Lysniak, 2018).

The interviewing technique employed allowed both researcher and participants to have a high degree of expression freedom and offer a deeper insight into what has been done in the research from different angles during and after an interview (Bernstein & Lysniak, 2018). Meanwhile, this will enable researchers to ensure that more essential information is discovered and the adequacy of data collection (Corbetta, 2003). However, even though this type of interviewing research technique promotes depth and expression freedom during the conduction of interviews, researchers still need to define the boundaries of the research questions in terms of the research outline (Walliman, 2011). This is because the depth of the interview depends on whether the researchers realise that these further and following questions are beneficial or suitable for the direction, objectives and potential research outcomes (Corbetta, 2003).

3.7. Research methods II: Data Analysis

The raw interview data (the transcribed audio-recordings) was analysed using thematic analysis. This allowed for the creation of seven authentic and original stories. Thematic analysis has attracted a large amount of attention from different fields, such as social science (Clifford, Standen & Jones, 2018), psychology (Lehmann, Murakami & Klempe, 2019), mental health (Steven, Trankle & Jennifer Reath, 2019), art and design (Lin, 2019), transportation (Nikitas, Wang, & Knamiller, 2019) and tourism (Zhu, Duncan & Tucker, 2019). Many academics have given their definition of thematic analysis. Briefly, thematic analysis is a way to analysis, manage, demonstrate, characterize and report a database (Braun & Clarke, 2006). As a qualitative analytic approach, thematic analysis is better understood as an umbrella term, designating sometimes quite different approaches aimed at identifying patterns (themes) across qualitative datasets (Braun & Clarke, 2012, 2013).

Thematic analysis provides a high level of flexibility that enables researchers to easily approach the demands and purposes of their study and enrich a specific and logical data collection for their research (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Furthermore, according to Nikitas, Wang and Knamiller (2019), thematic analysis can be considered as a comprehensive qualitative research method that recruits the recording, organising and disclosing of research findings and analysis methods to achieve a preciseness, consistency and exhaustiveness of a study, which allows people to consider that this research has a high standard of credibility and dependability. As argued by Smith

(2015), thematic analysis is a most helpful research data analysis method that paves the way for researchers to capture the complexities and deeper meaning of data within qualitative research. He then pointed out that thematic analysis is more insightful than just simply collecting or calculating words and phrases from participants, as it concentrates on discovering and describing the apparent or inconspicuous perspectives (themes) within a data set. According to Nowell, Norris, White and Moules (2017), thematic analysis can be considered as a cornerstone that offers central and comprehensive skills for the conduction of many categories of qualitative analysis in qualitative studies. They also argued that thematic analysis can be recognised as a way to translate different data representations between qualitative and quantitative analysis, which will enable researchers who use different research methods to exchange useful information and ideas with each other.

Although thematic analysis has attracted a lot of attention in qualitative research, there are few comprehensive and empirical pieces of literature to guide people on how to perform a rigorous thematic analysis, even though many academics believe that thematic analysis is useful for research questions and research outcomes (Nowell, Norris, White & Moules, 2017). Furthermore, even though thematic analysis always exists, scholars and investigators seldom value it as much as grounded theory or phenomenology (Braun & Clarke, 2006). This is because many researchers hold the view that thematic analysis is not a single entity in qualitative research methods, but a tool that can help researchers to synthesize and analyze data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Therefore, thematic analysis should deserve the right to be respected and valued adequately (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Moreover, a strict standard of thematic analysis can help researchers to improve the trustworthiness and insightful perspective of research findings. However, there has been a lack of enough standard format of instruction that tells researchers how to apply thematic analysis in a rigorous way (Lehmann, Murakami & Klempe, 2019).

Through the lens of thematic analysis, different perspectives of research interviewees can be observed in more detail and in-depth, especially when comparing and contrasting the similarities and differences between interviewees' personal experiences and viewpoints, which may help researchers to generate an unforeseen point of view (Nikitas, Wang & Knamiller, 2019). Furthermore, instead of focusing on the opinions and impressions of a researcher, thematic analysis is going to dedicate to refine and interpret the data-based findings throughout the procedures of analysis (Nikitas, Wang & Knamiller, 2019).

Thematic analysis is also known for its ability to help a researcher to summarise emphases within a great data collection (King, Cassell & Symon, 2004). For example, once a researcher has decided to recruit thematic analysis as a data analysis tool, they will be forced to create a comprehensive structure (themes) to deal with a data set, which helps a researcher to write a well-organised and explicit final report (King, Cassell & Symon, 2004). Consequently, thematic analysis will be employed as an analytical tool that helps the researcher to identify data collection into several themes. Furthermore, a series of insightful stories will be constructed from the findings of thematic analysis. These stories will offer new insights and understandings about the perceptions of Auckland's Chinese diaspora in terms of the legacies attached to the 2022 Winter Olympics in Beijing.

3.7.1. The six steps of thematic analysis

This research followed the suggested six steps of thematic analysis in Braun and Clarke's (2006) study: getting closer to the data set, producing codes, constructing themes, reviewing themes, giving a definition and title for the themes, summarising and writing the final report. Instead of jumping directly into data generation, the first step of thematic analysis concentrated on analysis. Getting closer to the data set can be recognised as an essential starting point when researchers are trying to conduct a thematic analysis, which enables the researcher to be familiar with the data set in order to increase reflexivity and obtain a better insight (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

As suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006), researcher discovered and pay attention to the essential points of the relationship between the data set and the research direction, and find out how the information provided by the interviewees differs from the existing literature, which paves the way for further coding processes. Moving on to the next step, producing codes is a process where the researcher engages in the data set methodically and in more detail. In this process, no matter what kind of coding techniques (such as inductive or deductive orientation) the researcher utilised to integrate information from the data set, some meaningful units were selected from a large amount of data to become two levels of codes, including semantic codes (surface data) and hidden codes (inconspicuous data) (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

As asserted by Smith (2015), codes are generally improved to represent the themes that have been discovered and identified, and codes can also be considered as smaller meaning units for identifying and classifying themes for further analysis processes. After that, the researcher constructed themes concerning the codes. This process integrated all the codes that were selected and then classified them. Each category of

code was represented a different meaning in the data set. However, not all themes that were made up by codes would become the final findings, but those that were connected to the research question in-depth, representatively, and coherently (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Due to the strong social and cultural background of thematic analysis, it is necessary for the researcher to devote more time and effort to be familiar with or transcript the data collection.

The fourth step of thematic analysis was to double-check and review the themes in reflecting on the original data collection. It is also crucial that the researcher should have an explicit viewpoint about what is relevant in each theme (Smith, 2015). After the procedure of reviewing themes, the researcher gained a distinct and in-depth understanding of the primary notion and limits of all the themes that have been summarized, including secondary and tertiary themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Since then, defining themes can be as simple as giving a corresponding name to the central theory and scope of the themes. By doing that, the researcher summarised a paragraph to demonstrate the prime features and boundaries of each theme in order to help the researcher to easily derive a name that has an overall descriptiveness to the theme (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

The final step of thematic analysis was entirely a writing practice (writing a report) (Braun & Clarke, 2006). However, it was not only the final step for thematic analysis but also the final step for the majority of research methods. At this stage, the researcher integrated all the information in the preceding five phases to ensure that the data analysis symmetrically and convincingly answers the research question (Braun & Clarke, 2006). This at least ensured that this research meets the demands of the research direction or where the researcher wants the research to go (Smith, 2015). However, the quality of the final report primarily depends on the quality of every single step that the researcher took in the thematic analysis, especially, the constructing themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Themes that were ultimately determined to compare and contrast with the existing empirical literature in the field of sports event management in order to figure out the similarities and differences, which provided opportunities for the researcher to have a more in-depth insight into the research question and topic.

3.7.2. The application of the six steps

All individual interviews were recorded by using the recording software on the researcher's phone. The records of the interviews were transcribed in a word document which has been further used for initial memo writing and interpretation. This is simply a

process in which the researcher becomes familiar with the interview data. Certainly, in order to get closer to the data set, the researcher once again attempted to deeply understand the meanings that the participants want to express and develop data interpretations by reading the transcriptions and interpretations in more detail and more seriously.

Every single meaningful unit was given a corresponding code. The researcher not only gave these meaningful units the corresponding codes but also gave the names of all participants through the coding process in order to protect their privacy and avoid the potential risks of being exposed to the public. Table 1 shows how the codes were ultimately converted into themes. Codes that are not relevant to the research question or are rarely mentioned by participants were excluded.

Table 1 Code construction and theme identification

Transcription	Codes	Theme	Legacy
"Taking the viewpoint from an audience, it is interesting to go to the 2022 Winter Olympics because this is the first time China ever host the Winter Olympics." CM 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Audiences • Travel • Intention • Interests 	The thriving of the tourism industry	Economic
"The host of the 2022 Winter Olympics may raise some financial burdens for locals, such as the rising price on hotels, restaurants, local transportation and so on." CM 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Price rising • Service industry • Local expenditure 	The financial burden on both local taxpayers and government	
"After the Olympic Games, local residents will be given a new understanding of winter sports, and people will start to pay more attention to or experience some snow activities thereafter." CM 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local engagement • Awareness of sports • Winter sports • Attention on sports 	The increase in local sports participation	socio-cultural
"The increase in the number of foreigners may cause congestion in traffic." CM 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Congestion • Impact on locals • Foreigners • Traffic 	The disruption of normal traffic order in Beijing	socio-cultural

The third, fourth, and fifth steps were put together and all seven participants were divided into two groups, including recent Chinese migrants and New Zealanders of Chinese origin. Among participants, recent Chinese migrants were coded to the CM group, and the four participating members in this group were renamed CM 1, CM2,

CM3 and CM4. Similarly, New Zealanders of Chinese origin were coded to the NC group, and all three participating members were anonymous to NC1, NC2 and NC3. A profile was created for each participant (refer to section 4.2).

After integrating all themes, the researcher once again re-analysed and reviewed the correlation, connectivity and correctness of all the participants' transcriptions with codes and themes so that the researcher could have a deeper insight into each theme. Once the final reviewing of the themes was completed the themes were linked back to the different types of legacy discussed within the existing literature. As suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006), the final step of the thematic analysis of this research obtained and extracted all essential information from the previous five steps in order to comprehensively answer the research question in the following research findings section.

3.8. Chapter summary

This chapter (methodology) started with the research paradigm (interpretive paradigm) in order to help the researcher to understand the deeper meaning of the social phenomenon. Background information of research methodology and a qualitative approach were illustrated to find out why, what and how the methodology could be used in this research. In order to ensure the quality of this research, many research techniques were employed, including credibility, dependability, confirmability, transferability, triangulation, peer-debriefing, member-checking and thick description. At the same time, confidentiality and minimisation of risks were used to protect participants from participating in this research. In the following chapter, the themes based on the interpretation of interviews, are demonstrated. Identified themes (research findings) were discussed in relation to the literature to review the similarity and differences between the research findings and previous research.

Chapter Four- Research findings and discussion

4.1. Introduction

As discussed previously, this study adopted a qualitative research methodology. The end goal was to gain an understanding about to what extent Auckland's Chinese diaspora believe that hosting the 2022 Winter Olympic Games will leave a positive or negative legacy for those living in Beijing, China. In doing so, the researcher's intention was to highlight the perceptions and meanings associated with each participant's experience (Yates & Leggett, 2016). The rich and complex database of perceptions consequently led to the generation of themes for future research and further discussion (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

4.2. Participant profiles

Four recent Chinese migrants (CM) and three New Zealanders of Chinese origin (NC) were recruited as participants who contributed their life experiences and perceptions to the research data set. As discussed earlier in the data analysis section, thematic analysis was recruited as a data analysis tool which helped the researcher to generate corresponding themes. This section provides a profile for each participant. However, instead of using participants' real names in this research, their names were replaced with a code. For example, Chinese migrants and New Zealanders of Chinese origin/heritage were coded as CM and NC, respectively.

4.2.1. The profile of Chinese migrants

CM1 This male participant was Chinese with New Zealand permanent residency. CM1 was actively involved in various sports activities and events since he was in high school, such as track and field events. This participant has been employed in sports-related work (such as sports training and rehabilitation) since he graduated from the Beijing University of Sport (more than ten years ago). These experiences enabled him to have a deeper insight into the history of Chinese sports development, real conditions of Beijing as a host city and mega-events. However, this participant did not have a deep contact with snow sports. For example, he did not go to any winter sports events in person, and only participated in skiing activities several times, including a recent indoor skiing trip with friends at Snowplanet.

CM2 was a female participant with Chinese nationality and New Zealand permanent residency. From the aspect of CM2's job, there was no relevance between CM2's career and winter sports. However, this participant was from Beijing and had participated in a local soccer event as a player. This participant normally spent time

with family members and friends on snow sports during holidays. For example, CM2 had been skiing with her family in China in the previous 12 months.

CM3 This female participant's nationality was Chinese, but she had held New Zealand permanent residency for 15 years. This participant's occupation (self-employed) was not directly related to winter sports but she had a deeper understanding and connection with winter sports outside of work. For instance, she had been participated in three different winter sporting events, including being a snowsport participant, spectator and supporter. CM3 participated in skiing activities with her children on a regular basis. More importantly, CM3 attended several snowsport regional championships as a spectator and supporter in China. Within the past twelve months, she had participated in one indoor skiing activity (Snowplanet) and one outdoor skiing activity (South Island).

CM4 This Chinese male participant had the right to live in New Zealand permanently. This interviewee was working as a tennis coach with a deep understanding of Chinese sports activities and background. He had a strong background in sports because he had studied at Tianjin University of Sports (China). CM4 had been trained professionally in several sports, such as sprinting, basketball and tennis. He normally watched snowsport events on television and news channels.

4.2.2. The profile of New Zealanders of Chinese origin

NC1 was a female participant who held New Zealand citizenship with an origin from China. She was a student at Massey University. NC1 often attended a gym and sometimes participated in some outdoor sports in New Zealand, such as skiing. Although the participant had New Zealand citizenship, she had lived in Beijing, China for a few years. She, therefore, had a level of understanding of sporting events and related situations in both China and New Zealand. However, this participant had not watched any snow sport events in person prior to her semi-structured interview.

NC2 This participant was a New Zealand citizen originally from China who had recently graduated from high school and entered tertiary level of education. NC 2 always liked to do both indoor and outdoor sports activities, such as weightlifting, cardio exercises and soccer. This participant used to participate in his football and ice hockey teams at high school, which had resulted in his deep understanding of snowsport.

NC3 This male participant used to be a Chinese citizen who lived in Shanghai, China. He came to New Zealand 16 years ago. NZ 3 was a personal instructor and has a strong sports background. NC3 often participated in a variety of sports activities and

winter sports. He normally went to skiing with his children, including both indoor (Snowplanet) and outdoor skiing.

Key themes are now discussed to capture the perceptions of the above participants regarding the importance of the potential legacies of the 2022 Winter Olympic Games in Beijing.

4.3. The perceived importance to host destination

In order to investigate the perceived legacies of hosting the 2022 Winter Olympics, the nineteen coding themes identified were packaged under five headings. The five broader themes discussed in this chapter are socio-cultural, economic, environmental, reputation and infrastructure. These align with the three types of legacy covered in the Literature Review (refer to section 2.3). Reputation/reputational risk was mentioned often in the seven transcripts to justify its own heading, despite the overlap with the existing literature on ‘image’ and ‘identity’ (branding). Similarly, whilst Infrastructure was placed under the heading of environmental legacy within the literature review, it has been given its own section in the findings. Table 2 reveals the nineteen positive and negative coding themes extracted from the seven interview transcripts.

