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THE IMPACT OF LONDON 2012 OLYMPIC GAMES
ON COMMUNITY BASED SPORT IN THE UK: THE
ROLE OF NGBS IN LEVERAGING A
PARTICIPATION LEGACY

The thesis is presented for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy at the University of Kent

By

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Abbreviations

ANOVA	Analysis Of Variance
BJA	British Judo Association
BOA	British Olympic Association
BOS	Bristol Online Survey
BPA	British Paralympic Association
CLT	Central Limit Theorem
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CR	Critical Realism
CRF	Low Cardio-Respiratory Fitness
CSPs	County Sport Partnerships
DCMS	Department of Media, Culture and Sport
DOH	Department of Health
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
ESS	English Sports System
FA	Factor Analysis
GB	Great Britain
HRM	Human Resource Management
IOC	International Olympic Committee
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
LGA	Local Government Association
London 2012 Games	London 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games
MANOVA	Multivariate Analysis Of Variance

NCSEM	National Centre of Sport and Exercise Medicine
NGBs	National Governing Bodies
NHS	National Health Service
OGGI	Olympic Games Global Impact
PCA	Principal Component Analysis
RDD	Random Digit Dialling
RQ	Research Question
SE	Sport England
SEM	Specialists in Exercise Medicine
SME	Sports Mega Event
SPEAR	Sport, Physical Education and Activity Research
SS	Social Sustainability
SSP	School Sports Partnerships
TP	Taking Part
TTM	Trans-Theoretical Model
UK	United Kingdom
VSCs	Voluntary Sports Clubs
WTP	Willingness to Pay

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of a Sports Mega Event (SME), the London 2012 Olympic and Paralympics Games, and the specific legacy objective that was set to increase grass-root sports participation. This research aimed to investigate the leveraging processes that were used to try to achieve this objective, through National Governing Bodies (NGBs) who were outlined by Sport England (SE) as the main delivery agent to support the participation initiatives associated to the London 2012 Games (Sport England, 2008). Through the community sports delivery system, NGBs have a network of Voluntary Sports Clubs (VSCs) that were utilised as the main delivery agents across the country.

The theory of policy implementation was applied to investigate the processes and practices involved for these organisations both ‘top down’ (NGBs) and ‘bottom up’ (VSCs), to better understand their attitudes and experiences surrounding the London 2012 Games. Governance of sports organisations is highly correlated to the process of policy implementation within NGBs and their associated networks. The top-down and bottom-up implementation processes, mirror the modification within the governance literature, through an attrition of governmental power, policy delivery and governance shifted towards a bottom-up approach through partnerships and networks (Bevir and Rhodes, 2006; Grix, 2010).

This was investigated through two main studies, firstly through a multi case study design, with four non-popular English sports. This study took a bottom-up approach, in which 32 interviews were undertaken primarily with the VSCs (n=25), the delivery agents of the participation objective, then additionally with NGB head office staff (n=7) to investigate their opinions of the legacy implementation process within their sport surrounding the legacy objectives. The significance of investigating these non-popular sports, related to the distinctive opportunity that a home Olympic and Paralympic Games provided them.

The second study involved a top-down analysis with NGB senior managers, to gain an insight into how they perceive SMEs and the impact this had on leveraging and implementation strategies, which aimed to increase sports participation. An exploratory, in-depth, mixed method online survey was conducted post London 2012 and 105 responses were received from NGB senior and regional managers. These

responses accounted for 37 out of 46 Sport England funded sports producing an extensive representative sample within the sector. This provided a more comprehensive understanding of the sports delivery system and the elements that are involved in legacy production.

Results provided new insights into the specific attitudes and significant role that these key stakeholders involved with the legacy production process have, which up to this point has been missing within the academic discourse. Across both studies issues surrounding communication, VSC engagement and attitudes were noted, relating to the importance of building partnerships at both a national and local level and the benefits of social media as a leveraging strategy. Principally, NGBs need to ensure they involve Voluntary Sports Clubs (VSCs) in the SMEs planning stages and the current top-down implementation process is leading to a fragmented delivery system. To limit this, NGBs need to develop a clearer understanding of their VSCs characteristics across their network, as findings highlighted the negative feelings and misuse of some clubs, reducing the efficiency of legacy creation.

Thus, by allowing flexibility for informal legacies to emerge and by providing support to VSC stakeholders that may need upskilling, the SMEs can be capitalised on effectively. Results highlighted that external media had a greater impact on participation and interest, than individual participation programmes for VSCs. Valuable findings emerged throughout the thesis and resulted in beneficial recommendations for future SMEs hosts. Critical Realism (CR) was used as a guiding philosophical perspective to aid understanding and analysis of leveraging and legacy conceptualisation.

Keywords: legacy; leveraging; sports mega events; sports participation; Olympic Games; critical realism; quantitative and qualitative research; national governing bodies; voluntary sports clubs; organisational communication; club engagement; policy implementation.

Chapter 1-Introduction

1.1 Overview

27th July 2012 witnessed the opening ceremony of the London 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games¹, marking the XXX Olympiad (Olympic Website, 2016). The Olympic and Paralympic Games are the most significant global event in the international sporting calendar and this event provided a month of sporting excellence, triumphs and disappointments that audiences and spectators enjoyed worldwide (Poynter and MacRury, 2009). Yet, Sports Mega Events (SMEs), such as the Olympic and Paralympic Games are now expected to deliver more than just a few weeks of exceptional elite sport, with long term legacy planning, considerations surrounding sustainability and environmental factors fundamental within the bidding processes for a host nation. Baron Pierre de Coubertin founded the International Olympic Committee (IOC) in 1894 and two years later he organised and led the first Modern Olympic Games in Athens (Polley, 2011). Coubertin defined the Modern Olympics and stated:

“The Olympic Games which recently took place in Athens were modern in character... because of their origin and regulations; they were international and universal and consequently adapted to the conditions in which athletics have developed in the present day” (Polley, 2011, p.88).

With Coubertin’s symbolic Latin Olympic Motto ‘*Citius, Altius, Fortius*’ translating to ‘Swifter, Higher, Stronger’ this phrase embodies the ultimate goal for Olympic, Paralympic and other athletes alike, to achieve sporting success, encompassing the Olympic spirit (Williams, 1996). London is the only city to host this global sporting event for the third time, with Seb Coe’s multinational, legacy-focused bid resulting in London being crowned the 2012 host, by the IOC in 2005 (Horne and Whannel, 2012). Whilst the London 2012 Olympics have been and gone, highlights continue to be celebrated, such as Team Great Britain’s (GB) 65 medal haul placing

¹ Hereon after throughout this thesis the phrase ‘London 2012 Games’, refers to solely the London 2012 Olympic Games, due to the focus of this research on the Olympic Games, as opposed to the Paralympic Games.

them third in the medal table (Knight and Ruscoe, 2012). ‘Super Saturday’ which saw Team GB obtain six gold medals and one silver, resulted in Britain’s most successful day of Olympic competition in 104 years (Chadband, 2012).

Reflecting on the six ambitious legacy promises that are outlined below, the expectations and pressure to deliver on these aspirational targets put the United Kingdom (UK) government into the spotlight. The UK government published five legacy pledges in 2007 through the Department of Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS) and these were referred to as “Our Promise for 2012” (DCMS, 2007). A sixth promise relating to disability was added in 2009 (Cashman and Horne, 2013).

1. We will make the UK a world-leading sporting nation.
2. We will transform the heart of east London.
3. We will inspire a new generation of young people to take part in local volunteering, cultural and physical activity.
4. We will make the Olympic Park a blueprint for sustainable living.
5. We will demonstrate the UK is a creative, inclusive and welcoming place to live in, visit and do business.
6. To develop the opportunities and choices for disabled people.