Table 2 The Themes

Legacy type	Coding Themes (positive & negative)
Perceived socio-cultural legacy	Positive 1. Social and cultural exchanges 2. The facilitation of national cohesion or nationalism 3. The increase in local sports participation
	Negative 1. Local safety risks 2. Damage to the basic rights and interests of locals 3. The disruption of normal traffic order in Beijing
Perceived economic legacy	Positive 1. Inward investments 2. The thriving of the tourism industry 3. Employment opportunities
	Negative 1. The financial burden on both local taxpayers and government 2. Disturbing other local developing projects
Perceived reputation legacy	Positive 1. An improved image 2. Growing soft power 3. City branding
	Negative

	None
Perceived infrastructure (physical) legacy	Positive 1. The development of local infrastructure
	Negative 1. The possibility of generating a future financial burden 2. Infrastructural incompatibility with local daily demands
Perceived environment legacy	Positive 1. The development of local environment
	Negative 1. Environmental pollution

Table 2. reveals the nineteen positive and negative coding themes extracted from the seven interview transcripts. Six coding themes, half positives and half negatives, were placed under the umbrella of socio-cultural legacy. Five themes were placed under the heading of economic legacy, three of which were positive. The conversations around Image and Identity-based legacy, are referred to hereon as reputational legacy. Reputational legacy generated three codes, all of which were positive. Three codes were extracted from the conversations about infrastructure legacy, two of which were negative. Finally, the questions around environmental legacy generated two codes, one positive and one negative.

Having extracted five legacy-related themes from the initial coding themes, each participant was asked to rank them in terms of their perceived importance to the resident population of Beijing. The ranking was divided into five levels, with level one being the most important and five being the least (refer Table 3).

Table 3 Perceived legacy for Beijing host residents

Rank	CM1	CM2	CM3	CM4	NC1	NC2	NC3
1	Socio-cultural	Socio-cultural	Economic	Socio-cultural	Socio-cultural	Economic	Economic
2	Economic	Reputation	Reputation	Economic	Economic	Socio-cultural	Socio-cultural
3	Reputation	Economic	Socio-cultural	Reputation	Reputation	Reputation	Infrastructure (physical)
4	Infrastructure (physical)	Infrastructure (physical)	Environment	Environment	Infrastructure (physical)	Environment	Reputation
5	Environment	Environment	Infrastructure (physical)	Infrastructure (physical)	Environment	Infrastructure (physical)	Environment

Table 3 reveals that, amongst the seven participants of this study, the potential/perceived socio-cultural and economic legacies of the 2022 Winter Olympic Games were consistently ranked as being more important than the potential/perceived

infrastructural (physical) and environment legacies. The thinking and rationale behind these perceptions are discussed in further detail in the following section.

4.4. Perceived socio-cultural legacy (Theme 1)

All four of the Chinese Migrants (CM) participants perceived that the Winter Olympics could bring cultural and social exchanges to the host city (Beijing) or China in order to build positive socio-cultural legacy, such as social development and the influence of Chinese culture in the world. For instance, CM2 considered that “Organising the 2022 Winter Olympics offers a platform for China to present the national power and communicate with countries”. Additionally, some participants expressed some different opinions, focusing on the cultural diversity that the event could bring to the host destination after the event. CM4 suggested that “If this Winter Olympics was successfully hosted, the event would further generate a number of benefits to Beijing, such as the enhancement of global image and city branding, cultural diversity and tourism development”.

Participants from the New Zealand of Chinese Origin (NC) group also perceived that the 2022 Winter Olympic Games would promote social and cultural exchanges that enhanced China's existing cultural status and the understanding of different countries' sports culture. As deliberated by NC3, “During the Olympic Games, as Beijing is the transit point for the Winter Olympics transportation, local residents in Beijing will have direct contact with a large number of foreign visitors, so that they can better understand the Winter Olympics through different perspectives”. Moreover, there was a perception that the Winter Olympics could promote social and cultural exchanges between cities in different parts of China, thus creating positive socio-cultural legacy during the post-event period. For example, NC3 claimed that, “I think that Beijing will continue to maintain the public interests in winter sports. This will subsequently promote cultural, sports and economic exchanges between Zhangjiakou and Beijing after the Winter Olympics”. As claimed by NC2, “The investment and business opportunities that are provided by hosting will increase the local economy, which results in the increase of standard of living and happiness among locals”.

There are many ways to deliver the socio-cultural components of a mega-event (Getz, 2019; Karadakis & Kaplanidou, 2012; Koosha, Yoosefy & Khabiri, 2017; Lui, 2016; Savić, 2007). Mega-events attract competitors and spectators from many countries into one place, which offers opportunities for locals and people who are associated with the event to learn about the lifestyles, cultures, customs and characteristics of different countries (Savić, 2007). They can be accepted as a multicultural social event in which

people share or exchange their perceptions about their different cultural backgrounds (Savić, 2007). Social and cultural exchange was discussed within all seven transcripts as being a reason why the host population in Beijing could potentially benefit from hosting the 2022 Winter Olympic Games. Many referred to the 2008 Summer Olympic Games, which allowed locals to interact with people from different countries to understand different national traditions, cultural habits and national characteristics from different perspectives (Yong & Ap, 2009). The perception of the participants aligns with the premise of social exchange theory, which suggests that the host population will be involved in the process of exchanging social and cultural perceptions with others, especially if they think the process will be beneficial for them without demanding unreasonable expense (Karadakis & Kaplanidou, 2012).

CM1 argued that, "If there is an opportunity for me to go to the Winter Olympics, I will go to the venues and cheer for our Olympic teams". Furthermore, some participants thought that the hosting of the Winter Olympics or as a member of the host population would make them proud. As illustrated by CM3, "I think that the impact of hosting the event on Beijing residents will mainly remain at a psychological level because when Chinese heard that the 2022 Winter Olympics will be held in Beijing. They would proud of it".

The hosting of mega-events can generate national pride amongst the host population (Lau, Lam, Leung, Choi & Ransdell, 2012). Social cohesion and a sense of belonging can be considered as a positive social legacy in which host residents express their involvement, loyalty and the recognition of values and beliefs to their counties (Gorokhov, 2015; Lau, Lam, Leung, Choi & Ransdell, 2012; Penfold, 2019).

Cornelissen, Bob & Swart (2011) suggested that a mega-event needs the support of the local community and the potential facilitation of national cohesion was one of the recurring themes within the seven transcripts. The 2022 Winter Olympic Games was viewed as an opportunity to replicate the national cohesiveness witnessed in 2008, when China hosted the Summer Olympic games.

According to the interview information from CM participants, all CM participants thought that hosting a mega-event had the potential to foster local interests in and capture host population's attention regarding snow sport, which would further increase sports participation. For example, CM3 perceived that "Local residents will be given a new understanding of winter sports, and people will start to pay more attention to or experience some snow activities thereafter, which is key to public health". A further example by CM4 proposed that the development of sports participation could be seen in several groups of locals. CM4 claimed that, "Winter sports will be promoted and

popularised in many sports organisations, communities and schools after the Winter Olympics". CM1 considered the connection between hosting the Winter Olympics and sports participation from a different angle, focusing on the level of participation of future athletes in winter sports. He stated that, "There will be a positive impact on the training of new snowsport athletes because there are many young and new athletes who will be more involved in winter sports".

All NC participants considered that there was a potential positive relationship between the 2022 Winter Olympics and local sports participation. For example, NC3 linked the sporting spirit of the Winter Olympics to the increased sports participation of Beijing residents. He said that "The Winter Olympics will allow more people in China to understand the entire concept of the event, which promotes residents' participation in winter sports". He then pointed out that these positive reactions might lead to more investment in winter sports, which in turn could lead to more local participation in snow sports. NC3 said, "After the Winter Olympics, due to the enthusiasm of local residents for snow sports, the government may increase investment in winter sports". Or, as NC1 suggested, the event may make people more interested in sports. He stated that, "The hosting of the Winter Olympic Games will affect locals positively. Locals will be more enthusiastic and take part in Olympic Winter sports, such as skiing".

Many countries and sports organisations tend to promote sports activities with the expectation to highlight the essence of sports participation among the population by reinforcing associated supporting and guiding policies (Aizawa, Wu, Inoue & Sato, 2018). The terms of sports participation can be considered as a long-term investment of government that includes several components, such as the influences of world-class athletes and the coverage of mass media, which enable the number of people who take up sports activities, the membership of sports organisations and clubs to be increased (Annear, Shimizu & Kidokoro, 2019). Coincidentally, one of the most important characteristics of sports mega-events highlights the determination of the event itself concerning sports participation among the host population (Aizawa, Wu, Inoue & Sato, 2018; Brown, Essex, Assaker & Smith, 2017).

According to Annear, Shimizu and Kidokoro (2019), there is limited evidence that shows mega-events have a long-lasting positive impact on sports participation. For example, some literature has investigated the sports participation legacy of the 2000 Sydney Olympics, including both short-term and medium-term impact studies. During the period between 1998-2000, there was no applicable evidence that revealed hosting the 2000 Sydney Olympics was beneficial for the development of local sports

participation (Bauman, Bellew & Craig, 2015). Following that, some studies have found that sports participation has not increased or has even decreased steadily, despite a minor increase in sports participation during the August to November period of 2000 (Veal, Frawley & Toohey, 2012).

As perceived by two CM participants, the host city (Beijing) may also suffer from another negative socio-cultural legacy (local safety risks). For example, CM4 deliberated that "There will be a large number of security measures or traffic control in China". This not only points out the hosting of the Winter Olympics may increase the local crime rate but also indicates some more serious safety issues that may happen during the event, such as the threat of terrorism. As contended by CM1, "There may be hidden dangers in security during the event. Recently, the terrorist is now more rampant around the world, which has to be considered when China decided to host the Winter Olympics". Only one NC group member perceived that the arrival of large numbers of tourists may pose a potential security problem for the host city, but only on the level of the rising crime rate. For example, NC2 claimed that "Large numbers of tourists can affect the quality of local transportation and increase the crime rate".

It is perceived that the hosting of the 2022 Winter Olympics might lead to risks of safety issues for Beijing residents. By comparing and contrasting research findings with existing literature, hosting this event may threaten the safety of local people in many ways, such as threats from terrorists and an increase in the crime rate (Jayawardhana, 2016). During the operation of mega-events, the public safety of the events may become one of the most troublesome issues that could concern event organisers. This may be due to the particular characteristics of mega-events, such as the high exposure of specific and detailed times and locations in public as well as the high-intensity of people gathering in one location in a short period of time (Cornelissen, Bob & Swart, 2011). Although host countries normally invest a lot of manpower, efforts and material resources for potential security issues of mega-events, various safety accidents occur from time to time, such as the explosion during the 1996 Atlanta Olympics and the serial bombing before the 2002 European Football Champions Cup (Jayawardhana, 2016).

Damage to the basic rights and interests of locals was perceived to be one of the rationales under the negative influences of socio-cultural legacy. Although mega-events such as the Olympic Games and FIFA World Cup have brought improvements in human civilisation, civil liberties, globalisation, or cultural and economic exchanges, the dark side of these events has been underestimated or hidden. For example, the

deprivation of human rights (such as rights of housing, the rights of freedom of speech, illegal arrest and abuse of workers) among host locals (Horne, 2017). As argued by Horne (2017), these problems have become considerably common or active when countries want to host mega-events. This viewpoint is similar to Heerdt's (2018) findings, human rights abuses have been widely reported as an occurrence concerning the operation of sports mega-events for the past 20 years.

Taking the example of the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games, the Beijing government used the management of the local environment as a euphemism to force 1.5 million residents to be evacuated from their own homes to other places with cash compensation (Shin & Li, 2013). Additionally, Beijing has also unilaterally banned most people's right to use their vehicles by using the similar euphemism in order to improve air quality, such as the implementation of license plate number limits (Shin & Li, 2013). In a further example in Brazil, approximately 77,000 locals were relocated for the innovation and construction of event infrastructure to host the 2014 FIFA World Cup and the 2016 Olympics (Weste & Clarke, 2018). All in all, damage to the basic rights of locals can be considered as a negative socio-cultural legacy to the host community of the 2022 Winter Olympics. However, the infringements to the basic rights of locals are to be avoided because the intricate governance structures of mega-events relate to not only the host government but also many responsible stakeholders (Horne, 2017).

From interpreting CM participants' perceptions, the damage to the basic rights and interests of locals has been raised as another potential negative socio-cultural legacy. As claimed by CM3, "I have heard about some local residents in Beijing are forced to leave their homes when Beijing was hosting the 2008 Summer Olympics in order to create some space for the event infrastructure. This perhaps will also be a problem of hosting the 2022 Winter Olympics for Beijing residents". This directly points out that the event may infringe upon the legitimate housing rights of local people. Two NC group members perceived that hosting the 2022 Winter Olympics may also be detrimental to the locals' basic rights and interests, especially when the host city is going to build a railway network for the event. As argued by NC3:

I think this event will affect some people. First of all, the railway network from Beijing to Zhangjiakou and the infrastructure construction of the Winter Olympics will affect the basic interests of some people due to a large amount of investment of humans, material and financial resources (semi-structured interview).

The disruption of normal traffic in Beijing was perceived to be a potential negative socio-cultural impact. It was widely considered (by 4 CM participants) that hosting of the 2022 Winter Olympics may raise another negative socio-cultural legacy (traffic problem) for those who live in Beijing during the event. For example, CM3 argued that

"I think the negative impact is that visitors will increase significantly during the Olympics, causing some inconvenience in the transportation system and locals' pace of work". CM2 had a similar view to CM3 when she stated that, "I think that one of the negative impacts is probably due to the massive influx of the outside foreigner, which may affect normal traffic order". This could be further linked to the negative impacts on the daily lives and work of locals. However, it is possible that the traffic problem may not be a long-term major traffic issue after the event.

The traffic problem has been regarded as one of the most frequently mentioned potential negative socio-cultural legacies for the host population during the event. For example, NC2 claimed that: "The Olympic Games will bring traffic congestion to the city and affect people's normal travel". This was almost the same as NC1's view. As argued by NC1, "Due to the attraction of both domestic and international tourists for this event, it may cause traffic issues for local residents".

The high demand of event infrastructure is one of the most fundamental characteristics of hosting an Olympic Games, which not only demands huge investments in sports venues but also transportation (Bassa & Jaggernath, 2010). During the operation of the Olympic Games, the number of passengers who take the transportation facilities will add up to an extra two million to the original number of that in host cities (IOC, 2008). This also indirectly points out that the great number of visitors may far exceed the maximum capacity of local transportation facilities or put heavy pressure on the local transportation system. Commonly, hosting mega-events can be a stimulator for host governments to deal with the problems of local traffic, but most of the solutions are likely to be palliative rather than long-term solutions to the real problems (Pereira, 2018).

Special Olympics buses and temporary priority lines were specifically prepared for the 2016 Rio Olympic Games to address the traffic needs of mass visitors (Lindau, Petzhold, Tavares & Facchini, 2016). However, this did not permanently solve Brazil's growing traffic congestion problem because the number of motorcycles in the country was rising (Lindau, Petzhold, Tavares & Facchini, 2016). Additionally, this not only failed to permanently solve the needs of local transportation optimisation but also made it difficult for local people to travel during the event because the already heavily-loaded public transportation system put the priority on the event (Lindau, Petzhold, Tavares & Facchini, 2016). Therefore, these temporary measures did not bring transportation convenience to residents because they were non-beneficiaries in this measure, and the conveniences were only for some special groups, such as athletes and coaches from

different countries (Lindau, Petzhold, Tavares & Facchini, 2016). This has been further related to a series of problems that interrupt the normal traffic order during the event, such as the noise from traffic, the changes in traffic routes, traffic congestions, and overcrowded public transportation facilities (Bassa & Jaggernath, 2010).