The focus of this research was on promise 3, which aimed to get more individuals active by ‘Inspiring a Generation’. To achieve this promise, the UK government and in turn Sport England (SE), the non-departmental, public body that sits under the DCMS, placed National Governing Bodies (NGBs) “at the heart of the strategy; as it is their network of community clubs and other assets that will drive delivery” and implement legacy (Sport England, 2008, p.10). Community Sport Organisations (CSO’s) are non-profit organisations and are sometimes known as grass-root sport organisations; typically, they are run by volunteers and include local associations and sports clubs (Cuskelly, 2004). The justification to focus on this specific legacy objective within the context of the community sport sector was to gain a detailed account of key stakeholder’s experiences and involvement in the legacy

creation process. As in 2008, there was a shift within community sports policy and the way that lottery funding was allocated. Funding moved towards a NGB-led process, utilising Whole Sport Plans (WSPs), which are submitted every four years, with the current cycle being 2013-17 (Harris, 2012). The WSP documentation does not secure them funding but forms part of the process through which SE decide on which 46 sports to fund, in order to increase grass-root participation. The WSP for each sport outlines how they would spend the funding to increase participation, as well as, outlining key disability and elite targets (Sport England, 2016a). These outlined strategies form part of the legacy production process, which Chalip (2006) suggests is also known as “event leveraging”. These are the initiatives implemented pre-and during the SMEs to enhance anticipated outcomes. Yet, not all strategies or outcomes are intended and by utilising the CR perspective it allowed an investigation into the multi layered elements of legacy production, including the leveraging strategies themselves.

1.2 Aims and Objectives

The aim of this research was to identify, analyse and evaluate the SME leveraging strategies and legacy production within NGBs and their subsequent network of Voluntary Sports Clubs (VSCs). This study investigated the legacy strategies and initiatives that were implemented with the intention of increasing grass root participation. The event being investigated for this research is the London 2012 Games.

To investigate this, the study’s main objective and RQ are outlined below:

Main Objective: To analyse the impact that the London 2012 Olympic Games had on community sport within the UK, by investigating what role NGBs played in leveraging a participation legacy.

RQ1: How do NGBs perceive SMEs and what impact did their perceptions have on the leveraging and implementation strategies in order to achieve the legacy objective of increased sports participation?

RQ2: What are the key components involved in legacy production for a sport participation objective, utilising the policy implementation process?

RQ3: What were VSCs attitudes towards the implementation and what legacy creation processes were undertaken by VSCs, across the four minority sports?

RQ4: How can the findings from the selected NGBs and VSCs inform the way sports organisations create and implement sports event policy and strategies in the future?

The purpose of undertaking this research is to enhance the body of knowledge and understanding around SMEs and specifically the processes and practices that lead to certain intended and unintended legacy outcomes. To date no research has been undertaken with the managerial team within NGB, investigating their attitudes towards SMEs and their involvement with strategy creation and implementation of these participation initiatives. Frawley, Toohey and Veal (2013) identified this gap in the literature regarding the processes involved with legacy creation and they stressed the need for importance to be placed on the views of NGB managers and the way they aimed to capitalise on SMEs. The research will shed light on the views, experiences and recommendations specifically related to the London 2012 Games, as well as, providing a tool for future research into SMEs and the legacy production and implementation processes.

More is understood about VSCs and the role they play within the sports delivery system, yet research has broadly focused on their attitudes, motivations and policy implementation (Harris, Mori, and Collins, 2009; May, Harris, and Collins, 2013; Nichols and James, 2008; Taylor, Barrett and Nichols, 2009). Minimal research has investigated the attitudes of these delivery agents and their involvement within SMEs legacy creation. This focus on both the NGBs and VSCs will provide detailed insights and understanding of the legacy creation process and illustrate recommendations for future SMEs hosts and the relevant sporting organisations that are looking to capitalise on such events. Legacy outcomes associated to SMEs are now indispensable to the justification of hosting SMEs and the suggestion that other policy initiatives can be harnessed through these events are commonly being used as a rationale for hosting SMEs (Smith, 2014).

By using CR to guide the investigation and analysis, a more in-depth understanding was gained about the legacy creation process, which allowed the examination of legacy through a multi-layered viewpoint. This facilitated

investigation on how structures and agents interact, by either supporting or obstructing the legacy production process. This allows legacy to be viewed beyond the typologies, characteristics and outcomes that somewhat define it within the current literature and offers a method through which legacy can be examined to understand the multiple realities of legacy that exist (Byers, Hayday and Pappous, under review).

1.3 Structure of Thesis

The thesis will continue with the second chapter, which takes the form of a literature review, providing insight and investigation into SMEs, as well as, topics such as leveraging, legacy and sports policy which are significant themes within this research project. This chapter provides a justification for investigating this specific research area and outlines what is currently understood within the research area. Additionally, to the topics highlighted above, outcomes of previous SMEs were investigated, specifically relating to sports participation. The context of the research was also provided to ensure an understanding of the English sports delivery system, sports policy, NGBs and VSCs was achieved. The chapter then outlines the theoretical perspective used for this thesis and investigates the methodological choices.

Chapter 3 summaries the methodological approaches used within this research, which ensured that the aims and objectives of the investigation could be achieved. The research processes and strategy were explained, alongside the philosophical perspective that was adopted for this project. Within this chapter, factors such as reliability and validity were also discussed, together with the data collection procedures used for both studies (1 and 2). Chapter 4 outlines the data analysis techniques that were utilised within study 2, such as the descriptive statistics, variable measurement, inferential statistics such as Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Multivariate Analysis Of Variance (MANOVA). Chapter 5 provides the results of study 1 by reporting the findings from the interviews with the VSCs and NGBs across four non-popular sports. This provided a detailed insight into the VSCs coaches and volunteer's attitudes and involvement in the production of the London 2012 participation legacy.

Chapter 6 provides the results from study 2, the online survey which was conducted with NGB senior managers. This chapter outlines the findings from the initial descriptive analysis and qualitative components of the survey. These results provided a comprehensive insight into the NGB senior manager's opinions and perspectives of the London 2012 Games and their involvement in the legacy production and implementation process. Chapter 7 follows on and provides results for the study 2, by illustrating the Inferential Statistics that were utilised in data analysis, EFA and MANOVA. These results highlighted the components that are needed within legacy creation and implementation. Chapter 8 then provides the discussion and conclusion for the thesis, with an overview of the empirical findings. This chapter concludes by providing recommendations for research and practice and reflections on the research process itself.

Chapter 2- Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to critically review and discuss the literature surrounding Sports Mega Events (SMEs), leveraging, legacy and sports policy. The literature review provided the rationale for the investigation into the impact that the 2012 Games had on community sport and empirically understanding the role that NGBs play in leveraging a participation legacy. This chapter starts with 2.2, in which SMEs were reviewed, investigating the outcomes used to justify the hosting of these events. This was followed by the investigation of legacy in 2.3 and leveraging was examined in 2.4, exploring the current understanding of these terms within the academic field and their place within SMEs research. This was followed by section 2.5, which reviewed the outcomes of SMEs, through analysis of previous studies that have examined the effects deduced from previous SMEs. The focus then specifically shifted to the London 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games in section 2.6, reviewing the associated plans and legacy objectives set by the UK Government.

The London 2012 Games specific legacy plans were examined in 2.7, relating to youth legacy, school sport and the changes that occurred from the bid through to hosting. A clearer understanding of the London 2012 legacy was outlined in section 2.8, through the evaluation of studies that investigated the specific legacy plans and initial outcomes of London 2012 Games. Importantly, in 2.9 the evaluation methods used for this specific SME were then addressed to ensure the processes of evaluation for the sports participation legacy were understood. Sports participation was the focus of section 2.10, with Physical Activity (PA) and health legacies being reviewed in 2.11, to understand the complications and importance of influencing the nation's level of sports participation.

The next stage of the literature review represented in 2.12, focused on the specific context of the research within the English Sports System (ESS). This allowed the analysis of organisations that are involved in the community sports delivery system from policy creation to implementation within Voluntary Sports Clubs (VSCs).

Detailed analysis was then undertaken throughout section 2.13, on National Governing Bodies (NGBs) and section 2.14 outlined VSCs, as these two organisations were the main implementing agents used by Sport England (SE) to achieve the sports participation legacy. Sports development and sports policy were outlined in section 2.15, as it was necessary to understand the changes within sports policy. Policy implementation was explored in 2.16, to understand the processes, through which the legacy programmes were put into place within the ESS. The policy implementation process was explored in three main categories: ‘Top-down’ in section 2.17, ‘Bottom-up’ in 2.18 and then 2.19 focused on ‘Synthesis’. This was then reviewed within the context of ESS in subsection 2.20 and the theoretical perspective of current research was then illustrated in 2.21. Finally, in 2.22 methodologies of previous studies were then displayed to understand appropriate approaches for the current research.

2.2 Sports Mega Events

SMEs such as the Summer Olympic Games and FIFA Football World Cup are “large-scale cultural (including commercial and sporting) events, which have a dramatic character, mass popular appeal and international” (Roche, 2000, p.1). Two dominant features of contemporary SMEs are the substantial media coverage they attract, as well as, the substantial consequences they have on the host city, region or nation in which they occur (Horne, 2007). SMEs, the associated outcomes and legacies associated to these events have received substantial attention within the public and academic domains. There is much deliberation about legacy production and how legacy is defined (Cashman, 2003; Cornelissen and Swart, 2006; Preuss, 2007). SMEs are expected to deliver outcomes beyond just the few weeks of competition, with environmental considerations, legacy planning and long term sustainability at the core of every host city’s bid. Smith (2014) reinforces the importance of associated outcomes, such as urban regeneration to substantiate the worth of SMEs. However, there is still much debate about legacy within the literature and it has become a focal point of the academic discourse around SMEs.

Preuss (2007, p.211) defines legacy as “irrespective of the time of production and space, legacy is all planned and unplanned, positive and negative, tangible and intangible structures created for and by a sport event that remain longer than the event itself”. Interestingly, the process of how legacies are created through the

implementation of initiatives and strategies prior to and/or during the SMEs to optimise planned outcomes is known as “event leveraging”. This has received limited attention within the academic discourse, compared to growing outcome and legacy literature (Chalip, 2006).

With SMEs needing to deliver on a ‘legacy ethos’, as legacy is now incorporated into official policy and planning documents, the financial burden associated to hosting these event is heightened (MacAloon, 2008; Smith, 2014) meaning that understanding the process of legacy creation through leveraging is critical. Literature focusing on SMEs has predominantly been outcome focused, through examination of the planned objectives and promises such as an increase in mass participation (Hindson, Gidlow and Peebles, 1994; Frawley and Cush, 2011; MORI, 2004; Pappous and Hayday, 2015; Veal, Toohey and Frawley, 2012). However, minimal research has considered the processes of why this change does or does not occur. For sports development to be replicable and sustainable the objective should be to know what led to an outcome, to ensure the successes can be replicated or indeed the failures avoided.

2.3 Legacy

“Legacy is just one of the motivations to host an Olympic Games” (Veal, Toohey and Frawley 2012, p.157) and for London it was the winning stimuli that secured the successful bid in 2005. Girginov (2012) suggests that the concept of Olympic legacy was firmly established as central to the Olympic movement in early 2000, with the first concerted attempt to deliberate this concept in 2002. Under the patronage of the International Olympic Committee (IOC) at a Symposium on Legacies of the Olympic Games (1984–2000). Even in its infancy, the Symposium recognised the difficulties in defining legacy due to its diverse implications, hence the IOC (2002, p.2) provided an inexplicit definition:

“Olympic legacy ... is multi-disciplinary and dynamic – changing over time – and is affected by a variety of local and global factors. Therefore, while being difficult to define, it is a local and global concept, existing within cities, regions and nations, as well as, internationally. Yet, it is fundamental in the understanding of the mission of Olympism in society”.

Many scholars (Preuss, 2007; Chappelet, 2012; Cornelissen and Swart, 2006) have highlighted the issues with defining legacy, its theoretical conceptualisation and how it is produced. Critically, Preuss (2007, p.209) suggested that “no satisfying definition of any type of ‘legacy’ is available”. Within the literature one certainty is that legacy has been investigated, interpreted and understood through many different lenses. It is an area of extreme importance within the Olympic Movement, which was outlined in the Olympic Charter Rule 2, Article 13 and 14 (IOC, 2007, p.14-15) which stated that the IOC is required “to promote a positive legacy from the Olympic Games to the host cities and host countries”. This emphasises the need for bidding cities to show detailed consideration and long term planning, even in the early bidding stages for the SMEs.

Weed (2008) suggests there is a pre-Olympic pregnancy period, which is significant for leveraging PA, sport and health legacies. Aspects of legacy, range from infrastructure, marketing, economic growth, urban design and physical participation changes, through to under acknowledged elements, such as volunteering, community spirit, archives, memory (De Moragas, Kennett and Puig, 2003). Cashman (2006) emphasises the problematic and dangerous nature of the term legacy, as when the term is used by organising committees it is assumed to be entirely positive, and legacy benefits are presumed to filter through to local communities automatically. Nevertheless, Cashman (2006) suggests that at Sydney 2000, these pre-conceived and different assumptions were not apparent and it was believed that legacy was self-evident. This indicates a problem relating to presumption of legacy and how it is measured, as organisers may assume the impact will be obvious.

The process of trying to define legacy within academic discourse has led to numerous definitions and views emerging. Gratton and Preuss’ (2008) legacy cube offers one of the most comprehensive definitions of legacy as it focuses on different categorisations of legacy, including positive, negative, planned, unplanned, tangible and intangible. This is valuable to enhance our understanding of which forms legacy can take, but it does not examine or explain how legacy can be produced or sustained.

Preuss (2015) created a framework for identifying SMEs legacies. This allowed an understanding to emerge of who is affected by them, their duration and

value. Preuss (2015) stresses the difficulties with recognising SMEs legacies, due to non-event developments, as well as, the differences in stakeholder viewpoints. He states it is impossible to conduct a general study on event legacy, without defining the stakeholder perspective, due to the diversity of implications a legacy can have on different stakeholder groups (Preuss, 2015).

This thesis aimed to investigate NGBs at a national and local level, to understand the views and attitudes towards legacy production, as NGBs were a focal stakeholder group involved in the London 2012 Games. Grix (2014) suggests politically, sport and SMEs and the intertwined legacies are used as a platform for individual political outcomes. Hosts of SMEs envisage and hope for a diverse range of benefits from SMEs including urban regeneration, the opportunity to showcase their country on the world stage, as well as, health legacies and increases in PA and sport participation levels (Grix, 2014).

Griffiths and Armour (2013) emphasised the complexity involved in delivering a participation legacy from a SME. A study by Bauman, Bellew and Craig (2014) evaluated the 2000 Sydney Olympics and stated, “the legacy of the OG may be apparent through new infrastructure and other urban improvements, but evidence of their influence on physical activity levels remains elusive” (p.243). Weed et al. (2009) analysed previous sport legacy SME literature, finding poor evidence for SME successes, as previous Olympic and Paralympic Games have used generic measures of social impacts, which resulted in incomprehensible evidence regarding the health and PA benefits.