Consequently, judging from the available information, there was a perception that hosting the Olympic Games may disturb the normal traffic order for residents in Beijing. At the same time, Beijing was perceived to seek a long-term transportation solution to solve this problem, rather than short-term solutions.

4.5. Perceived economic legacy (Theme 2)

The potential positive and negative economic legacies of hosting the 2022 Winter Olympics in China was the second most common feature of the seven transcripts produced from the interviews. The perceptions of some participants from both groups have been considered in relation to how hosting the 2022 Winter Olympics will benefit Beijing, China from different aspects. The CM Group considered inward investments, tourism and tourism-related benefits as positive economic legacies for those who live in Beijing, China. In comparison, those within the NC group proposed that hosting of the 2022 Winter Olympics would attract investment, create employment opportunities and develop the tourism industry. Three participants from the CM group directly or indirectly shared their perceptions about how this event could attract inward investment to the host destination. For example, CM4 proposed that it would have “A positive impact on economics, politics and the environment. For example, like the 2008 Olympic Games, both international and domestic companies and organisations investigated or sponsored the event, which played a key role in the development of the local economy and infrastructure”. Likewise, CM4 expressed that “China will receive a large amount of domestic and foreign investment as before by referring to the example of the 2008 Summer Olympics held in Beijing”.

Another interviewee from the CM group indicated that, “This event will attract investments and the investments will be allocated to three main areas in the host country”. CM4 had a detailed understanding of the event. As argued by CM1, “This event has the potential to drive the local economy and other development for three places (Tianjin, Beijing and Hebei) in China because this event will be co-hosted by Beijing and Zhangjiakou”. Similarly, two participants from the NC group perceived that the hosting of the 2022 Winter Olympics would attract many inward investments from individuals, companies or organisations. NC1 said that, “Domestic and international audiences will be attracted to the host city, which will promote local development and bring in more foreign capital during the Winter Olympic Games”. Another participant

from the NC group also highlighted the connection between commercial investments and the 2022 Winter Olympics. NC2 argued that, "The investment and business opportunities that are provided by the 2022 Winter Olympics will increase the local economy, which results in the increase of standard of living and happiness among locals".

The four participants from the CM group all shared their perceptions about the positive connection between the 2022 Winter Olympics, the tourism industry and economic development in China. CM1 asserted that, "A huge volume of foreigners and people who love winter sports will come and visit China for the purpose of travelling and watching the Winter Olympic Games. This subsequently will improve local tax revenue, which will result in the development of the living standard of locals". Two NC participants also believed that the 2022 Winter Olympics would bring rich tourism resources to Beijing. For example, NC2 argued that, "The number of people in Beijing will be increased dramatically due to the arrival of foreign visitors during the Winter Olympics". Furthermore, the perceptions of one participant from the NC group indicated that the 2022 Winter Olympics would result in a positive effect on local employment. For example, NC1 argued that, "More local people will be involved in sports, which will lead to the employment opportunities for sports-related jobs".

Some of the CM participants reported that they would like to travel to China to attend the event.

All Chinese migrants in this research proposed that hosting the 2022 Winter Olympics could increase local production and sales. However, this could be served as an ancillary economic effect that requests tourism development as a priority. As CM1 said, "The Winter Olympics will improve China's economy. Especially during the competition and after the competition, manufacturing industry (the sales of souvenirs), associated industries and the event operations will bring some income for China". CM3 argued that, "Local consumption will be promoted in order to enhance the economic status during and after the event due to the arrival of the outside population".

Through interpreting the perceptions of two groups of participants, the thriving of the tourism industry and employment opportunities were perceived to be rationales of positive influences of the economic legacy for Beijing, China. Many studies have linked the financial legacy of mega-events to the development of tourism. As asserted by Getz (2008), people from the world tend to regard the host country as a tourism destination for the purpose of both observing the sporting events and travelling because of the existence of some factors, such as the promotion of national culture

and traditions and the influence of media coverage. Meanwhile, a sporting mega-event can be considered to promote the tourism industry because mega-events are able to leave economic impacts and physical legacy to the tourism industry (Domareski, Fumi & Dos, 2019). This has become one of the reasons for host countries to bid for a mega-event. According to Getz (2008), the economic impact of hosting mega-events on tourism is not limited to the period when a large number of tourists visit the host city while the events are on, it still exists during the post-event period. As purposed by Domareski, Fumi and Dos (2019), there is a positive connection between economic performance, hosting a mega-event and the competitiveness of the local tourism industry.

Many academics and scholars have questioned the positive economic legacy of hosting mega-events and shifted their concentration on negatives. Similarly, all seven transcripts contained examples of how hosting the 2022 Winter Olympic Games in Beijing might cause a financial burden on both local residents and government. The consensus was that the positive economic impacts would only exist during the event, and that this cannot be called legacy but impacts (Domareski, Fumi & Dos, 2019; Michael & Duignan, 2019). Three participants from the CM group were concerned about the potential economic impact of hosting the 2022 Winter Olympic Games for local government and residents. As considered by CM1:

As a mega-event, there will definitely be a series of related issues, such as the investment of the venues and the overall economic budget on facilities. I think this may have an economic burden for the Chinese government in a short term. The host of the 2022 Winter Olympics may raise some financial burdens for locals, such as the rising price of hotels, restaurants, local transportation and so on.

CM2 asserted, "The event requires a lot of manpower and material resources to hold a sports event, and even need to invest plenty of resources, such as venues, event supplies". Three participants from the NC group also spoke about the basic expenses of the event, suggesting that it would cause excessive tax revenues that increase the pressure on the local residents.

Furthermore, a participant from the CM group indicated that the increasing price of daily commodities may economically increase the pressure on locals and that disturbing, or shelving of other local developing projects would be a potential negative economic impact. CM4 suggested that, "Because a large number of expenses... the event may cause a shortage of funds for the development of other local projects". Some also shared their worries about the long-term costs of maintenance and management services for the event stadiums and facilities, pointing out the potential financial issues for both local government and residents. NC2 asserted that, "in order to meet the demand of Olympic standard stadiums and facilities, China must invest a

huge amount of budget on the venues and equipment". CM2 concluded that, "China should properly manage the use of sports venues and associated facilities, such as sports facilities and transportation facilities in order to create a positive legacy and avoid negative legacies".

As asserted by Michael and Duignan (2019), the economic legacy of mega-events is uneven or unfair because the events cannot make all local industries economically develop, which leads to the generation of a negative economic impact. Many reasons lead to the negative economic legacy of hosting mega-events to the host place. The mainstream of research in the field of negative economic legacy has focused on the influences of the underestimated actual expense of mega-events, the further costs of underutilised event infrastructure after the events, the effects on non-beneficiaries as the host population and extra spending of the society (waste disposal, environmental pollution and traffic problems) left over from the events (Michael & Duignan, 2019). Domareski and Dos (2019) posted that a more serious economic problem is that the positive economic legacy of the event is not even able to offset the economic investment caused by the venues and infrastructure. All in all, hosting the Olympic Games is a high-risk strategy for host countries to derive benefits, the greater the amount of investment they make, the greater economic returns they will get (Domareski, Fumi & Dos, 2019).

After comparing and contrasting the findings of this paper with the existing literature, it was concluded that the hosting of the 2022 Winter Olympics could bring investment, tourists and an increase in employment opportunities, but also place a financial burden on local people and the government, and cause disruption in terms of other local development plans.

4.6. Perceived reputation legacy (Theme 3)

From interpreting participants' transcripts, three coding themes emerged from the perceived reputation legacy, namely, an improved image, growing soft power and city branding. Firstly, the participants' transcripts showed that hosting the 2022 Winter Olympics may create opportunities for China to enhance its global image. For example, CM1, a young worker in the Chinese sports industry, pointed out that the profound legacies of the 2008 Olympics could be further enhanced by hosting the 2022 Winter Olympics in Beijing. He said, "After Beijing hosted the 2008 Summer Olympics, Beijing has already gained a lot of reputation in the world... holding another Olympic Games can boost Beijing's popularity and draw more attention around the world". He also suggested that:

Organising such a sports mega-event provides the nation with a unique opportunity to change the international image of the country and increases the chance to host future mega-events... Running the Winter Olympics in China can improve our ability and gain more experiences to host other major and mega-events and has a long-term impact on future global influence (CM1).

In addition, six participants had the impression that China's image as a major contributor to global sports business development was anticipated to gain more recognition by holding the 2022 Winter Olympics. As discussed by CM3, "The impact of this Winter Olympics on China is very considerable". He also expressed that, "China is able to enhance the influence, reputation and image of itself in the world again". CM4 stated that hosting of the 2022 Winter Olympics as "The enhancement of global image".

All NC participants perceived that the hosting of the 2022 Winter Olympics would improve the global image of Beijing, China. As argued by NC2, "The event will bring a lot of foreign audiences, which will enhance Beijing's economic and cultural status. After the Olympics, Beijing's image and reputation in the world will be greatly increased". Additionally, it was perceived that the event would enhance the international image of Beijing by strengthening China's sports background. For example, NC3 said, "China's sports background in the world will be significantly enhanced through hosting the event". Furthermore, an improved image can be regarded as a sustainable legacy for Beijing China. NC1 considered that, "The long-term legacy is to improve the national status and image of the country".

The other perceived reputational legacy that was highlighted by three CM participants was the positive effect of hosting the Winter Olympics on the country's soft power. In the interviews, the data revealed that China's soft power was expected to be pursued and exercised in different ways around the 2022 Winter Olympics. CM3 pointed out that:

Before the Olympics, the Winter Olympics will capture global attention to Beijing because Beijing will be the only city that has the history to host both the Summer and Winter Olympics ever before. During the Olympics, it will positively affect the tourism industry in Beijing because of the attraction of the event. After the Olympics, Beijing's global image in the world will be greatly enhanced.

As a result, there was a perception that the Beijing Winter Olympic Games would help to increase engagement with other countries by drawing the outside world to the event's host (Beijing). Furthermore, a more positive view of the relationship between China and its competing nations was discussed. CM4 said that, "International credibility will be increased through the global recognition of China's national strength and

culture", suggesting a possibility of increased strength between China and other countries, the competing nations and the developing world.

There was a perception that the Winter Olympic Games in China may enhance the engagement between countries in sport and cultural understanding and therefore boosting China's soft power. This was suggested by CM4 who pointed out that, "The Winter Olympics will allow people from other countries to understand China from a different perspective. It also increases the influence of Chinese winter sports athletes in the future international winter Olympics".

All participants from the NC group perceived that the 2022 Winter Olympics would be beneficial for the growth of the soft power of China. As argued by the university student (NC2) who had a strong sports background, "This Winter Olympics will be a way for China to exhibit national power and enhance the country's reputation". Meanwhile, this viewpoint was expressed more directly by NC1 when she stated, "The 2022 Winter Olympics will enhance the global image and reputation of China around the world and carry China's culture forward, which stabilises and improves the soft power of China".

Moreover, there was a perception that hosting the Winter Olympics would not only allow Beijing to make history but would also boost China's soft power. NC2 pointed out that:

As the only country to host both Summer and Winter ever before, China will not only gain an international reputation but also will create history. If the Winter Olympics will be successfully hosted, it is the best opportunity for China to present at an international stage.

More importantly, it was also perceived that China could create opportunities for the growth of soft power through detailed preparation and planning. As stated by NC3, "I believe that if the Winter Olympics was successfully hosted, it would directly enhance China's international status in the world because such large-scale international events require long-term sophisticated planning and preparation".

Another point to consider here was the crosslink between city branding and the country's soft power. Organising such a mega-event in Beijing was perceived to set a foundation for the branding of the city's identity and publicising Beijing's competitive advantages. CM4 suggested that, "Organising such an event provides Beijing with an opportunity to further advance their city image before the entering of global visitors and the actual event". He said that, "Before the Olympics, Beijing has several things to develop for the preparation of the event, such as the air quality, transportation and city appearance". It was believed that hosting such a sports mega-event was an important

way for the host city to project its identity to the world. CM4 referred to, "After the Olympics, if this Winter Olympics was successfully hosted, the event would further generate a number of benefits to Beijing, such as the enhancement of global image and city branding, cultural diversity and tourism development".

Furthermore, there was a perception that the publicity about China would be increased through hosting the 2022 Winter Olympics to Increase or shape the brand effect of Beijing. NC2 claimed that:

I think that the short-term impact is the global attention on the host city (Beijing) in the world. The Olympic Games provides an opportunity for Beijing to show itself to the global audience and greatly enhance the city's international status.

The discussion now focuses on the rationales of perceived reputation legacy from research findings to emphasise how the hosting of the 2022 Winter Olympics could leave reputation legacy for the host destination. Some literature has highlighted reputation legacy falls under socio-cultural legacy or tourism legacy. However, this research classified reputation legacy as another branch of the legacy that includes several components, such as an improved image, growing soft power and city branding based on the data set. At a time when the reputation represented by mega-events have been significantly concerned by the existing mass media, a few scholars believe that countries are able to create public awareness about a country and enhance their reputation in order to generate future success in the country by hosting a mega-event (Arnegger & Herz, 2016). Furthermore, sports mega-events have been widely recognised as a promotional opportunity that allows host nations to perform on an international stage, or as a reputation promotion strategy that forms or repositions the host destination branding in order to enhance national identity locally and globally (Ferrari & Guala, 2017; Grix, 2012; Kenyon & Bodet, 2018; Penfold, 2019).

The reputation of a country is not only important for the development of national image and city branding but also an essential component of national soft power. From the perspective of politicians, mega-events can serve to enhance countries' soft power (Luo, 2012). For example, it is traceable that sporting mega-events have been frequently utilised by countries to derive the benefits of the promotion of reputation, which can be related to a category of representation of national power (soft power) that differs from the military power of a country (Grix, 2012). However, there is no clear boundary for how much soft power can be promoted in a mega-event, but the image of a country can always be used as a prerequisite for improving the country's soft power transactions (Grix, 2012).

The research findings and the literature indicate that hosting mega-events may promote city-branding and national image. The impact of a mega-event is long-lasting and changeable, and its influence on the national image and city brand can impact various organisations, athletes, sponsors and even all participants in a mega-event (Knott, Fyall & Jones, 2016). Scholars have emphasised the connection between the essence of maintaining or developing a unique city brand of host cities and individual perceptions (Marin-Aguilar & Vila-López, 2014). Therefore, rather than solely focusing on city brands, scholars tend to concentrate on how people perceive and feel the cities (Marin-Aguilar & Vila-López, 2014). For a host city of mega-events, the city brand is not only a unique symbol or a pattern for people to visualise differences but also a combination of the characteristics of the city itself and people's perception about the host city (subjective psychological evaluation) (Lee, 2013).

As the nature of the image of a country is elaborately classified, the definition of the image of a country is refined. As pointed out by Ferrari and Guala (2017), the national image is the synthesis of the description, comprehensive inference and other perceived information about a country. The image of a country contains considerable components, such as the perceptions, emotions, opinions, impressions of both locals and foreigners about this country, as well as local culture, customs, and behaviours (Kenyon & Bodet, 2018). The image of a country can also be associated with visual symbols within the country, such as local architecture and landmarks (Ferrari & Guala, 2017).