Taks, Green, Misener, and Chalip (2014) evaluated the sports development outcomes of medium sized international sports events and through their analysis they identified numerous unintended outcomes. They reinforced the importance of strategies and initiatives being created and implemented from the outset of an event which allowed the assessment and analysis of initiatives and tactics. The strategies used by SE and NGBs were outlined and documented prior to the London 2012 Games, through Whole Sport Plans (WSPs) which will be discussed later.

Taks et al. (2014, p.213) recommended that “future research should focus on the underlying processes, rather than just the impacts and outcomes”. That is, although outcomes are important to understand and investigate, for a legacy to be replicable and

understood for the future you need to develop a clear understanding of what elements and processes led to the specific outcome. Chalip (2014) outlined a relatively new method, through which a SMEs can be investigated, this is known as ‘event leverage’. This is a shift away from the notion of outcomes and the idea of legacy which is promoted through the IOC. Chalip (2014) states that for events to deliver on the social, economic and other outcomes that individuals seek from SMEs, specific strategies need to be formulated and implemented in line with those outcomes. One difficulty with event leverage is the short duration of the events, as they provide little time to integrate the event into the host nation’s service and product mix which is the objective of leveraging (Chalip, 2014).

2.4 Leveraging

An emerging body of literature is focusing on the planned initiatives and strategies that are implemented prior and during the SMEs. As stated above this is known as event leveraging and is a relatively new area of research (Chalip, 2014). This paradigm shifts away from impact, ensuring the focus is on the tactical processes that aim to make the most of the desired outcomes. Leveraging restructures event evaluation, to ensure it is more useful for future event bidding, planning and production by focusing on the processes and elements used (Chalip, 2014). Leveraging is advantageous, as the positive impact event leveraging can bring, can be valuable to a wider group of individuals (Smith, 2014). Yet, caution is needed with regards to the leveraging model, as some initiatives may be publicised purely for public relation benefits, or it may be used as another method to justify SMEs (Smith, 2014). Chalip (2014, p.10) states that “research and theory show that leveraging is both feasible and effective”, as it forms a fundamental part of the events planning stages, instead of acting as an afterthought to substantiate the event.

Leveraging research is moderately new and to date there is little focus on how and why particular leveraging strategies are effective. Preuss (2015) suggests multiple leveraging dimensions, with the most relevant being that leveraging is positive and planned. This highlights the restrictive nature when investigating leveraging, as it does not allow the possibility to investigate the multifaceted features of legacy creation, which may be unexpected or negative. It is a requirement of the IOC that hosts produce a legacy plan to identify what legacies will be produced and articulate plans for how they will be achieved. This has been referred to as “event leveraging” strategies and

initiatives that are implemented prior to and during the SMEs and are used to optimise desired outcomes (Chalip, 2006, p.112). This differs from event impact, which much research within the field has focused on, as this is typically concerned with the outcomes, through an *ex post* focus and forms a post event evaluation (Chalip, 2006). The strategic and tactical focus of leveraging and how it differs from event impact is illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1: Differences between event impact and event leverage (Chalip, 2006, p.113)

Impact	Leverage
Outcomes Event treated in isolation	Strategies (and tactics) Event analysed with reference to destination product and service mix
Event evaluation <i>ex post</i> focus Descriptive	Organisational learning <i>ex ante</i> focus Analytic

Smith (2013) highlighted that London 2012 had a clear leveraging focus within the planning stages and Lord Coe stated his objective to leverage social, economic, and sporting benefit from the London 2012 Games (Gibson, 2012). Chalip (2014) states that more research is needed to dissect the techniques of leverage, hence an empirical case study of the London 2012 Games is presented within this thesis. This will enhance the understanding of leveraging and the legacy creation process, the case study was conducted through the Critical Realist paradigm. This focus towards strategic leverage is a critical way to ensure a long-term outcome can be achieved, which is essential to maintain the private and public support upon which SMEs depend upon (O'Brien and Chalip, 2007).

There are many types of leveraging and social leveraging is most related to the sports participation objectives associated with London 2012. Chalip (2006) states that SMEs organisers should promote social interaction, through SMEs related social events and informal social opportunities, to create a celebration feeling. The resulting effect and meanings gained can be leveraged and harnessed to encourage community action and address social issues. The effects can be increased when harmonised with

a SMEs, as social leverage can also be supported through commercial enterprises (Chalip, 2006). The tactics and techniques of social leveraging still need to be investigated further. Yet, events such as the London 2012 Games provide more than just a few weeks of entertainment and shared occasions, that can harness potential social value, through the leveragable 'feel good' character. However, Chalip (2006) notes this has unfortunately been utilised as a political tool, rather than to empower social action. This 'feel good', celebration effect and social camaraderie that is felt around SMEs, are key components in the creation of "liminality" (Chalip, 2006, p.113). Liminality refers to an event's liminoid space/time, in which traditional social boundaries are deferred and alternate social conditions are (re)created, which creates a shared communal purpose amongst participants and/or spectators (Ziakas, 2013).

Some initial research has been done to investigate the practical implications for leveraging alongside the theoretical understanding of this process. Grix (2012) investigated image leveraging surrounding the 2006 FIFA World Cup, in which Germany aimed to utilise a long term leveraging strategy to improve their nation's (poor) international image. They utilised three main approaches: the creation of the feel-good factor, co-ordinated campaigns and the event was also organised through a 'fan-centred' approach. This leveraging strategy worked, as reports on Germany's external image highlighted (Grix, 2012). Grix's research contributes to the understanding of leveraging processes by applying Chalip's leveraging model (2004), which was originally created to investigate economic leverage but has since been adapted to be used in other contexts,

Kellett, Hede and Chalip (2008) undertook a highly relatable research, by investigating social policy and leveraging to increase community benefit. They compared two cities' implementation of a programme that aimed to leverage the presence of visiting teams training for the 2006 Commonwealth Games. One city made no effort to leverage any benefits, whilst the other created a strategic plan. The city that implemented a strategic plan harnessed benefits, such as cultural insights and improved organisational networks, compared to no equivalent benefits within the other city. This variance was caused by the vague policy outline and the difference within the strategic vision of each city. Thus, reinforcing the need to have a clear initiative and strategy in order to produce social leverage (Kellett, Hede and Chalip, 2008) and successful implementation. Other studies have considered the leveraging implications for non-mega events (Taks, Chalip, and Green, 2015), health leveraging

(Murphy, Lane and Bauman, 2015) and furthermore sports participation (Taks, Misener, Chalip, and Green, 2013). Taks et al. (2013) study reinforced the need to have targeted strategies in place, in order to increase participation, as events on their own are unlikely to produce an increase. Furthermore, Taks et al. (2013) emphasised that sports organisations have a lack of local resources to ensure they can capitalise on the event. This provides an interesting basis from which to investigate within the English context.

2.5 Outcomes of SMEs

Along with defining legacies, understanding how they can be leveraged, there is a need to investigate what outcomes or legacies have been achieved. There are many ways in which this can and has been investigated. A review undertaken by Malfas, Theodoraki and Houlihan (2004) considered the impacts of SMEs and the Olympic and Paralympic Games specifically. The study reviewed previous literature and looked at the impact the SMEs had on the host city, both positively and negatively. They investigated impacts such as cultural, political, economic and physical and findings highlighted that the prospect of economic growth in the host country is the main reason for the bid to host a SMEs (Malfas, Theodoraki and Houlihan, 2004). Furthermore, the legacies that are suggested to be the lasting reminders of SMEs, are multifaceted, prone to political interpretation and are difficult to quantify.