As asserted by Siu, Mak and Dixon (2016), literature has indicated that sports tourism is the contributor to the development of hosting the nation's image, the potential financial increment. If the country meets the travel expectations of these people, then they are very likely to come to this place again or recommend it to others (Vegara-ferri, Saura, Lopen-Gullon, Sanchen & Angosto, 2018). As asserted by Ferrari and Guala (2017), holding a successful sports mega-event is a convenient way for countries to increase awareness about the brand and image of the host place due to mass media highly exposing the case and attracting considerable public attention. Moreover, Knott, Fyall and Jones (2017) have emphasised that if the host destinations planned the image legacy properly, the host destinations will have the potential to create uniqueness (a unique city brand or global image) that leads the host nations to stand out among other competitors. For example, the re-imaging of the national image of the 2006 World Cup in Germany brought international friendship to this country (Grix, 2012). This has been considered as a long-lasting outcome that cannot be achieved by diplomatic activities (Grix, 2012). Similarly, the 2012 London Olympic Games offered

an extraordinary opportunity for the UK to update marketing strategy and reshape its position on the world stage (Kenyon & Bodet, 2018).

In summary, taking the perspective of hosting the 2022 Winter Olympic Games, the event may bring the growth of soft power to China like hosting the 2008 Summer Olympics. The growth of these potential soft powers may further generate more benefits to China, such as the promotion of political attractiveness. Furthermore, the 2022 Winter Olympics may have a further positive impact on Beijing's city branding and country's image. However, the shaping of this city's brand and country's image depend not only on the event organisers but also on the attitudes of people about Beijing as a host destination and the power of media. If the event successfully shapes the city brand of Beijing, it will bring a range of positive impacts such as multiculturalism, attracting foreign investment and the strength to local tourism.

4.7. Infrastructure legacy (Theme 4)

Interpretation of the collected data showed that Beijing should prepare for the 2022 Winter Olympics in order to meet the requirements for event use. Both CM and NC groups considered that infrastructure legacy was extremely important. NC1 argued that, "Some sports facilities and venues should be better prepared before the games begin, which indicates that infrastructures will be developed for the event". Three of the CM group members indicated that hosting the event would lead to an increase in infrastructure. For example, CM1 argued that, "Sports stadiums and facilities for the 2022 Winter Olympics will get better prepared before the event". This showed a perception that events can bring more stadiums and facilities to the host destination. At the same time, hosting the event brings not only the stadiums and facilities but also the supporting infrastructure, such as the transportation system. As asserted by CM1, "The convenience of the residents will be greatly improved... the transportation system between Beijing and Zhangjiakou as well as the overall traffic order will be improved, which provides convenience for locals".

Renovating and building event infrastructure was widely perceived to be the most expensive process by the research participants. For example, CM2 argued that, "It requires a lot of manpower and material resources to hold a sports event, and even need to invest plenty of resources, such as venues, event supplies". However, the expensive costs for the infrastructure do not only exist before the event but also remain during and after the game. As discussed by CM2, "China should properly manage the use of sports venues and associated facilities, such as sports facilities and transportation facilities in order to create a positive legacy and avoid negative

legacies". This indicated a perception that the costs of maintenance and management for the event infrastructures would become a financial burden if China did not reasonably plan the future use of these infrastructures.

Based on the transcripts of the research participants, the construction of the event infrastructure was seen to be a time-consuming and expensive task. For example, NC3 argued that, "Winter sports normally need restricted locations (normally in the mountains), the costs of construction work and sports facilities should be expensive." However, such a huge investment was not only limited to venues and sports facilities but also included transportation. As NC3 said:

I think that one of the relatively large costs is the laying of the entire transportation network. The erection of high-speed rail from Beijing to Zhangjiakou Chengli County will inevitably consume a lot of manpower, material resources and financial resources.

Furthermore, the maintenance of venues and facilities after the event could also create further financial issues. As argued by NC2:

The third point is the financial risks on the management and maintenance of event venues and facilities. For example, in order to meet the demand of Olympic standard stadiums and facilities, China must invest a huge amount of budget on the venues and equipment. As a result, appropriate management and the maintenance cost of the venues and facilities will become a potential economic issue after the event.

Event infrastructure that was in addition to people's daily needs was considered as another potential negative infrastructure legacy. CM2 said that, "The types of snowsport activities in China are less than the categories of snowsport activities that people do in New Zealand". For example, skiing roughly represents the whole snowsport market in China". This indicated a perception that winter sports were not a popular local sporting event or activity. Therefore, after the event, the venues or facilities may be left vacant or abandoned because event infrastructure was far away from locals' daily needs.

The biggest ambition of hosting mega-events was to make a long-term positive legacy on the host cities and countries which is not easy to achieve (Kirby & Crabb, 2019). As the only physical event legacy, infrastructure legacy is one of the most mentioned topics within both the literature and interviews, which was analysed as a feasible legacy of hosting the 2022 Winter Olympics for those who live in Beijing. Within the legacy of mega-events, a sustainable infrastructure legacy can be considered as a profound investment for host cities, such as new accommodations, sports facilities, stadiums and a developed transportation system (Stewart & Rayner, 2016). This is because, according to the literature, the infrastructure legacy is one of the most essential legacies before, during and after mega-events (Essex & Chalkley, 2004).

Infrastructure legacy for a mega-event is not limited to just having sports stadiums and facilities, but it also includes the renovation or development of transportation in both urban and rural areas in the host destination.

As argued by Preuss (2007), unlike other legacies, such as socio-cultural legacy, infrastructure (such as venues and venue facilities) legacy is always the most fundamental component of "hard" legacy from hosting the events. In terms of hosting a mega-event, sports infrastructure can be divided into two categories (Wu, Li & Lin, 2016). Firstly, the infrastructure is specially built for the sports event, which means the sports event cannot be operated without these specially prepared infrastructures, such as special venues for the sports event and sports equipment (Wu, Li & Lin, 2016). Another category is not only built for the sports event but also improves the quality of the sports event and provides convenience for locals, such as transportation and communication facilities (Wu, Li & Lin, 2016).

The promise of renovated and new infrastructures is frequently used by regional and national governments to gain advantages in the justification of bidding processes for mega-events (Essex & Chalkley, 2004; Pereira, 2018). It is believed that the development and renewal of infrastructure can improve local sports facilities (Swart & Bob, 2012), local transportation (Pereira, 2018), telecommunication systems (Brittain, Bocarro, Byers & Swart, 2018), the capacity of accommodation (Swart & Bob, 2012), which leads to urban renewal and local sports participation (Shina, 2013). According to the meanings produced by the participants, however, it was more likely that the infrastructure legacy would have a negative impact.

As pointed out by Kirby and Crabb (2019), the large amount of investment in infrastructure has also been frequently questioned because some host population think that the facilities and infrastructure built for the demands of the events always place a financial burden on the host population or far away from people's daily needs. Such debates are not groundless, but based on real examples that show the potential problems. It is not uncommon for host cities to evict and remove families from where they usually live in order to make room for infrastructure projects of mega-events (Pereira, 2018). This problem has been continuously connected to the housing rights of Beijing residents when China set out to prepare for the 2008 Beijing Olympics (Lai, 2015). As argued by Pereira (2018), people who have been moved for hosting mega-events have the potential to bear more financial burden with the pressure from moving expense even though local governments normally evicted these people with the promise of compensation of removal or housing security. Although these examples can

be classified as a part of the negative socio-cultural legacy, they can be classified as a part of negative infrastructure impacts of an event as well.

Taking the 2010 South Africa FIFA World Cup as an example, the majority of FIFA stadiums have been underutilised and left vacant due to inappropriate planning for the real needs of local people after the World Cup even though South Africa had invested a huge budget on the construction and maintenance of these stadiums (Bama & Tembi, 2016). For example, the Moses Mabhida Stadium and the Cape Town Stadium have been critiqued about not having the ability to be self-sufficient, which subsequently cost the local governments about 2 million and 3.1 million US dollars respectively each year due to the expenditure on management and maintenance services (Bama & Tembi, 2016). These have been further critiqued as “white elephants” (Cottle, 2010). Although the event facilities and infrastructure were frequently used during mega-events, the above examples illustrate that event infrastructure may generate a heavy economic burden or even more serious problems on the host population because these infrastructures are not useful or related to residents' daily lives (Pereira, 2018).

4.8. Environmental legacy (Theme 5)

When comparing with other themes, the perceived environmental legacy was less considered by the research participants, with only two coding themes generated (the development of the local environment and environmental pollution). Two CM group participants believed that hosting the 2022 Winter Olympics would have a positive impact on the Beijing environment. As discussed by CM3, “[the] Environment will be better developed in order to welcome the Winter Olympics with a new attitude. Specifically, holding this event will have the potential to improve air quality in China”. For example, CM4 argued that, “Beijing has several things to develop for the preparation of the event, such as the air quality”.

The NC group was less focused on the development of Beijing's environment from hosting a mega-sport event. However, according to the participants' perceptions, Beijing may get a better/cleaner environment because of implementing pollution control strategies. As argued by NC2, “The positive influence will be the pollution management enforcement from the central government of China, which creates a better environment for the Winter Olympics”. CM4 argued that, “China not only face the problem of air pollution but also will confront the potential pollution brought to China by the upcoming event, such as thermal pollution and recycling issues”. Similarly, NC2 asserted that, “One of the negative influences of hosting the Winter Olympics is environmental pollution”. Additionally, another NC participant illustrated how these pollutions can be

caused. NC3 claimed that, "...we should consider is the environmental impacts of the event, such as the pollution of construction work and the air pollution of transportation".

Overall, the participants' opinions showed a surprising lack of consideration of how hosting a mega-event might influence China environmentally. A study by Deng and Poon (2013) indicates the importance of the balance between the sustainability of the environment and the spectacularity of a mega-event. As argued by Guizzardi, Mariani and Prayag (2017), within the system of event management, economic, social and environmental sustainability are co-existing elements to maintain an equal development based on events demands. Cities are often set up as flagships for a positive economic and environmental legacy of mega-events (Collins, Jones & Munday, 2009). However, it seems that the sustainable environment is often neglected when host cities endeavor to run a mega-event successfully (Deng & Poon, 2013). As a result, some environmental strategies have been developed specifically to mega-events, such as event greening and sustainable development goals. The concentration of event greening has been placed on investing environmentally friendly resources and practices to ensure a long-term positive environmental legacy of a mega-event.

Literature supports the participants perceptions around the potential environmental pollution likely to be caused by the 2022 Winter Olympics (see, for example, Collins, Jones & Munday, 2009). According to the perceptions gathered within this study, the 2022 Winter Olympics has the potential to stimulate the development of the local environment in Beijing, although these environmental improvements may be limited to mitigating existing pollution issues in Beijing rather than creating sustainable environment legacy. Both the research findings and the existing literature point out that the hosting of the 2022 Winter Olympics could potentially facilitate the replacement of the original natural ecosystem with the development of urbanization, which might lead to a series of potential environmental problems for the host residents of Beijing.

4.9. Chapter summary

This chapter firstly introduced the participants profiles of four Chinese migrants and three New Zealanders of Chinese origin. Several coding themes were classified into five essential themes (refer to Table 2). The five important perceived legacies were then ranked by the seven participants in terms of their perceived importance to the residents of Beijing. The socio-cultural and economic legacies were rated as being the most important, followed by the reputation-based legacies. Infrastructure and environment-based legacies were rated as being the least important. The research findings then shared extracts from the seven transcripts created from the participants'

interviews, presented under the headings of the five themes extracted from the thematic analysis process. The similarities and differences between research findings and literature were then presented. In the following chapter, the researcher revisits the research questions and offers some conclusions and relevant recommendations.

Chapter Five - Conclusion

5.1. Introduction

The successful bid for the 2022 Winter Olympic Games ensures that Beijing (China) is set to become the first city to host both the Summer and Winter editions of the world's biggest sports event. The purpose of this research was to capture the extent to which Auckland's Chinese diaspora believe that hosting the 2022 Winter Olympic Games will leave a positive or negative legacy for those living in Beijing, China. The literature review of this interpretive research contains two main subsections. It started with a comprehensive review of the sports event management based on three essential perspectives (economic, social and environmental). After that, the concentration of literature review shifted to sports mega-events legacy, primarily focused on the economic, social-cultural and environment legacies. A qualitative research methodology was adopted, and rich data was collected following the employment of two non-probability sampling strategies (purposive and convenience sampling). Seven participants were recruited based on specific criteria of this research. The seven were New Zealanders of Chinese origin/ heritage or recent migrants from China, over the age of 18 years with some snow sports experiences. The six steps of Braun and Clark's (2006) thematic analysis were followed, allowing the researcher to interpret and analyse the data.

This study provides a valuable starting point for further research and debate. The methods employed to collect and analyse data allowed a small number of secondary stakeholders the opportunity to share their personal thoughts and feelings based on their own lived experiences. Rather than evaluating an event that has already occurred, the researcher decided to look at an event that is still several years in the future. In order to answer the research question and make a contribution to the body of knowledge in sports event management, this research synthesised five primary themes based on participants' perceptions.

The findings raise awareness around legacy during the all-important pre-event "anticipation" phase. In sum, socio-cultural impacts (theme 1) was placed as being the most important to Beijing in the research findings. It has also been widely considered as an essential carrier of sports mega-events that bring particular social characteristics and significance to the host place and the rest of the world (Preuss, 2007). Participants showed a collective belief that the 2022 Winter Olympics would provide the opportunity for social and cultural exchanges. They also agreed that hosting the event would lead to the facilitation of national cohesion/nationalism (national pride) and an increased

opportunity to participate in local sports. These findings support the existing research, much of which has argued that mega-events can contribute to host community cohesion (Roche, 2006), social interaction (Smith, 2009) and sports participation (Reis, Frawley, Hodgetts, Thomson & Hughes, 2017). Concerns were raised around about the potential negative social-cultural consequences for the host community, including the potential safety issue of locals, an abuse/loss of human rights and the disruption of the everyday traffic order. Any rise in the local crime rate, for example, could have the potential to endanger local safety (Cornelissen, Bob & Swart, 2011). The respondents who had personally witnessed or been informed about the negative impacts attached to the 2008 Beijing Summer Olympic Games were keen to ensure that the same problems did not eventuate again in 2022. For example, nearly 1.5 million locals were forced to resettle their homes with cash compensation for the 2008 Summer Olympic Games (Shin & Li, 2013). Moreover, the restriction for the plate number of personal vehicles limited roughly half private vehicles in Beijing in order to give convenience to the Olympic Games (Shin & Li, 2013).

Secondly, there was a consensus that the event could potentially create an economic legacy to China attracting inward investment, developing the tourism industry and creating employment opportunities (theme 2). It is feasible that hosting the 2022 Winter Olympic Games will bring the host city with inward investments when compare the research findings with the empirical research literature. Research findings and pervious literature showed a similar viewpoint to emphasise the importance of economic legacy to the mega-event host destination (Dwyer, Jago & Forsyth, 2016). As argued by Marin-Aguilar and Vila-López (2014), investing or sponsoring in mega-events can be considered as a business strategy for companies to promote their brands and image.

The development of the tourism industry was also viewed as a positive economic legacy in Beijing. This supports those who have argued that a mega-event has the potential to increase both local and international tourism recognition (Hritz & Ross, 2010), and attract tourism investments (Gruneau, Horne & Borowy, 2016). The creation of employment opportunities will be interrelated with the most positive economic legacies when hosting the event. For example, the inward investments and the development of the tourism industry would have a demand for labour. However, the participants also agreed that the economic legacy could negatively affect the host population, facilitating the growth of financial burden on both locals and government and disturbing other local developing projects. It is possible that the Beijing residents, government, or China will suffer from financial burden if the event facilities have not been profitably used after the event (Liu, Hautbois & Desbordes, 2017; Preuss, 2015).