There are many types of legacies and Preuss (2014) argues that predominately research establishes a typology of legacy. This is understandable when you look at the many types of legacy such as: economic (Preuss, 2004), health (McCartney et al., 2010), sports participation (Hayday, Pappous and Koutrou, 2016; Veal, Toohey and Frawley, 2012; Pappous, 2011), political and soft power (Grix and Houlihan, 2014; Grix and Kramareva, 2017; Grix, 2013), tourism (Giampiccoli, Lee and Nauright, 2015) and security (Giulianotti and Klauser, 2010). These emphasise the numerous component parts through which legacy can be analysed. Due to the nature of this research the primary focus of the literature review is to highlight the sports participation and physical activity outcomes from SMEs.

With regards to previous Olympic Games (1996-2008) and the non-infrastructure outcomes Minnaert (2012) undertook an exploratory study across 7 Olympic cities, and analysed the outcomes for socially excluded groups. The research

followed a semi-longitudinal and comparative design and results indicated that Sydney was the only Games that incorporated social aims and initiatives into their programme, but this was mainly unsuccessful (Minnaert, 2012). Yet, the Homelessness Protocol, which provided legal protection, through a code of practice for how street homeless people should be treated and assisted by security and police, was found to be a lasting legacy from the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games (Minnaert, 2012). This highlights a successful initiative as not only did Sydney include Social Sustainability (SS) aims into its bid, they also effectively tried to implement three main programmes: ticketing policy, employment and training opportunities and the Homeless Protocol, with one providing a social legacy. This research highlighted a key global problem, as there are cultural differences in the terminology of SS. This successful legacy achievement highlights the need for the IOC to recognise the importance of making SS significant within the Olympic bidding process, similar to factors such as environmental sustainability. Rio 2016 highlights clear, explicit SS goals compared to most other Olympic and Paralympic cities, by suggesting youth orientated programmes and this will hopefully develop and heighten the profile of SS (Minnaert, 2012).

Research undertaken by Reis, de Sousa-Mast and Gurgel (2014) started to analyse the proposed sports participation legacies of Rio 2016, by interviewing 24 PE professionals (12 males and 12 females), investigating their perceptions of the 2016 Games. This study supported the complexity of quantifying intangible legacies, as due to their complexity, they are difficult to plan, measure and evaluate (Reis, de Sousa-Mast and Gurgel, 2014). Results advised that currently subjects had no knowledge of strategies or implementation processes at a local level, highlighting a lack of leveraging prior to the event. Reis, de Sousa-Mast and Gurgel (2014) suggested the cultural phenomenon was a source of optimism for the Rio 2016 legacy, this possibly relates to the 'festival effect' outlined by McCartney et al. (2010) and Weed et al. (2009). These findings suggest that the government needs long term (leveraging) strategies that are clearly outlined, to ensure legacy is positive and sustainable (Reis, de Sousa-Mast and Gurgel, 2014).

Weed, et al., (2012) highlights that for positively engaged individuals it is easier to increase PA levels, however sedentary individuals are most likely beyond the reach of these initiatives, meaning a different strategy is needed. Ramchandani, Davies, Coleman, Shibli and Bingham (2015) investigated this objective to use events

to increase sports participation, within the context of a non-mega sports event, and this supports Weed et al. (2012) suggestions about positively engaged and inactive respondents. Ramchandani et al. (2015) found that post non-mega events, different types of participation behaviour such as initial, sustained and lagged effects were seen by active and inactive respondents. They highlighted the need for future organisers to consider how they can attract and inspire inactive individuals. Yet, attributing causality is problematic due to additional factors that can lead to or limit participation. It was evident that the event alone will not increase participation and that other factors such as leveraging strategies must be considered (Ramchandani et al., 2015).

Atkinson, Mourato, Szymanski, and Ozdemiroglu (2008) researched the intangible impacts of London's bid; a contingent valuation survey was undertaken, providing the first empirical investigation with the objective to evaluate whether intangible impacts might justify hosting SMEs on cost-benefit grounds. Respondents were from three main cities London (558), Manchester (138) and Glasgow (146) and the survey evaluated the individual's Willingness to Pay (WTP) with regards to hosting 2012 for the specific, possible intangible impacts (Atkinson, et al., 2008). Findings suggested the annual mean WTP is £22, £12 and £11 per annum, for 10 years, in 3 UK corresponding cities. Scaling those figures up to a UK wide based WTP, the intangible impacts equal to approximately £2 billion. Statistical analysis examined the specific WTP determinants, which generated a range of plausible, explanatory factors such as respondents' degree of support for the bid (Atkinson, et al., 2008). In the top 7 determinants, national pride and inspiring children scored the highest with disability awareness, legacy facilities, environmental, promoting healthy living and cultural events also featuring (Atkinson et al., 2008).

As Malfas et al., (2004) suggested, the legacies are multifaceted and other factors must be considered such as the economic climate, weather, time of year, access and sample size; rather than just taking the singular measurement of either an increase or decrease in participation and deciding on success or failure solely on that basis. Many academics and experts alike have stated the difficulties of quantifying and accurately measuring the legacies of SMEs. Yet, Preuss (2007, p.207) knowing this problem, started to conceptualise a "bottom-up approach, which identifies the event legacy by evaluation of 'soft' and 'hard' event related changes in the host city". The modifications that occur during this period are known as 'event structures'

(infrastructure and image of the city, knowledge, networks, emotions and culture). Even though Preuss' (2007) focus was on tourism legacy, before he conceptualised the bottom up method he considered two main methods that are currently used to determine legacy. First, benchmarking which is centred on past experiences from former SMEs and is often utilised as a forecasting method relating to legacy during the planning stage. Second, the 'top-down' approach or macro-economic indicators, such as Gross Domestic Product (GDP) are utilised post event to find evidence to justify the hosting of the SMEs and the impact that it had.

Preuss (2007) suggested benchmarking was believed to be flawed, as much of the literature reviewed only focused on a singular legacy or occasionally two legacies (Cashman, 2006). Thus, due to SMEs distinctiveness and intricacies the case studies that only focus on a single legacy type are devalued. This is due to complex differences in culture, location, resources and infrastructure between host cities, meaning the replication of an individual legacy is extremely questionable (Preuss, 2007, p.213). Similarly, when the top-down approach was reviewed limitations were found. Preuss (2007, p.215) suggests that "undoubtedly, mega events create a strong economic impact, but they do not necessarily create an economic legacy". This problem arises as the two main methods used are trying to separate the event-based economic variations from the changes that would have occurred in general city development, regardless of the event which is a challenging distinction. The method would be to create a control case to consider the "alternative development the city would have without the event taking place" (Preuss, 2007, p.216), but control data is not obtainable, as the host nation's future economy without the SMEs, is unknown.

2.6 London 2012 Olympic Games

Each bid city has their own rationale and priorities for hosting SMEs and its associated legacies. London's bid centred around youth inspiration and the sustainability of the key infrastructure such as the Olympic Stadium (DCMS, 2008). A report published in 2008, this outlined London's legacy plans for the 2012 Games, including five legacy promises which were made by the UK Government (DCMS, 2008). In late 2009, a sixth legacy promise was added which aimed to: develop the opportunities and choices for disabled people, which Cashman and Horne (2013)

suggested reflects the mind-set that ‘London 2012’ refers to both the Olympic and Paralympic Games.

Table 2 highlights the main programmes suggested to aid the success of the 5 main legacy promises. As highlighted previously this research specifically focuses on the first promise to encourage a sporting legacy, which aimed to get more people more active and to inspire a generation through sport (DCMS, 2008). To achieve this promise, the UK government and in turn Sport England (SE), the non-departmental, public body that sits under the DCMS, placed NGBs “at the heart of the strategy as it is their network of community clubs and other assets that will drive delivery” and implement legacy (Sport England, 2008, p.10).