Participants perceived that the huge investments and the priority of the 2022 Winter Olympics will have the potential to disturb other local developing projects. There has been limited literature, however, that shows how hosting a mega-event can disturb other local developing projects. According to the research findings, the opportunity to improve the country's image and soft power, and enhance Beijing's city brand, were all discussed as potential examples of positive reputation legacy (theme 3). It was agreed that hosting the 2022 Winter Olympics would bring the potential to develop Beijing's city brand and country's image. However, the development of city brand and country's image not only depends on how they are packaged and presented, but also rely on the perceptions of people (Arnegger & Herz, 2016) and the influence of mass media (Swart, Linley & Bob, 2013).

Participants perceived that the host of sports mega-event (2022 Winter Olympic Games) will promote China's soft power. It shows a similar positive legacy with the 2008 Olympic Games. For example, the hosting of 2008 Olympic Games has contributed to the sharp development of soft power that China has been pursuing (Chen, Copapinto & Luo, 2012; Giulianotti, 2015; Schiffman, 2017). Although the potential infrastructure legacy (theme 4) was perceived with less importance when compared with the previous three themes, it is still an essential point to the host population. According to the research findings, Infrastructure legacy was considered as a legacy that has more negative consequences (the potential to generate a future financial burden and infrastructural incompatibility with local daily demands) than positives (the development of local infrastructure). The development of local infrastructure can be attainable for the host community. For instance, the hosting of 2008 Summer Olympics has led to the development of sports infrastructure and facilities (Gold & Gold, 2011) and more accommodation for the host population (*Chinese Law and Government*, 2008).

The perceptions of participants around the generation of a financial burden and infrastructural incompatibility should be considered more cautiously. Whilst the Summer Olympics is typically five times the size of the Winter Olympics in terms of participant numbers, there is little difference when it comes to the demand for local infrastructure and expenditures (Essex & Chalkley, 2004). More importantly, the public interest in the Winter Olympic Games is considerably smaller than that attached to the Summer Olympic Games (Kang & Kim, 2019). Therefore, the infrastructural incompatibility with local demands of hosting the 2022 Winter Olympics has the potential to lead to the abandonment of event-related infrastructure, generating additional financial burdens on both host population and the Chinese government.

By analysing the research findings, environment legacies (theme 5) were perceived as being of less importance to those in Beijing. When compared with the current research literature (Guizzardi, Mariani & Prayag, 2017), it is surprising that environmental legacies were placed as the least important when compared with the other four themes. Although the participants did not consider the environment legacy adequately, they still pointed out that hosting the 2022 Winter Olympics could lead to some positive environmental outcomes. The Shin and Li (2013) discussed the improved air quality witnessed in Beijing during the 2008 Summer Games. However, rather than improving the overall local environment, efforts were mostly contributed to mitigate existing environmental problems (Shin & Li, 2013). Participants also perceived that an increase in environmental pollution might be brought to Beijing as a result of hosting the 2022 Winter Olympic Games.

5.2 Recommendations

The seven participants did not offer any consideration about the negative influences of the potential reputation legacy on those in Beijing. Future research is therefore required to investigate the negative influences to those in Beijing. Future research studies could also increase the number or group of participants to find out different thoughts and more in-depth information on the same topic. Alternatively, researcher interested in this topic may wish to utilize a quantitative methodology or a mixed-method research to carry on the research from a more analytical perspective. According to the research findings, the potential infrastructure (physical) and environmental legacies of hosting the 2022 Winter Olympics were less considered by the seven participants of this study. Therefore, further research is required and recommended to put more concentration on investigating the potential infrastructure and environmental legacies to those in Beijing. Finally, further comparison studies are recommended, looking at the perceptions of overseas migrants of different socio-cultural backgrounds and from different host cities or nations.

5.3 Limitations

One potential limitation of this research was the number of recruited participants. Of the initial 21 potential participants, 12 met the purposive/convenience sampling however, only seven gave a consent to be interviewed. Furthermore, another possible limitation was that the seven participants were from two different populations, which may have limited the range of knowledge represented. Ideally, having more participants to gather information from, would have provided different insights. Due to the perceptions being more inclined towards the social and cultural legacies, as well as an economic legacy to Beijing, China, this research had less focus on the negative influences of reputation

legacy, the environment legacy, and the infrastructure legacy. Finally, as two languages were involved in the data collection, analysis and write up process, there is a danger that some relevant content may have got lost in translation. One way to remove this limitation in future research would be inclusion of triangulation, whereby the participants were given the opportunity to confirm or complement the content discussed within the findings of this thesis. This level of data analysis was not possible on this occasion due to a number of external factors, including a lack of time and access.

References

- Agha, N., Fairley, S., & Gibson, H. (2012). Considering legacy as a multi-dimensional construct: The legacy of the Olympic Games. *Sport Management Review, 15*(1), 125–139.
- Allmers, S., & Maennig, W. (2009). Economic impacts of the FIFA Soccer World Cups in France 1998, Germany 2006, and outlook for South Africa 2010. *Eastern Economic Journal, 35*(4), 500–519.
- Almeida, B. S., Marchi, J. W., & Pike, E. (2014). The 2016 Olympic and Paralympic Games and Brazil's soft power. *Contemporary Social Science, 9*(2), 271–283.
- Anderson, C. A., & Bushman, B. J. (2002). The effects of media violence on society. *Science, 295*(5564), 2377-2379.
- Andranovich, G., Burbank, M. J., & Heying, C. H. (2000). Olympic cities: lessons learned from mega-event politics. *Journal of Urban Affairs, 23*(2), 113–131.
- Andrews, M., Squire, C., & Tamboukou, M. (2008). *Doing narrative research*. SAGE.
- Akovlev, Z., Dimitrov, N. V., Koteski, C., & Serafimova, M. (2017). Sport tourism as the most important alternative form of tourism -- strategies and challenge. *Economic Development / Ekonomiski Razvoj, 19*(3), 197–207.
- Alexandris, K., & Kaplanidou, K. (2014). Marketing sport event tourism: Sports tourist behaviors and destination provisions. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 23*(3), 125–126.
- Aliyu, A. A., Bello, M. U., Kasim, R., & Martin, D. (2014). Positivist and non-positivist paradigm in social science research: Conflicting paradigms or perfect partners. *Journal of Management and Sustainability, (3)*, 79.
- Amankwaa, L. (2016). Creating protocols for trustworthiness in qualitative research. *Journal of Cultural Diversity, 23*(3), 121–127.
- Apuzzo, M., Clifford, S., & Rashbaum, W. K. (2015). FIFA officials arrested on corruption charges. *The New York Times*.
- Armstrong, G., Hobbs, D., & Lindsay, L. (2011). Calling the shots: The pre-2012 London Olympic contest. *Urban Studies, 48*(15), 3169.
- Arnegger, J., & Herz, M. (2016). Economic and destination image impacts of mega-events in emerging tourist destinations. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management, 5*(2), 76–85.
- Baade, R. A., & Matheson, V. A. (2004). The quest for the cup: Assessing the economic impact of the World Cup. *Regional Studies, 38*(4), 343–354.

- Bailard, C. S., & Major, M. (2018). It's only a game, let's leave politics out of it: Mega-sporting events, broadcasting rights, and network news bias. *International Journal of Communication (19328036)*, 12, 4593–4614.
- Baim, D. (2004). The post-games utilisation of Olympic venues and the economic impact of the Olympics after the games. In *the first Olympic economic and city development and cooperation forum, edited by humanistic Olympic studies center, Ren Min University of China* (pp. 71-85).
- Baldwin, C. (2013). *Narrative social work: Theory and application*. Policy Press.
- Bama, H. K. N. & Tembi, M. T. (2016). Mega-event infrastructure development and sustainability contestations in the developing context: The 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, (3).
- Bansal, P. Tima, Smith, W. K., & Vaara, E. (2018). New ways of seeing through qualitative research. *Academy of Management Journal*, 61(4), 1189–1195.
- Bason, T., Cook, D., & Anagnostopoulos, C. (2015). Legacy in major sport events: Empirical insights from the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa. *Choregia*, 11(1), 43.
- Bassa, Z., & Jaggernath, J. (2010). Living close to 2010 stadiums: Residents' perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup and stadium development in Durban, South Africa. *Alternation*, 17(2), 121-145.
- Beneke, R. (2018). Winter Olympic Games: A lens on the good and bad in top sport. *International Journal of Sports Physiology & Performance*, 13(2), 125–126.
- Bennett, C. J., & Haggarty, K. D. (2011). *Security games: Surveillance and control at mega-events*. Routledge.
- Bernstein, E., & Lysniak, U. (2018). *Semi-structured interviews and non-participant observations: Teacher instruction of competitive activities for multicultural students*. SAGE.
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative research in psychology*, 3(2), 77-101.
- Broudehoux, A.-M. (2017). *Mega-events and urban image construction: Beijing and Rio de Janeiro*. Routledge.
- Brown, G., Essex, S., Assaker, G., & Smith, A. (2017). Event satisfaction and behavioural intentions: Examining the impact of the London 2012 Olympic Games on participation in sport. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 17(3), 331–348.
- Brooks, G., Aleem, A., & Button, M. (2013). *Fraud, corruption and sport*. Palgrave Macmillan.

- Bertoli, A. D. (2017). Nationalism and conflict: Lessons from international sports. *International Studies Quarterly*, 61(4), 835.
- Blake, A. (2004) The economic impact of the London 2012 Olympics. 2005/5. *Nottingham: Nottingham university business school, c2005 [cit. 2012-06-04]*.
- Bohlmann, H. R., & van Heerden, J. H. (2005). The impact of hosting a major sport event on the South African economy. *Journal of Tourism*, 26(4), 595-603.
- Bookman, S. (2018). *Brands and the city: Entanglements and implications for urban life*. Routledge.
- Brittain, I., Bocarro, J., Byers, T., & Swart, K. (2018). *Legacies and mega-events: fact or fairy tales?* Taylor and Francis.
- Brittain, I. (2018). *Legacies and mega-events: fact or fairy tales?* Routledge.
- Chanaron, J. J. (2014). Technology and economic impacts of mega-sports events: A key Issue? Exploratory insights from literature. *Megatrend Review*, 11(4), 9-30.
- Channa, L. A. (2015). Narrative inquiry: A research tradition in qualitative research. *Kashmir Journal of Language Research*, 18(1), 1–17.
- Chengli, T. Huaichun, L. & Hsiouwei, L. (2011). The economic benefits of mega-events: A myth or a reality? A longitudinal study on the Olympic Games. *Journal of Sport Management*, 25(1), 11–23.
- Chen, C. C, Colapinto, C., & Luo, Q. (2012). The 2008 Beijing Olympics opening ceremony: Visual insights into China's soft power. *Visual Studies*, 27(2), 188–195.
- Chen, F., & Tian, L. (2015). Comparative study on residents' perceptions of follow-up impacts of the 2008 Olympics. *Tourism Management*, 51, 263–281.
- Chen, S., Zheng, J., & Dickson, G. (2018). An organizational life cycle approach to exploring the elite sport legacy of Summer Olympic host nations: The cases of China (Beijing 2008) and Australia (Sydney 2000). *International Journal of the History of Sport*, 35(12/13), 1276–1305.
- Cho, J.-H., & Bairner, A. (2012). The sociocultural legacy of the 1988 Seoul Olympic Games. *Leisure Studies*, 31(3), 271–289.
- Clandinin, D. J. (2013). *Engaging in narrative inquiry*. Left Coast Press, Inc.
- Clandinin, D. J. (2016). *Engaging in narrative inquiry*. Routledge.
- Clifford, A., Standen, P., & Jones, J. (2018). "I don't want to take any risks even if it's gonna mean this service-user is gonna be happier": A thematic analysis of community support staff perspectives on delivering transforming care. *Journal of Applied Research in Intellectual Disabilities*, 31(6), 1209–1218.

- Collins, A., Flynn, A., Munday, M., & Roberts, A. (2007). Assessing the environmental consequences of major sporting events: The 2003/04 FA Cup Final. *Urban Studies (Routledge)*, 44(3), 457–476.
- Collins, A., Jones, C., & Munday, M. (2009). Assessing the environmental impacts of mega sporting events: Two options? *Tourism Management*, 30(6), 828–837.
- Connelly, F. M., & Clandinin, D. J. (2006). Narrative inquiry. *Handbook of complementary methods in education research*, 3, 477-487.
- Connelly, L. M. (2016). Understanding research. Trustworthiness in qualitative research. *Medsurg Nursing*, 25(6), 435–436.
- Cope, D. G. (2014). Methods and meanings: Credibility and trustworthiness of qualitative research. *Oncology Nursing Forum*, 41(1), 89–91.
- Cope, M. R., Flaherty, J., Young, K. D., & Brown, Ralph B. (2015). Olympic boomtown: The social impacts of a one-time mega-event in Utah's Heber valley. *Sociological Spectrum*, 35(2), 136–160.
- Corbetta, P. (2003). *Social research: theory, methods and techniques*. SAGE.
- Corbin, J. M., Strauss, A. L., & Strauss. (2008). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory*. SAGE.
- Cornelissen, S., Bob, U., & Swart, K. (2011). Towards redefining the concept of legacy in relation to sport mega-events: Insights from the 2010 FIFA World Cup. *Development Southern Africa*, 28(3), 307–318.
- Cottle, E. (2010). *A preliminary evaluation of the impact of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™: South Africa*. Swiss Labour Assistance.
- Crabb, L. A. H. (2018). Debating the success of carbon-offsetting projects at sports mega-events. A case from the 2014 FIFA World Cup. *Journal of Sustainable Forestry*, 37(2), 178–196.
- Creswell, J. W., & Poth, C. N. (2018). *Qualitative inquiry & research design: Choosing among five approaches*. SAGE.
- Crout, L. (2018). Forced evictions, homelessness, and destruction: Summer games: Olympic violations of the right to adequate housing in Rio De Janeiro. *Notre Dame Journal of International & Comparative Law*, (1), 35.
- Custódio, M. J. F., & Gouveia, P. M. D. C. B. (2007). Evaluation of the cognitive image of a country/destination by the media during the coverage of mega-events: the case of UEFA EURO 2004™ in Portugal. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 9(4), 285–296.
- Daiute, C. (2014). *Narrative inquiry: Adynamic approach*. SAGE.
- Davies, C., & Fisher, M. (2018). Understanding research paradigms. *Journal of the Australasian Rehabilitation Nurses' Association (Jarna)*, 21(3), 21–25.

- Deery, M. & Jago, L. (2010). Social impacts of events and the role of anti-social behavior. *International Journal of Event and Festival Management*, 1 (1), 8-28
- Deng, Y., & Poon, S.W. (2013). Meeting sustainability challenges of mega-event flagships. *Engineering, Construction and Architectural Management*, (1), 46.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2000). *Handbook of qualitative research*. SAGE.
- Dogru, T. (2016). Development of the hotel industry in China: Mega-events, opportunities, and challenges. *E-Review of Tourism Research*, 13(3/4), 471–489.
- Domareski, R. T. C., Fumi C. M. A., & Dos A. F. A., (2019). Competitiveness, economic legacy and tourism impacts: World Cup. *Investigaciones Turisticas*, (17), 49–70.
- Donato, F. S., I Povill, A. C., Chappelet, J.-L., Edmondson, I., & I Lagares, E. T. (2017). The Barcelona Olympic Games: Looking back 25 years on (4): From Barcelona '92 to the future of sports events. / Els Jocs Olímpics de Barcelona, 25 anys després (4): De Barcelona '92 al futur dels esdeveniments esportius. *Apunts: Educació Física I Esports*, (130), 107–126.
- Dwyer, L., Jago, L., & Forsyth, P. (2016). Economic evaluation of special events: Reconciling economic impact and cost-benefit analysis. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality & Tourism*, 16(2), 115–129.
- Dyreson, M. (2015). Global television and the transformation of the Olympics: The 1984 Los Angeles games. *International Journal of the History of Sport*, 32(1), 172–184.
- Edwards, A., & Skinner, J. (2009). *Qualitative research in sports management*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann, 2009.
- Emery, P. (2010). Past, present, future major sport event management practice: The practitioner perspective. *Sport Management Review (Elsevier Science)*, 13(2), 158–170.
- Epstein, M. J., & Yuthas, K. (2014). *Measuring and improving social impacts: A guide for nonprofits, companies, and impact investors*. Berrett-Koehler Publishers.
- Essex, S., & Chalkley, B. (2004). Mega-sporting events in urban and regional policy: A history of the Winter Olympics. *Planning Perspectives*, 19(2), 201–232.
- Falkheimer, J. (2007). Events framed by the mass media: media coverage and effects of America's Cup Preregatta in Sweden. *Event Management*, 11(1-2), 81-88.
- Feddersen, A., & Maennig, W. (2013). Mega-events and sectoral employment: The case of the 1996 Olympic games. *Contemporary Economic Policy*, 31(3), 580–603.
- Ferrari, S., & Guala, C. (2017). Mega-events and their legacy: Image and tourism in Genoa, Turin and Milan. *Leisure Studies*, 36(1), 119.

- Foste, Z. (2018). Exploring the methodological possibilities of narrative inquiry in service-learning: Reflections from a recent investigation. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, 22(4), 9–27.
- Fourie, J., & Spronk, K. (2011). South African mega-sport events and their impact on tourism. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 16(1), 75–97.
- Fredline, E., Jago, L., & Deery, M. (2003). The development of a generic scale to measure the social impacts of events. *Event Management*, 8 (1), 23–37.
- Friedman, M. S., Powell, K. E., Hutwagner, L., Graham, L. M., & Teague, W. G. (2001). Impact of changes in transportation and commuting behaviors during the 1996 Summer Olympic Games in Atlanta on air quality and childhood asthma. *Jama: Journal of the American Medical Association*, 285(7), 897–905.
- Furrer, P. (2002). Sustainable Olympic Games. *Bollettino della Società Geografica Italiana*, (4).
- Getz, D. (2000). Developing a research agenda for the event management field. *Events beyond*, 10-21.
- Getz, D. (2008). Event tourism: Definition, evolution, and research. *Tourism Management*, 29(3), 403–428.
- Getz, D., & McConnell, A. (2011). Serious sport tourism and event travel careers. *Journal of Sport Management*, 25(4), 326–338.
- Getz, D. (2019). *Event impact assessment: Theory and methods for event management and tourism*. Oxford: Goodfellow Publishers.
- Gillett, A. G., & Tennent, K. D. (2017). Dynamic sublimes, changing plans, and the legacy of a megaproject: The case of the 1966 Soccer World Cup. *Project Management Journal*, 48(6), 93.
- Gibson, H., Kaplanidou, K., and Kang, S.J. (2012). Small-scale event sport tourism: A case study in sustainable tourism. *Sport Management Review*, 15(2), 160-170.
- Giulianotti, R. (2015). The Beijing 2008 Olympics: Examining the Interrelations of China, globalization, and soft power. *European Review*, 23(2), 286–296.
- Gold, J. R., & Gold, M. M. (2011). *Olympic cities: City agendas, planning and the world's games, 1896-2016*. London; New York: Routledge, 2011
- Gold, J. R., & Gold, M. M. (2017). *Olympic cities: City agendas, planning, and the world's games, 1896-2020*. Routledge.
- Gorokhov, V. A. (2015). Forward Russia! Sports mega-events as a venue for building national identity. *Nationalities Papers*, 43(2), 267–282.
- Gratton, C., Shibli, S., & Coleman, R. (2005). Sport and economic regeneration in cities. *Urban Studies*, 42(5/6), 985.
- Grix, J. (2012). 'Image' leveraging and sports mega-events: Germany and the 2006 FIFA World Cup. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 17(4), 289–312.

- Grix, J., & Lee, D. (2013). Soft power, sports mega-events and emerging states: The Lure of the politics of attraction. *Global Society*, 27(4), 521–536.
- Grix, J., & Houlihan, B. (2014). Sports mega-events as part of a nation's soft power strategy: The cases of Germany (2006) and the UK (2012). *British Journal of Politics & International Relations*, 16(4), 572–596.
- Gruneau, R. S., Horne, J., & Borowy, M. (2016). *Mega-events and globalization: Capital and spectacle in a changing world order*. Routledge.
- Gruneau, R., & Horne, J. (2016). Mega-events and globalization: A critical introduction. *Mega-events and globalization: Capital and spectacle in a changing world order*. Londres: Routledge, 1-28.
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. *Handbook of qualitative research*, 2(163-194), 105.
- Guest, G., MacQueen, K. M., & Namey, E. E. (2012). Applied thematic analysis. SAGE.
- Guizzardi, A., Mariani, M., & Prayag, G. (2017). Environmental impacts and certification: Evidence from the Milan World Expo 2015. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 29(3), 1052.
- Hammond, M., & Wellington, J. J. (2013). *Research methods: The key concepts*. Routledge.
- Hayduk III, T. (2019). Leveraging sport mega-events for international entrepreneurship. *International Entrepreneurship & Management Journal*, 15(3), 857.
- Hayes, G., & Karamichas, J. (2012). *Olympics games, mega-events and civil societies: Globalization, environment, resistance*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Heerdt, D. (2018). Winning at the World Cup: A matter of protecting human rights and sharing responsibilities. *Netherlands Quarterly of Human Rights*, (2), 86.
- Henderson, J. C. (2014). Hosting the 2022 FIFA World Cup: Opportunities and challenges for Qatar. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 19(3/4), 281–298.
- Hiller, H. (2006). Post-event outcomes and the post-modern turn: The Olympics and urban transformations. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 6(4), 317–332.
- Hong, S. (2013). The displacement of sport: Media spectacles of street support in the 2002 World Cup. *Sport in Society*, 16(6), 735–748
- Horne, J. (2007). The four “knowns” of sports mega-events. *Leisure Studies*, 26(1), 81–96.
- Horne, J. (2017). Sports mega-events – three sites of contemporary political contestation. *Sport in Society*, 20(3), 328.
- Hritz, N., & Ross, C. (2010). The perceived impacts of sport tourism: An urban host community perspective. *Journal of Sport Management*, 24(2), 119–138.

- Jayawardhana, A. (2016). Ensuring security against the threats of terrorist acts in mega sport events. *International Journal of Sport Management, Recreation & Tourism*, 25, 1–8.
- Jeoung-Hak Lee, & Jee-Sun Bang. (2005). An analysis of brand Recall of 2002 FIFA Korea/Japan World Cup on official sponsor corporation. *International Journal of Applied Sports Sciences*, 17(1), 30–41.
- Jerkunica, A., Miljak, T., & Todorović, M. (2017). Economic impacts of the organization of big sports events based on the example of the European laser senior championship 2014. *Baltic Journal of Sport & Health Sciences*, (3), 41–48.
- Jin, L., Zhang, J., Ma, X., & Connaughton, D. (2011). Residents' perceptions of environmental impacts of the 2008 Beijing green Olympic Games. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 11(3), 275–300.
- Jones, Z. M., & Ponzini, D. (2018). Mega-events and the preservation of urban heritage: Literature gaps, potential overlaps, and a call for further research. *Journal of Planning Literature*, 33(4), 433–450.
- Joo, Y.-M., Kassens-Noor, E., & Bae, Y. (2017). *Mega-events and mega-ambitions: South Korea's rise and the strategic use of the big four events*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Kangjuan, L. V., Gyula, M., Wang, M. Y., Zheng, X, S., & Sun, Y., (2017). The image of the 2010 World Expo: Residents' perspective. *Engineering Economics*, 28(2), 207–214.
- Kang, M., & Kim, H. (2019). Global and Local Intersection of the 2018 PyeongChang Winter Olympics. *International Journal of Japanese Sociology*, 28(1), 110–127.
- Kankam, P. K. (2019). The use of paradigms in information research. *Library & Information Science Research*, 41(2), 85–92.
- Kaplanidou, K., & Vogt, C. (2007). The interrelationship between sport event and destination image and sport tourists' behaviours. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 12(3/4), 183–206.
- Karadakis, K., & Kaplanidou, K. (2012). Legacy perceptions among host and non-host Olympic Games residents: A longitudinal study of the 2010 Vancouver Olympic Games. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 12(3), 243–264.
- Kassens-Noor, E. (2012). *Planning Olympic legacies: Transport dreams and urban realities*. Routledge.
- Kenyon, J. A., & Bodet, G. (2018). Exploring the domestic relationship between mega-events and destination image: The image impact of hosting the 2012 Olympic Games for the city of London. *Sport Management Review (Elsevier Science)*, 21(3), 232–249.

- Kim, S., & Morrision, A. (2005). Change of images of South Korea among foreign tourists after the 2002 FIFA World Cup. *Tourism Management, 26*(2), 233–247.
- Kim, K., Cheong, Y., & Kim, H. (2016). The influences of sports viewing conditions on enjoyment from watching televised sports: An analysis of the FIFA World Cup audiences in theater vs. Home. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media, 60*(3), 389–409.
- King, N., Cassell, C., & Symon, G. (2004). Using templates in the thematic analysis of text. *Essential guide to qualitative methods in organizational research, 2*, 256–70.
- Kirby, S. I., Duignan, M. B., & McGillivray, D. (2018). Mega-sport events, micro and small business leveraging: Introducing the “Mse-Msb leverage model.” *Event Management, 22*(6), 917–931.
- 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), 627–640.
- Kivunja, C., & Kuyini, A. B. (2017). Understanding and applying research paradigms in educational contexts. *International Journal of Higher Education, 6*(5), 26–41.
- Knott, B., Fyall, A., & Jones, L. (2016). Leveraging nation branding opportunities through sport mega-events. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research, 1*(1), 105.
- Knott, B., Fyall, A., & Jones, I. (2017). Sport mega-events and nation branding. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 29*(3), 900.
- Koosha, M., Yoosefy, B., & Khabiri, M. (2017). Understanding major sport events leveraging as social development: *Future prospect of Iran. Choregia, 13*(1), 51–67.
- Kulczycki, W., & Koenigstorfer, J. (2016). Why sponsors should worry about corruption as a mega sport event syndrome. *European Sport Management Quarterly, 16*(5), 545–574.
- Lai, K. (2015). Destination images penetrated by mega-events: A behaviorist study of the 2008 Beijing Olympics. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research, 20*(4), 378–398.
- Lamberti, L., Noci, G., Guo, J., & Zhu, S. (2011). Mega-events as drivers of community participation in developing countries: The case of Shanghai World Expo. *Tourism Management, 32*(6), 1474–1483.
- Lapan, S. D., Quartaroli, M. T., & Riemer, F. J. (2012). *Qualitative research: An introduction to methods and designs*. Jossey-Bass.

- Lau, P. W. C, Lam, M. H. S, Leung, B. W. C, Choi, C.-R, & Ransdell, L. B. (2012). The longitudinal changes of national identity in Mainland China, Hong Kong and Taiwan before, during and after the 2008 Beijing Olympics games. *International Journal of the History of Sport*, 29(9), 1281–1294.
- Leeds, M. A., Mirikitani, J. M., & Tang, D. (2009). Rational exuberance? An event analysis of the 2008 Olympics announcement. *International Journal of Sport Finance*, 4(1), 5–15.
- Lee, C.-J. (2013). *Effects of sport mega-events on city brand awareness and image: Using the 2009 World Games in Kaohsiung as an example*. Quality and Quantity, 1–14.
- Lehmann, O. V., Murakami, K., & Klempe, S. H. (2019). Developmentally oriented thematic analysis (DOTA): A qualitative research method to explore meaning-making processes in cultural psychology. *Forum: Qualitative Social Research*, 20(2), 1–21.
- Lesjak, M., Axelsson, E. P., & Mekinc, J. (2017). Sports spectators tourism reason when attending major sporting events: Euro basket 2013, Koper, Slovenia. *European Journal of Tourism Research*, 16, 74–91.
- Li, S., (2013). Large sporting events and economic growth: Evidence from economic consequences of event infrastructure and venues. *Event Management*, 17(4), 425–438.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. SAGE.
- Lindau, L. A., Petzhold, G., Tavares, V. B., & Facchini, D. (2016). Mega-events and the transformation of Rio de Janeiro into a mass-transit city. *Research in transportation economics*, 59, 196–203.
- Lin, Y. (2012). A critical review of social impacts of mega-events. *International Journal of Sport & Society*, 3(3), 57–64.
- Liu, Y. (2016). The development of social media and its impact on the intercultural exchange of the Olympic movement, 2004-2012. *International Journal of The History of Sport*, 33(12), 1395–1410.
- Lin, F. L. (2019). Using thematic analysis to facilitate meaning-making in practice-led art and design research. *International Journal of Art & Design Education*, 38(1), 153–167.
- Liu, D. F., (2015). The image impact of mega-sporting events perceived by international students and their behaviour intentions. *International Journal of Sports Marketing & Sponsorship*, 16(2), 103–117.
- Liu, D., Broom, D., & Wilson, R. (2014). Legacy of the Beijing Olympic Games: a non-host city perspective. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 14(5), 485–502.

- Liu, D., Hautbois, C., & Desbordes, M. (2017). The expected social impact of the Winter Olympic Games and the attitudes of non-host residents toward bidding: The Beijing 2022 bid case study. *International Journal of Sports Marketing and Sponsorship*, 18(4), 330–346.
- Luo, S., & Huang, F. (2013). China's Olympic dream and the legacies of the Beijing Olympics. *International Journal of the History of Sport*, 30(4), 443–452.
- MacAloon, J. J. (2016). Agenda 2020 and the Olympic movement. *Sport in Society*, 19(6), 767-785.
- Malfas, M., Houlihan, B., & Theodoraki, E. (2004). *Impacts of the Olympic Games as mega-events*. ICE.
- Marin-Aguilar, J. T., & Vila-López, N., (2014). How can mega-events and ecological orientation improve city brand attitudes? *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, (4), 629.
- Masterman, G. (2004). *Strategic sports event management: An international approach*. Amsterdam; Boston: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann, 2004.
- Masters, A. (2015). Corruption in sport: From the playing field to the field of policy. *Policy and Society*, 34(2), 111–123.
- May, V. (1995). Environmental implications of the 1992 Winter Olympic Games. *Tourism Management*, 16(4), 269–275.
- Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2016). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Michael B. Duignan, A. (2019). London's local Olympic legacy: Small business displacement, 'clone town' effect and the production of 'urban landscapes.' *Journal of Place Management and Development*, (2), 142.
- Mills, J., & Birks, M. (2014). *Qualitative methodology: A practical guide*. SAGE.
- Minnaert, L. (2012). An Olympic legacy for all? The non-infrastructural outcomes of the Olympic Games for socially excluded groups (Atlanta 1996-Beijing 2008). *Tourism Management*, 33(2), 361–370.
- Moyo, L. G., Swart, K., & Hattingh, C. (2020). Repeat Visitation to a Host Destination Post a Sport Mega-event: South Africa and the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ Legacy. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 9(3), 57–72.
- Müller, M. (2015). The mega-event syndrome: Why so much goes wrong in mega-event planning and what to do about it. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, 81(1), 6–17.
- Narula, S., Rai, S., & Sharma, A. (2018). *Environmental awareness and the role of social media*. Engineering Science Reference.