Table 2: The 5 legacy promises and associated programmes (DCMS, 2008). (Poynter, and MacRury, 2009, p.318)

The 2012 Legacy Promises	DCMS main programmes
To make the UK a world class sporting nation, through school sport, mass participation and elite sport	-£75 million healthy living campaign -PE and Sport Strategy -UK Sport’s World Class Performance Programme - Strategy for quality community sport (Sport England)
To demonstrate the UK is a welcoming, creative and inclusive place to live in, visit or undertake business	- Cultural Olympiad -Government’s tourism strategy -Business Network brokerage for UK businesses -Train to Gain Compact for 2012 -Skill strategies and developments in construction (successful as many been hired for Rio 2016)
To inspire a new generation of young people to take part in volunteering, physical activity and culture	-Cultural Olympiad -London 2012 educational and international inspirational programme -Personal Best programme -Legacy Trust UK
To transform the heart of East London	-London Development Agency -London Employment and Skill Taskforce for 2012 -Olympic development agencies delivery plan for the Olympic park -Regeneration strategy for East London
To make the Olympic park a blueprint for sustainable living	-London 2012 Sustainability Plan -New methodology for accessing the carbon foot print -Local sustainability initiatives

The initial ambition outlined in 2008 by the Labour Government, was to see two million people more active by 2012 (Woodhouse, 2016). Weed, cited in Cheng (2012) states that this promise to get 2 million more people active, wouldn't happen until about 2035. In early 2011, this pledge was quietly reduced to 1 million and Jeremy Hunt, who was the Secretary of State for Culture, Olympics, Media and Sport (Norman, 2016), admitted that this key legacy aim would be scrapped altogether (Gibson, 2012). This left the remaining legacy pledge regarding participation focusing on youth, suggesting that all 5 to 16 year olds in England should participate in 5 hours of sport a week and 16-19 year olds should undertake at least 3 hours a week (DCMS, 2008).

The DCMS (2008) suggested that part of the legacy from London 2012 referred to the imprint that the athletes will leave on the population. This indicates that it was not just what happened after the 2012 Games that was important, but what approach was formulated before and during the SMEs (leveraging strategies) to inspire individuals to participate in new activities or sports. On the 20th December 2010, the UK Government published its legacy plan for the 2012 Games. In addition to the programmes in Table 2, a new youth sport strategy was announced in January 2012, which specifically aimed at increasing the numbers of 14 to 25 year olds playing sport (Woodhouse, 2010). Furthermore, in late 2011, less than a year until the opening ceremony, 'Places, People, Play' was launched by the UK Government, as the main sports legacy programme for the London 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games. The suggested method to accomplish this ambitious participation aim was through key programmes: £75 million Healthy Living Marketing Campaign, the PE and Sport Strategy, SE's Community Sport Strategy, of which NGBs held a main role and UK Sports World Class Performance Programme and of course Places, People, Play (DCMS, 2008). As for elite achievements, the UK aimed to place fourth in the Olympic medal table and second in the Paralympic table (DCMS, 2008).

Places, People, Play was a £135 million initiative delivered by SE, which runs in collaboration with the British Olympic Association (BOA) and the British Paralympic Association (BPA) (Sport England, 2016b). 'Places' focuses on upgrading local sports clubs, protecting playing fields and investing in several iconic multi-sport facilities. The 'Play' element provides 6 week coaching blocks, for individuals in a

new sport known as ‘Sportivate’, additionally the ‘Gold Challenge’, to encourage adults to raise money for charity through sport (Sport England, 2016b). Finally, the ‘People’ component aims to inspire local people and involves the recruitment and training of 40,000 Sport Makers (Sport England, 2016b).

One of the main criticisms visible in Table 2 is the strong reliance that many of the legacy programmes depended on existing Olympic Bodies’ plans, highlighting the possibility that some plans were lacking definition and clarity (Poynter and MacRury, 2009). An example of this reliance is present in promises 2 and 3, in which the Cultural Olympiad, is highlighted as the main programme to achieve these two objectives. Poynter and MacRury (2009) suggest that the Cultural Olympiad has a limited budget and reflecting on previous SMEs host cities, concerns were raised as to its ability to deliver the sustained ‘legacy’ impact that was hoped for in relation to London’s cultural festival. The total Cultural Olympiad budget equalled £126.6 million and was a success, by producing “huge public impact” (BBC News, 2013). Individuals engaged with the Cultural Olympiad highlighted positive experiences and it was suggested to be the leading cultural celebration in the history of the modern Olympic and Paralympic movements (London Town Website, 2012). As after four years of wide-ranging events, the Cultural Olympiad concluded with the 12-week London 2012 Festival. This aimed to celebrate the Olympics and Paralympics through dance, music, theatre, the visual arts, film and digital innovation (London Town Website, 2012). This ideology was echoed by Lander and Crowe (2010, p.35) who state that the “Cultural Olympiad is perhaps the least visible element compared to sport and environment, yet it remains an essential part of an Olympic Games vision”.

Yet, reflecting on these plans put forward, adapted and implemented by both the labour and conservative governments, a House of Lords Select Committee report in late 2013 stated that a “post-Games step change in participation across the UK and across different sports did not materialise” (House of Lords, 2013). Additionally, the Sports Minister, Tracey Crouch in June 2015, acknowledged that participation rates in sport were “not good enough” and that the Government was working on a new strategy for sport (Woodhouse, 2016).

2.7 Youth Legacy and School Sport

When looking at school sport provision, School Sports Partnerships (SSP) were displaying exceptional increases in youth sports participation and between 2002-2008 PA rates increased from 25% to 90% (Sport England, 2009). The decision to scrap SSPs in 2010, was met with debate and controversy, as well as, a noticeable reduction in the PA and sports participation across the youth population (Smith Institute, 2013). With one of the core legacy objectives being to ‘inspire a generation’, this removal of SSP signified a move in the wrong direction. A report by the House of Lords (2013) select committee which focused on Olympic and Paralympic Legacy, used evidence from Baroness Campbell, Chair of the Youth Sport Trust, highlighting that around 50% of SSPs have survived in some form or other. Yet, the report concluded that “we received evidence from several quarters that the ending of funding to SSPs, and ultimately its replacement by the School Sport Premium, was a mistake” (House of Lords, 2013, p.37). This may reinforce an obstacle regarding the leveraging strategy surrounding the London 2012 Games, as the existing mechanisms have been changed, leaving an unfamiliar and challenging new strategy for local, delivery stakeholders.

A survey of teachers and School Games organisers undertaken by Smith Institute (2013) interviewed 1,019 people across the compulsory education system in early 2013. This survey provides some clear evidence to support the speculation and negative response to the changing system from SSP to the School Sports Premium and School Games programme, which aims to provide a competitive outlet, both intra-school and nationally for school children aged 5 to under 19’s (DCMS, 2015). Two thirds of the School Games organisers surveyed highlighted the decrease in sports participation following the end of ring-fenced funding for SSPs (Smith Institute, 2013). This limited funding was mentioned as the main issue, which therefore puts pressure on time, as a resource, which resulted on the inability to run as many school’s events, competitions and extra-curricular activities. Overall “88% of respondents stated the old system was better”, this highlights a negative community level viewpoint towards the government’s changes to sports policy (Smith Institute, 2013). This lack of support by the organisers at local level may weaken the chances of successful implementation and acceptance by the grass-root delivery agents.

Griffiths and Armour (2013) suggest that the notion of youth legacy, as highlighted in London's bid for the 2012 Olympic Games is dependent on the belief that participation in (more) sport is 'good' for children and young people. Many justifications have been used to emphasise the positive social and physical effects of PA and sports participation including social integration and co-operation, improved health and enhanced confidence and productivity (Long and Sanderson, 2001). Consequently, Griffiths and Armour (2013, p.213) state that "one way to conceptualize legacy, therefore, is in the form of enhanced social capital for those who are inspired to 'choose sport'"; their research investigated the practical and conceptual practicalities of an Olympic legacy, highlighting the emerging interest of not only legacy itself, but specifically how to ensure its feasibility and effectiveness.