- Neufeind, M., Güntert, S. T., & Wehner, T. (2013). The impact of job design on event volunteers' future engagement: insights from the European football championship 2008. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 13(5), 537–556.
- Nikitas, A., Wang, J. Y. T., & Knamiller, C. (2019). Exploring parental perceptions about school travel and walking school buses: A thematic analysis approach. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy & Practice*, 124, 468–487.
- Nunkoo, R., Ribeiro, M., Sunnasseer, V., & Gursoy, D. (2018). Public trust in mega-event planning institutions: The role of knowledge, transparency and corruption. *Tourism Management*, 66, 155–166.
- Nowell, L. S., Norris, J. M., White, D. E., & Moules, N. J. (2017). Thematic analysis: Striving to meet the trustworthiness criteria. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 16(1).
- Nyikana, S., Tichaawa, T. M., & Swart, K. (2014). Sport, tourism and mega-event impacts on host cities: A case study of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Port Elizabeth. *African Journal for Physical, Health Education, Recreation & Dance*, 20(2.1), 548–556.
- O'Brien, D. & Chalip, L. (2007). Executive training exercise in sport event leverage. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, (4), 296.
- Parent, M. M., & Séguin, B. (2007). Factors that led to the drowning of a world championship organizing committee: A stakeholder approach. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 7(2), 187–212.
- Parent, M. M. (2008). Evolution and issue patterns for major-sport-event organizing committees and their stakeholders. *Journal of sport management*, 22(2), 135-164.
- Park, M.S., & Tae, H. S., (2016). Arts style and national identity reflected in the Olympics opening ceremonies: A comparison of the 2008 Beijing Olympics and the 2012 London Olympics. *Quest (00336297)*, 68(2), 170–192.
- Patel, A., Bosela, P. A., & Delatte, N. J. (2013). 1976 Montreal Olympics: Case study of project management failure. *Journal of Performance of Constructed Facilities*, 27(3), 362.
- Penfold, T. (2019). National identity and sporting mega-events in Brazil. *Sport in Society*, 22(3), 384–398.
- Pereira, R. P. T., Camara, M. V. O., Ribeiro, G. M., & Filimonau, V. (2017). Applying the facility location problem model for selection of more climate benign mega sporting event hosts: A case of the FIFA World Cups. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 159, 147–157.

- Pereira, R. H. M. (2018). Transport legacy of mega-events and the redistribution of accessibility to urban destinations. *Cities*, 81, 45–60.
- Pitney, W. A. (2004). Strategies for establishing trustworthiness in qualitative research. *Athletic Therapy Today*, 9(1), 26–28.
- Preuss, H. (2007). The conceptualisation and measurement of mega sport event legacies. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 12(3/4), 207–228.
- Preuss, H. (2014). 'Legacy' revisited. In *leveraging legacies from sports mega-events: Concepts and cases* (pp. 24-38). Palgrave Pivot, London
- Preuss, H. (2015). A framework for identifying the legacies of a mega sport event. *Leisure Studies*, 34(6), 643–664.
- Punch, K. F. (2005). *The analysis of qualitative data. Introduction to Social Research, Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches, 2nd Edition*, by Keith F Punch, 197-216.
- Ratkowski, W., & Ratkowska, J. (2018). Sports events as a determinant of sports tourism. *Baltic Journal of Health & Physical Activity*, 10(1), 86–94.
- Reis, A. & Sperandei, S. (2014). Support for sport events and the economy of appearances: A case study of the 2011 world rally championship in Australia. *Event Management*, 18(3), 231–245.
- Robbins, G. (2012). Major international events and the working poor: Selected lessons for social actors stemming from the 2010 soccer World Cup in South Africa. *Wiego Technical Brief, Urban Policies*, 5, 1-29.
- Roche, M. (2006). Part 1 sports mega-events, modernity and capitalist economies: Mega-events and modernity revisited: Globalization and the case of the Olympics. *Sociological Review*, 54, 25–40.
- Roche, M. (2017). *Mega-events and social change: Spectacle, legacy and public culture*. Manchester, [England]: Manchester University Press, 2017.
- Rowe, D. (2011). *Global media sport: Flows, forms and futures*. London; New York: Bloomsbury Academic, 2011.
- Rowe, D., & Baker, S. A. (2012). Live sites in an age of media reproduction: Mega-events and transcontinental experience in public space. *Global Media Journal: Australian Edition*, 6(1), 1–10.
- Rowe, D. (2019). The worlds that are watching: Media, politics, diplomacy, and the 2018 PyeongChang Winter Olympics. *Communication and Sport*, 7(1), 3–22.
- Salvati, L., & Zitti, M. (2017). Sprawl and mega-events: Economic growth and recent urban expansion in a city losing its competitive edge (Athens, Greece). *Urbani Izziv*, 28(2), 110–121.

- Samatas, M. (2011). Surveillance in Athens 2004 and Beijing 2008: A comparison of the Olympic surveillance modalities and legacies in two different Olympic host regimes. *Urban Studies*, SAGE.48(15), 3347.
- Santos, G. E., Gursoy, D., Ribeiro, M. A., & Panosso N, A., (2019). Impact of transparency and corruption on mega-event support. *Event Management*, 23(1), 27–40.
- Sant, S.-L., Mason, D. S., & Hinch, T. D. (2013). Conceptualising Olympic tourism legacy: Destination marketing organisations and Vancouver 2010. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 18(4), 287–312
- Sandholtz, W., & Koetzle, W. (2000). Accounting for corruption: Economic structure, democracy, and trade. *International Studies Quarterly*, 44(1), 31–50
- Savić, Z. (2007). The Olympic Games as a cultural event. / Olympijské Hry Jako Kulturní Událost. *Acta Universitatis Palackianae Olomucensis. Gymnica*, 37(3), 7–13.
- Schiffman, J. R. (2017). Chinese soft power and its reception: A critical comparison of the CCTV and NBC presentations of the opening ceremony of the 2008 Beijing Summer Olympic Games. *China Media Research*, 13(2), 13–22.
- Séraphin, H., Platania, M., Spencer, P., & Modica, G. (2018). Events and tourism development within a local community: *The case of winchester (UK)*. *Sustainability*, 10(10), 3728.
- Serova, O. A. (2014). *The choice paradigm of scientific research: Problems, methodologies and external evaluation*. Perm University Herald Juridical Sciences, 276.
- Siu, Y. C., Mak, J. Y., & Dixon, A. W. (2016). Elite active sport tourists: Economic impacts and perceptions of destination image. *Event Management*, 20(1), 99–108.
- Shina LI. (2013). Large sporting events and economic growth: Evidence from economic consequences of event infrastructure and venues. *Event Management*, 17(4), 425–438.
- Shin, H. B., & Li, B. (2013). Whose games? The costs of being “Olympic citizens” in Beijing. *Environment and Urbanisation*, 25(2), 559–576.
- Silvestre, G. (2009). The social impacts of mega-events: Towards a framework. *Esporte e Sociedade*, 4(10), 1-26.
- Singh, N., & Zhou, H. (2016). Transformation of tourism in Beijing after the 2008 Summer Olympics: An analysis of the impacts in 2014. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 18(4), 277–285.
- Smith, A. (2009). Theorising the relationship between major sport events and social sustainability. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 14(2/3), 109–120.

- Smith, J. A. (2015). *Qualitative psychology: A practical guide to research methods*. SAGE.
- Specq, F. (2016). *Environmental awareness and the design of literature*. Brill Rodopi.
- Stake, R. E. (2010). *Qualitative research: Studying how things work*. Guilford Press.
- Stavraki, G. (2014). *Going reflective: Making sense of the process of designing a case study research under the interpretive paradigm*. SAGE.
- Steven A. Trankle, & Jennifer Reath. (2019). Partners in recovery: An early phase evaluation of an Australian mental health initiative using program logic and thematic analysis. *BMC Health Services Research*, (1), 1.
- Stewart, A., & Rayner, S. (2016). Planning mega-event legacies: Uncomfortable knowledge for host cities. *Planning Perspectives*, 31(2), 157–179.
- Sturup, S. (2013). Insights into the mystery of why the “white elephant” mega road East/West tunnel project has state government support. *Planning News*, (7), 22.
- Swart, K., Bob, U., Knott, B., & Salie, M. (2011). A sport and sociocultural legacy beyond 2010: A case study of the football foundation of South Africa. *Development Southern Africa*, 28(3), 415–428.
- Swart, K., & Bob, U. (2012). Mega sport event legacies and the 2010 FIFA World Cup. *African Journal for Physical, Health Education, Recreation & Dance*, 18, 1–11.
- Swart, K., Linley, M., & Bob, U. (2013). The media impact of South Africa’s historical hosting of Africa’s first mega-event: Sport and leisure consumption patterns. *International Journal of the History of Sport*, 30(16), 1976–1993.
- Tesch, R. (2013). *Qualitative research: Analysis types and software*. Routledge.
- Thompson, S. K. (2012). *Sampling*. Wiley.
- Vegara-Ferri, J. M., Saura, E. M., Lopen-Gullon, J. M., Sanchen, G. F. L., & Angosto, S. (2018). The touristic impact of a sporting event attending to the future intentions of the participants. *Journal of Physical Education & Sport*, 18, 1356–1362
- Vishwas, M., Janaina, M, E, G., & Maria, G, M. (2019). Investigating residents’ attitudes of 2016 Olympic Games: Examining socio-cultural, economic and environmental dimensions. *Journal of Place Management and Development*, (3), 291.
- Walliman, N. S. R. (2011). *Research methods: The basics*. Routledge.
- Wang, X., & Li, S. (2013). *The economics, economic impacts and wider legacies of sports mega-events: The 2008 Beijing Olympic Games*. Goodfellow Publishers Ltd.
- Wang, F., Wang, K., & Wang, L. (2019). An examination of a city greening mega-event. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 77, 538–548.

- Wang, F., Wang, K., & Wang, L. (2019). An examination of a city greening mega-event. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 77, 538–548.
- Wang, Y., & Jin, X., (2019). Event-based destination marketing: The role of mega-events. *Event Management*, 23(1), 109–118.
- Weimar, D., & Rocha, C. M. (2019). Does distance matter? Geographical distance and domestic support for mega sports events. *Journal of Sports Economics*, 20(2), 286.
- Welty Peachey, J., Borland, J., Lobpries, J., & Cohen, A. (2015). Managing impact: Leveraging sacred spaces and community celebration to maximize social capital at a sport-for-development event. *Sport Management Review (Elsevier Science)*, 18(1), 86–98.
- Weste, K., & Clarke, T. (2018). Human rights drowning in the data pool: Identity-matching and automated decision-making in Australia. *Human Rights Defender*, (3), 25.
- Wilson, W. (2015). Sports infrastructure, legacy and the paradox of the 1984 Olympic Games. *International Journal of The History of Sport*, 32(1), 144–156.
- Wenner, L. A., & Billings, A. C. (2017). *Sport, media and mega-events*. Abingdon, Oxon; New York, NY: Routledge, an imprint of the Taylor & Francis Group, 2017.
- Wu, Y., Li, X., & Lin, G. C. S. (2016). Reproducing the city of the spectacle: Mega-events, local debts, and infrastructure-led urbanization in China. *Cities*, 53, 51–60.
- Yanni Thamnopoulos, & Dimitris Gargalianos. (2002). Ticketing of large-scale events: The case of Sydney 2000 Olympic Games. *Facilities*, (1/2), 22.
- Yates, J., & Leggett, T. (2016). *Qualitative research: An introduction*. Radiologic Technology, 88(2), 225-231
- Zhang, M. M., & Zhai, F., (2019). The sustainable development information management of Winter Olympics based on Internet-based wireless sensor network. *Eurasip Journal on Wireless Communications and Networking*, (1), 1.
- Zhou, Y., Wu, Y., Yang, L., Fu, L., He, K., Wang, S., & Li, C. (2010). The impact of transportation control measures on emission reductions during the 2008 Olympic Games in Beijing, China. *Atmospheric Environment*, 44(3), 285–293.
- Zhu, H., Duncan, T., & Tucker, H. (2019). The issue of translation during thematic analysis in a tourism research context. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 22(4), 415–419.
- 2008 Beijing Olympic Games action plan: Construction of Olympic Games competition venues and related facilities. (2008). *Chinese Law and Government*, (4), 15.

Appendices

Appendix A



Participant Information sheet

Date Information Sheet Produced:

10 April 2019

Project Title

The 2022 Winter Olympics: sharing the perceptions of Auckland's Chinese Diaspora.

An Invitation

My name is Zerui Chen and I am currently undertaking a Master of Sport and Exercise (MSPEx) with the School of Health and Environmental Sciences at the Auckland University of Technology (AUT). Due to my interests and passions in the sport event management industry, I am investigating perceptions about the 2022 Winter Olympics in China in order to complete a Master's degree qualification. While this research will investigate the Winter Olympics, it will also reflect on sport event management, especially regarding mega-events. You have been identified as a person of Chinese origin/heritage with an interest in snow sports. I am writing to invite you to participate in a research project about the 2022 Winter Olympics in Beijing, China. Participation in this research project is on a voluntary basis. You have the right to withdraw from this study at any time, or to withdraw information you have provided prior to the completion of data collection. Please inform me if any aspects of the study cause you concern because of your cultural, religious or traditional customs or beliefs. Information gathered will be analysed and reported in a general form. We will make every attempt to maintain the confidentiality of the data. As the interviewer I pledge to keep everything discussed during the individual interviews confidential. At the completion of the study you will receive a summary of the main findings. The final study will be submitted for assessment for the Master of Sport and Exercise (MSPEx) from the Auckland University of Technology (AUT) and a copy of the thesis will be available at the library. Findings will also be used for publication and conference presentations. In all cases, no identifying information will be included. During the individual interview, you may be asked to provide some real-life experiences about snow sports and the Winter Olympics. You have the right to stop the interview or to not answer a question, at any time.

What is the purpose of this research?

This research aims to understand to what extent does Auckland's Chinese diaspora believe that hosting the 2022 Winter Olympic Games will leave a positive or negative legacy for those living in Beijing, China. Another focus of this research is to understand the perceived and potential costs/risks of hosting the 2022 Winter Olympics in China, for the host population. Most importantly, this research will investigate how the host population can build positive post-event legacies, while avoiding potential negative legacies connected to a mega-event such as the 2022 Winter Olympics in China.

How was I identified and why am I being invited to participate in this research?

You have been identified as a person of Chinese origin/heritage with an interest in snow sports. You are invited as a potential participant according to the following criteria:

- Resident in New Zealand
- New Zealanders of Chinese origin/ heritage or recent migrants from China

- Over the age of 18 years
- Some snow sports knowledge and experience

Participants will be recruited through adverts placed on relevant social media sites and through appropriate sporting organisations.

How do I agree to participate in this research?

Your participation in this research is voluntary (it is your choice) and whether you choose to participate will neither advantage nor disadvantage you. You can withdraw from the study at any time. If you choose to withdraw from the study, then you will be offered the choice between having any data that is identifiable as belonging to you removed or allowing your data to continue to be used. However, once the findings have been produced, removal of your data may not be possible. Before the interviews, an information pack will be sent to you. This pack will include a participant information sheet, pre-interview questions and a consent form. The pre-interview questions and consent form need to be returned to the researcher before the individual interview takes place.

What will happen in this research?

Once participants have signed the consent form, the primary researcher will contact each participant to make an appointment for an individual face-to-face interview. The duration of each interview will be forty-five to sixty minutes. Once the audio-recording of the interview has been transcribed, the researcher will send the transcript via email to the participant for checking. Once the transcript has been confirmed by the participant as a true and correct record of the interview, the researcher will begin analysing and interpreting the data. From the data analysis process, a narrative (story) will be created for each participant.

What are the discomforts and risks?