2.8 Understanding the London 2012 Legacy

A governance review by the Commission for a sustainable London 2012 (2007) highlighted the strong commitment by London 2012 organisers to sustainable development. This review provided recommendations in the lead up to 2012, which suggested that by 2008, arrangements to deliver a sustainable legacy nationally should be clearly outlined, by ensuring key stakeholders make their commitments and targets public (Commission for a sustainable London 2012, 2007). These should be implemented in line with the sustainable development plan, as many national plans vary in focus and consistency, hence they then require future realignment (Commission for a sustainable London 2012, 2007). This governance review highlighted the key concerns and suggestions were made to ensure a national legacy was effective and possible, as early as 2007, even prior to the hosting of the 2008 Beijing Games.

SPEAR (Sport, Physical Education and Activity Research) hosted three 'think tanks' to gain valuable qualitative data from leading academics and policy makers, both regionally and nationally. Findings suggested that the economic legacy is often discussed to justify the £9.3 billion spend on hosting 2012. Yet, experts suggest that the cultural, health and social legacies are nationally the most beneficial, but giving them an economic value proves difficult (Weed et al., 2012). This creates an issue with regards to the ability to define and justify whether host cities have successfully

achieved their aims and goals and whether it was worth it. This study highlighted the importance of qualitative research, to ensure a detailed and thorough analysis of the legacies can emerge, to provide reasons to support or refute quantitative findings (Weed et al., 2012). Most interesting this investigation by SPEAR highlighted the possibility that the UK legacy can be achieved if key values such as ‘multiculturalism, respect and sustainability’ are utilised. These wider themes are already integrated in the make-up of the 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games and it is believed that if these values are ‘matched’ to beliefs that individuals already hold it will encourage engagement and participation (Weed et al., 2012).

The ‘Legacy Trust UK’, a London 2012 inspired charity, had a mission to use sporting and cultural activities to ensure communities from the UK have a chance to take part in the London 2012 Games (Poynter and MacRury, 2009). When planning a strategy to engage with the population Weed et al. (2012) suggested that considerations need to be made to ensure the successful leveraging of a UK-wide legacy. The preference of politicians is to discuss UK wide, economic legacies rather than intangible, soft legacies such as social, health and cultural, which may be due to the fact that these intangible legacies have been difficult to identify, sustain and measure (Kaplanidou and Karadakis, 2010). Reinforcing the need for the government and key Olympic organisations to maintain the momentum of the programmes and interconnected initiatives, which were put in place pre-and during the London 2012 Games. If relevant stakeholders ensured the recovery was as aggressive as the preparation, this would allow the drive to continue through the SMEs that followed, Glasgow Commonwealth Games 2014 and the Rugby World Cup 2015.

An additional Olympic based organisation is the National Centre of Sport and Exercise Medicine (NCSEM). It was launched in January 2012 as part of the Games health legacy commitment. With £30 million investment, it is spread across three sites: London, Loughborough and Nottingham. Funding supported the Specialists in Exercise Medicine (SEM), allied health practitioners, researchers and patients to enhance the delivery of SEM across the UK (Tew, Copeland and Till, 2012, p.1). The NCSEM’s main aim is to provide a strong evidence base for clinical best practice in relation to sport, exercise and health. It is part of a broader attempt to leverage a participation culture post London 2012. It is suggested that the NCSEM who gained investment from the Department of Health [DOH], is an excellent vehicle to address

the chronic burden of disease caused by a sedentary culture. Yet, the problem for all sports-based organisations and with making improvements to sporting and leisure facilities is the economic climate; sustaining funding along with people's engagement is challenging.

After the economic downturn, there is still concern and pressure on local authorities to invest in community level sport though budgets have been reduced, a BBC News (2015) report highlighted council's sport and leisure budgets have been cut by £42 million since 2010. This could mean many facility providers are unable to afford continual financial investment into sport and recreation facilities that are not proving to be successful. Hence, this raises questions about the programmes and facilitates longevity, as well as, the ambitious aim to increase the UK population's participation levels.

Councils spent £925 million per annum, on swimming pools, leisure centres and open spaces, which makes them the largest public spender within the community sport sector states the chairman of the Local Government Association [LGA] (Stephens, 2015). This is where the majority of this country's nine million grass-roots enthusiasts play sport. Additionally, this infrastructure is essential for the thousands of VSCs, supported by NGBs where more formal participation takes place. Post the London 2012 Games, in early 2013, a highly relevant study was undertaken by the LGA, within all councils in England and Wales and a response rate of 29% (110 councils) was achieved. The study found 75% of councils have seen an increase in people accessing their sports activities or facilities. Additionally, one third noted a rise in disability engagement, these figures are even higher than during the Olympic period itself, when a similar survey found only 44% of councils had an increase (LGA, 2013).

The survey conducted by LGA (2013) highlighted sports participation had risen when compared to the same period in 2011, with popularity increasing in athletics (50%), cycling/BMX (51%), beach volleyball (50%), swimming (48%) and gymnastics (35%). Also, handball showed a dramatic increase, with participation rising by 50% (LGA, 2013). Similarly, for the Paralympic sector the biggest participation gains were seen in equestrianism (33%), goalball (31%), cycling (25%) and boccia (23%). Similar rises were noted in non-Olympic and non-Paralympic sports with gym attendance (55%) and fitness classes (62%) dramatically increasing (LGA,

2013). The trends in these particular sports provides an interesting study opportunity to understand what could have led to this on such a national scale and did the London 2012 Games play a role in these changes and developments. Due to this increase in demand councils are dealing with the additional pressures, by running additional sessions and increasing the capacity. Councils aimed to outsource management, lease facilities and apply for external funding, to improve service delivery and quality to the public (LGA, 2013).

Reed (2013) the chair of Sport and Recreation Alliance, reinforces the need for a plan that has long term sustainability at its core, as the legacy is a 10-year journey rather than a sprint. Furthermore, the dominance of the additional SMEs in the UK, such as the Rugby World Cup and Commonwealth Games, may help to keep the excitement and feel good factor alive. Emphasis was placed on Lord Coe's comments that local volunteers and events would play a key role to engage more people with PA, as spending cuts are putting sporting facilities and programmes at greater risk of closure (Reed, 2013). This strengthens the multifaceted problems that are intertwined with London's legacy success, as well as, the pressures of engaging sedentary individuals to contemplate and participate in PA and sport. Weed et al. (2009) undertook a comprehensive review and their forward-thinking conclusion states that:

"[...] the direct evidence base to inform the development of PA, sport and health legacies from the 2012 Games is poor. Therefore, there is a need for more sustained research and more robust evaluation to inform the development of such legacies", p.58).

This suggestion has been echoed and supported by numerous other studies and academics that have emphasised that most research lacks empirical evidence to support suggestions of the benefits SMEs can bring to the host nation (Cashman, 2003; Sousa-Mast, Reis, Gurgel and Duarte, 2013; Misener and Mason, 2006; Weed et al., 2009). In addition, Poynter and MacRury (2009, p. *xiii*) stated that previous studies that have included empirical data "focused on the economic component of the Games, but few have delved beyond the cost/benefit format".

2.9 London 2012–Evaluation Methods

Olympic data has been collected and displayed through a variety of methods. When investigating specific legacy objectives, the quality of the evaluation methods is critical, as when ineffective methods of measurement are put in place, it is difficult to evaluate what has been effective or successful. Woodhouse (2010) states there is a problem when trying to assess an Olympic legacy, if undertaken too early this can lead to error due to incomplete evidence, as well as overlooking possible successes that have not yet been realised. This links to the Olympic Games Global Impact (OGGI) evaluation process, which is undertaken by the IOC. Created in early 2000s, the OGGI measures the sport participation levels in host countries and has the possibility of providing a comprehensive and balanced evaluation of each Olympic Games. Collection occurs over 12 years (2 years prior to election through to 3 years' post Games, for example London, 2003 – 2015). Host cities collect data on approximately 120 indicators that comprise of environmental, social and economic factors (ESRC, 2010).