It is very important that you feel confident to speak freely. If you agree to participate in this research, I would like to electronically record your interviews. This may be a new experience for you. If there are any aspects of the study which cause you concern because of your cultural, religious or traditional customs or beliefs I will encourage you to inform me. If unforeseen circumstances arise (a health issue or unacceptable practice is identified) which does cause you distress, the researchers will engage the support and advice of the AUT Counselling team, or the Executive Secretary of AUTECH.

How will these discomforts and risks be alleviated?

The primary researcher will avoid serious and sensitive issues during the interview. I have set up the following procedures to make sure that your comments are kept private between me and you, and that any discomforts and risks are alleviated.

- You will be interviewed on your own.
- I will store your comments by using a pseudonym for your name.
- During each individual interview you can request that the electronic recorder be turned off at any time.
- A transcript will be sent to you after your interview so that you can verify that it is an accurate record, or you can make changes.
- You can withdraw information or yourself from the project at any time prior to the completion of data collection without any adverse effect on you.

However, if during the interview a bad experience is recalled and you feel uncomfortable, the AUT Health Counselling and Wellbeing is available to you. To access these services, you will need to:

- drop into our centres at WB219 or AS104 or phone 921 9992 City Campus or 921 9998 North Shore campus to make an appointment. Appointments for South Campus can be made by calling 921 9992
- let the receptionist know that you are a research participant, and provide the title of my research and my name and contact details as given in this Information Sheet

You can find out more information about AUT counsellors and counselling on <http://www.aut.ac.nz/being-a-student/current-postgraduates/your-health-and-wellbeing/counselling>.

What are the benefits?

As a participant in this research you will be contributing towards increased awareness and understanding of the perceptions of Auckland's Chinese diaspora, regarding the 2022 Winter Olympics in China. This research will be beneficial for different sports organisations, cities and countries who want to host major or sports mega-events. This study aims to identify the legacy before, during and after a mega-event, therefore this research will be beneficial for participants, researchers and students who study sport event management. Participants can also develop their knowledge about sport event management.

How will my privacy be protected?

The audio files from the electronic recordings of the interviews will be stored on a password protected computer that only the researchers will have access to. The transcriptions will be assigned a code so that the participant cannot be identified. The transcriptions will be stored in a locked cabinet separately from the consent forms and the code book. All data will be stored for six years and then destroyed. Paper data will be shredded, and the audio-files deleted. The audio-recording of each individual interview will be transcribed.

What are the costs of participating in this research?

The time for participants to answer the pre-interview questions: 5 to 10 minutes. The time for participants to complete the interview: 45 to 60 minutes.

Will I receive feedback on the results of this research?

A transcript will be sent to you after your interview so that you can verify that it is an accurate record, or you can make changes. Your data will contribute towards the final thesis. A summary of the main findings will be sent to each participant at the completion of the study.

What do I do if I have concerns about this research?

Any concerns regarding the nature of this project should be notified in the first instance to the Project Supervisor, Dr Richard Wright, richard.Wright@aut.ac.nz, 099219999 ext. 7312. Concerns regarding the conduct of the research should be notified to the Executive Secretary of AUTEK, Kate O'Connor, ethics@aut.ac.nz, 921 9999 ext. 6038.

Whom do I contact for further information about this research?

Please keep this participant Information Sheet and a copy of the Consent Form for your future reference. You are also able to contact the primary researcher: Zerui Chen, chenzerui1205@gmail.com

Project supervisor contact details: Richard Wright, Email: Wright@aut.ac.nz, Work number: 099219999 ext. 7312

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 9 May 2019,
AUTEK Reference number 19/155

Appendix B



Pre-interview questions

Date Produced: 10 April 2019

Project Title: The 2022 Winter Olympics: Sharing the perceptions of Auckland's Chinese Diaspora

Researcher: Zerui Chen

These questions are designed to begin to develop a profile about you as a participant in the research project. Please answer all sections in detail. You can add additional comments overleaf if you wish to. These pre-interview questions should take you 5-10 minutes.

Personal information

Name:

Occupation:

Ethnicity:

Languages: (First/Second/Third):

Email:

Mobile:

Preferred

method:(Em/Mob)

Best day/time to have an

interview?.....

Personal history

How long have you been resident in New Zealand?

What are your past experiences in sport (as a participant/ spectator/ coach/ administrator/ official/ manager/ supporter/ other)?

What are your past experiences in snow sports?

What snow sports have you participated in, in the past twelve months?

Thank you in anticipation for your time and help in making this study possible. Please note that individual interviews will take place at a time and venue convenient to you. If you would like further information about the proposed research project please contact me on 0211524461 or email me at chenzerui1205@gmail.com

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 9 May 2019,
AUTEK Reference number 19/155

Appendix C



Consent form

Project title: The 2022 Winter Olympics: sharing the perceptions of Auckland’s Chinese Diaspora

Project Supervisors: Dr Richard Wright, Dr Kath Godber

Researcher: Zerui Chen

- I have read and understood the information provided about this research project in the Information Sheet dated 10/04/2019.
- I have had an opportunity to ask questions and to have them answered.
- I understand that notes will be taken during the interviews and that they will also be audio-taped and transcribed.
- I understand that taking part in this study is voluntary (my choice) and that I may withdraw from the study at any time without being disadvantaged in any way.
- I understand that if I withdraw from the study then I will be offered the choice between having any data that is identifiable as belonging to me removed or allowing it to continue to be used. However, once the findings have been produced, removal of my data may not be possible.
- I agree to take part in this research.
- I wish to receive a summary of the research findings (please tick one): Yes No

Participant’s signature :

.....

Participant’s name:

.....

Participant’s Contact Details (if appropriate):

.....
.....
.....
.....

Date :

Appendix D



Participation Information Sheet

Site Access

The Manager of Snowplanet

Snowplanet

91 Small Rd,

Silverdale

Auckland

Researcher introduction

My name is Zerui Chen and I am currently undertaking a Master of Sport and Exercise (MSpEx) with the School of Health and Environmental Sciences at the Auckland University of Technology (AUT). Due to my interests and passions in the sport event management industry, I am investigating perceptions about the 2022 Winter Olympics in China in order to complete a master's degree qualification. While this research will investigate the Winter Olympics, it will also reflect on sport event management, especially regarding mega-events.

Project description and invitation

Snowplanet has been identified as a place where the people with an interest in snow sports. I am writing to invite the people in Snowplanet to participate in this research project about the 2022 Winter Olympics in Beijing, China.

Participation in this research project is on a voluntary basis. Participants have the right to withdraw from this study at any time, or to withdraw information participants have provided prior to the completion of data collection. Please inform me if any aspects of the study cause concern because of participants' cultural, religious or traditional customs or beliefs.

Information gathered will be analysed and reported in a general form. We will make every attempt to maintain the confidentiality of the data. As the interviewer I pledge to keep everything discussed during the individual interviews confidential. At the completion of the study participants will receive a summary of the main findings. The final study will be submitted for assessment for the Master of Sport and Exercise (MSpEx) from the Auckland University of Technology (AUT) and a copy of the thesis will be available at the library. Findings will also be used for publication and conference presentations. In all cases, no identifying information will be included.

During the individual interview, Participants may be asked to provide some real-life experiences about snow sports and the Winter Olympics. Participants have the right to stop the interview or to not answer a question, at any time.

What is the purpose of this research?

This research aims to understand to what extent does Auckland's Chinese diaspora believe that hosting the 2022 Winter Olympic Games will leave a positive or negative legacy for those living in Beijing, China. Another focus of this research is to understand the perceived and potential costs/risks of hosting the 2022 Winter Olympics in China, for the host population. Most importantly, this research will investigate how the host population can build positive post-event legacies, while avoiding potential negative legacies connected to a mega-event such as the 2022 Winter Olympics in China.

How was I identified and why am I being invited to participate in this research?

Participants have been identified as Chinese origin/heritage with an interest in snow sports. Participants are invited as a potential participant according to the following criteria:

- Resident in New Zealand
- New Zealanders of Chinese origin/ heritage or recent migrants from China
- Over the age of 18 years
- Some snow sports knowledge and experience

Participants will be recruited through adverts placed on relevant social media sites and through appropriate sporting organisations.

How do I agree to participate in this research?

The participation in this research is voluntary (it is participants' choice) and whether participants choose to participate will neither advantage nor disadvantage participants. Participants can withdraw from the study at any time. If participants choose to withdraw from the study, then participants will be offered the choice between having any data that is identifiable as belonging to participants removed or allowing participants' data to continue to be used. However, once the findings have been produced, removal of participants' data may not be possible.

Before the interviews, an information pack will be sent to participants. This pack will include a participant information sheet, pre-interview questions and a consent form. The pre-interview questions and consent form need to be returned to the researcher before the individual interview takes place.

What will happen in this research?

Once participants have signed the consent form, the primary researcher will contact each participant to make an appointment for an individual face-to-face interview. The duration of each interview will be forty-five to sixty minutes. Once the audio-recording of the interview has been transcribed, the researcher will send the transcript via email to the participant for checking. Once the transcript has been confirmed by the participant as a true and correct record of the interview, the researcher will begin analysing and interpreting the data. From the data analysis process, a narrative (story) will be created for each participant.

What are the discomforts and risks?

It is very important that participants feel confident to speak freely. If participants agree to participate in this research, I would like to electronically record interviews. This may be a new experience for participants. If there are any aspects of the study which cause concern because of participants' cultural, religious or traditional customs or beliefs I will encourage participants to inform me. If unforeseen circumstances arise (a health issue or unacceptable practice is identified) which does cause distress, the researchers will engage the support and advice of the AUT Counselling team, or the Executive Secretary of AUTECH.

How will these discomforts and risks be alleviated?

The primary researcher will avoid serious and sensitive issues during the interview. I have set up the following procedures to make sure that participants' comments are kept private between me and participants, and that any discomforts and risks are alleviated.

- participants will be interviewed on their own.
- I will store participants' comments by using a pseudonym for their name.
- During each individual interview participants can request that the electronic recorder be turned off at any time.
- A transcript will be sent to participants after interview so that participants can verify that it is an accurate record, or participants can make changes.
- Participants can withdraw information or themselves from the project at any time prior to the completion of data collection without any adverse effect on participants.

However, if during the interview a bad experience is recalled and you feel uncomfortable, the AUT Health Counselling and Wellbeing is available to you. To access these services, you will need to:

- drop into our centres at WB219 or AS104 or phone 921 9992 City Campus or 921 9998 North Shore campus to make an appointment. Appointments for South Campus can be made by calling 921 9992
- let the receptionist know that you are a research participant, and provide the title of my research and my name and contact details as given in this Information Sheet

Participants can find out more information about AUT counsellors and counselling on <http://www.aut.ac.nz/being-a-student/current-postgraduates/your-health-and-wellbeing/counselling>.

What are the benefits?

As a participant in this research participants will be contributing towards increased awareness and understanding of the perceptions of Auckland's Chinese diaspora, regarding the 2022 Winter Olympics in China.

This research will be beneficial for different sports organisations, cities and countries who want to host major or sports mega-events. This study aims to identify the legacy before, during and after a mega-event, therefore this research will be beneficial for participants, researchers and students who study sport event management. Participants can also develop their knowledge about sport event management.

How will my privacy be protected?

The audio files from the electronic recordings of the interviews will be stored on a password protected computer that only the researchers will have access to. The transcriptions will be assigned a code so that the participant cannot be identified. The transcriptions will be stored in a locked cabinet separately from the consent forms and the code book. All data will be stored for six years and then destroyed. Paper data will be shredded, and the audio-files deleted. The audio-recording of each individual interview will be transcribed.

What are the costs of participating in this research?

The time for participants to answer the pre-interview questions: 5 to 10 minutes.

The time for participants to complete the interview: 45 to 60 minutes.

Will I receive feedback on the results of this research?

A transcript will be sent to participants after participants' interview so that participants can verify that it is an accurate record, or they can make changes. Participants' data will contribute towards the final thesis. A summary of the main findings will be sent to each participant at the completion of the study.

What do I do if I have concerns about this research?

Any concerns regarding the nature of this project should be notified in the first instance to the Project Supervisor, Dr Richard Wright, richard.Wright@aut.ac.nz, 099219999 ext. 7312.

Concerns regarding the conduct of the research should be notified to the Executive Secretary of AUTEK, Kate O'Connor, ethics@aut.ac.nz, 921 9999 ext. 6038.

Whom do I contact for further information about this research?

Please keep this participant Information Sheet and a copy of the Consent Form for your future reference. You are also able to contact the primary researcher: Zerui Chen, chenzerui1205@gmail.com

Project supervisor contact details: Richard Wright, Email: Wright@aut.ac.nz, Work number: 099219999 ext. 7312

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 9 May 2019, AUTEK Reference number 19/155

Appendix E



Participant Advertisement

AUCKLAND UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY (AUT)

School of Health and Environmental Sciences

The 2022 Winter Olympics: Sharing the perceptions of Auckland's Chinese Diaspora

Participant Advertisement



BEIJING 2022



If you are an **Auckland Chinese Migrant** or of **Chinese origin** who is interested in **Sport** and/or the **Winter Olympics**, then I need to speak to **YOU!** Your ideas, thoughts and opinions could make a difference.

The purpose of this research is to explore what Auckland's Chinese diaspora **think** about **Beijing** becoming the **first city** to host both the Summer and the Winter Olympic Games.

If you are interested in being involved in this research, **volunteer** yourself by contacting **Zerui Chen** on chenzerui1205@gmail.com or text me on **0211524461** for more information.

Appendix F



Indicative interview questions

Project title: The 2022 Winter Olympics: sharing the perceptions of Auckland's Chinese Diaspora

Part A: Getting to know the participant

1. Can you tell me about your experiences in sport in China?
2. When did you come to New Zealand? Why did you come to New Zealand? Can you tell me about your sports experiences here in Auckland?
3. What in your opinion are key differences between winter sports in China and winter sports in New Zealand?

Part B: Perceptions about snow sport events

1. What snow sport events have you been to?
2. Why did you attend?
3. What were the positives for you at this event?
4. Were there any negatives?
5. What did the host country do well, not so well?
6. Would you attend this event again? Why/why not?

Part C: Perceptions about the 2022 Winter Olympics in Beijing

1. What do you know about the 2022 Winter Olympics?
2. Would you like to go to the 2022 Winter Olympics in China? Why/ why not?
3. What is your opinion about the 2022 Winter Olympics being hosted by China?

Part D: The perceived legacies of the 2022 Winter Olympics

1. What impact do you think this mega-event will have on Beijing; pre-Olympics, during and post?
2. What impact do you think this mega-event will have on local people pre-Olympics, during, and post; their businesses, sports organisations, transport, morale, confidence, finances, nationalism, etc.?
3. What negative impacts (e.g. costs and risks) do you think may arise within the host regions during this mega-event?
4. How do you think those living within the host regions will benefit while this event is on?
5. How do you think this event will impact China as a nation?
6. How do you think this event will impact China; socially, economically, politically and environmentally, while the event is on?
7. In what ways do you think this event will impact on China's international credibility as a Summer and Winter Olympics venue? Why?
8. Will anyone be disadvantaged by this event? Why?
9. From your view outside of China, what do you think will be the main short-term post-event legacy (outcome)?
10. From your view outside of China, what do you think will be the main long-term post-event legacy (outcome)?

11. In your opinion, what can China do to build positive post-event legacies, while avoiding the negative legacies?

Extra: Would you like to go to a Winter Olympics in the future? Why/why not?

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 9 May 2019, AUTEK Reference number 19/155 The 2022 Winter Olympics: Sharing the perceptions of Auckland's Chinese Diaspora.