The primary method used is the Active People Survey (APS) which has collected official national statistics since 2005. It is undertaken on behalf of Sport England by IpsosMori and TNS-BMRB and each year the sample has exceeded 175,000 subjects and is suggested to provide accuracy to 0.2% (Weed, 2012). The APS statistics are the main measure by SE, participation at moderate intensity, for 1 x 30 minutes per week. Yet, this doesn't meet government's guidelines for adults aged 19-64, of at least 150 minutes of moderate aerobic activity per week (National Health Service [NHS] Website, 2016). Yet, this is the main metric used to illustrate changes in participation within official reports. Furthermore, this is the method by which NGB's are evaluated for their 'grow, sustain and excel' targets' and for future Whole Sport Plan (WSP) cycles (Woodhouse and Fielden, 2010).

There are many ways in which the data can be analysed to investigate different demographic groups, locations, sport types and frequency of participation which all provide a detailed understanding of the participation trends within England. The APS survey forms the "largest ever collection of data on participation in sport, memberships of clubs and participation in competitive sport" (Carmichael, Grix and Marqués, 2013, p.2). The latest complete cycle of participation data APS 9 (October 2014 – September

2015), highlight that 15.74 million people, aged 16 years or over, played sport 1 x 30 minutes at moderate intensity, this is an increase of 1.65 million people since 2005/06 (APS1) (Sport England, 2016c). Yet, critically this measurement used of 1 x 30 minutes, does not meet the Government's weekly recommended minimum physical activity guidelines of 150 minutes per week of moderate to vigorous intensity physical activity (Department of Health, 2011), thus is this really a valid measurement of sport participation improvements nationally?

The APS “employs a Random Digit Dialling (RDD) to achieve around 168,000 telephone interviews with adults aged 16 or over per year” (Lound, 2012, p.1). This design aimed to ensure the sample includes 500 interviews in each local authority, per year and the response rate is at around 28%, which is considerably lower than has been seen through other large-scale Government surveys (Lound, 2012). Due to the RDD design it is not possible to increase the response rate by sending a letter or information in advance to households or by subsequently visiting initial non-responders on a face-to-face basis (Lound, 2012). The House of Lords (2013) select committee discussed the Olympic and Paralympic legacy and limitations of the APS methodology were highlighted; such as the method of data collection, local sample sizes and the limited reference to those under 16, which SE illustrated as a priority target group. Since its creation in 2005, the APS has made many developments to improve such as the expansion to include 14+ years, as well as, piloting mobile phone and online collection methods to allow for a fully mixed-mode survey (Sport England, 2013a).

Issues surrounding misunderstanding or misrepresentation during the survey data collection, also need to be considered. As for example, in the APS7 (2012-2013) different physical activities were split into categories which allows comparisons to be made to previous APS datasets. However, an APS technical report reinforces the need for gym classes such as ‘body attack, body combat and boxercise’ to be recorded separately, rather than being recorded as ‘gym’ participation, as this could cause misrepresentation and distortion of certain PA figures (Sport England, 2013b). The question could be raised of how the development of that PA can be monitored, if the number of individuals engaging in this activity are being segmented differently, across data collection periods, as this could affect validity. This issue is exacerbated through the non-longitudinal nature of the survey, meaning that there is no correlation seen

year on year. New participants are contacted and questioned annually, meaning different individual's interpretations are frequently experienced.

Furthermore, possible issues or confusion could be caused through the collection methods of sports participation data in England, as it is calculated and measured by two different surveys the APS and the Taking Part (TP) survey. One issue with their designs was that the two surveys generate slightly different estimates of key participation statistics (Sproston, Purdon and Purdon, 2010). A consultation was undertaken in 2012 to address concerns with the APS and TP surveys and to consider how to create a single measure for sport (Sport England, 2013a). Consultation proposed that TP was to continue asking sports participation questions but for SE's use, meaning that it will not be published and reported by TP and DCMS, but allowed the inclusion of face to face data collection for the APS (Sport England, 2013a).

Dramatic changes have been proposed by the Sport Minister, Tracey Crouch in the adopted evaluation and monitoring methods, as Sport England will start collecting the Active Lives Survey in late 2016, which considers more physical activities (Campelli, 2016). The survey can be completed both online and by post. Data collection began November 2015 and the APS data will be collected until September 2016; by running the APS and Active Lives simultaneously it allows SE to understand any changes in estimates of participation (Sport England, 2016d). It is important to consider the limitations of these evaluation methods and changes to Active Lives may help to overcome some of the issues, but also raises concerns about comparing with previous years, to identify the trends, if any, in long term legacy.

Yet, the APS is still a valuable source of evidence and insight and should be exploited to develop and enhance understanding of sports participation within England. It is a useful resource if utilised correctly, to aid the understanding and explanation of patterns of PA and sport, over a decade from 2005/06 to 2015/16. With regards to data and quantitative measures of PA such as the APS, qualitative studies also needed to investigate key stakeholder's perceptions and insights, which are valuable sources for planning and experience (Sousa-Mast, et al., 2013, p.3). An imperative question that needs to be addressed is how will we know 2012 has been successful? The problem is attribution i.e. using the APS and other similar sources, is it truly possible to ascertain whether the changes were caused by the 2012 Games?

Weed (2010, p.1) states “we know what and why, but no one is telling us how” relating to a mass participation change.

2.10 Sports Participation

Khan et al., (2012) undertook research investigating the causative relationship between sport and exercise and the health of a nation. Key findings highlight the fact that clinicians can influence many patients through encouragement and short-term interventions relating to sport and PA. Khan et al. (2012) defined the difference between PA, sport and exercise. PA is “any bodily movement produced by skeletal muscles that results in energy expenditure” and is positively correlated with physical fitness (Khan et al., 2012, p.59). This includes activities such as housework, shopping and gardening. Whereas, exercise is “repetitive, planned and structured bodily movement and the objective is to improve or maintain physical fitness. Sport is a subdivision of exercise, it can be individual or team based and participants adhere to a set of rules and a defined goal (Khan et al., 2012, p.59).

The belief is that elite sport encourages mass participation. The demonstration effect is suggested as a method to increase sport and PA levels, however Weed et al. (2009; 2015) suggests that there is no evidence for an inherent demonstration effect, but the SMEs provides potential if properly leveraged, it may result in an increased frequency of participation, but it is only effective for individuals positively engaged in sport. This relationship between elite sport and mass participation has been investigated by academics, as well as, used politically to justify the hosting of SMEs (Coalter, 2007; Frawley and Cush, 2011; Hanstad and Skille, 2010; Hogan and Norton, 2000; Frawley, Toohey, and Veal 2013; Weed et al., 2015). It is commonly characterised as the ‘trickle-down effect’ (Hindson, Gidlow and Peebles, 1994), which is the process by which mass sports participation is stimulated by public exposure to elite sport.

There is minimal evidence justifying its impact on participation long term (Hogan and Norton, 2000). Additionally, Veal, Toohey and Frawley (2012) suggested that the well-known trickle-down effect can be split into two categories. First, the direct route where individuals are inspired to participate through seeing their sporting idols. Second, via an indirect route this is where participation is supported by the

development of sporting organisations. Additionally, Hanstad and Skille (2010) undertook a Norwegian case study to ascertain if the theory is correct by using a Norwegian Biathlon. They concluded that elite sport can contribute indirectly, but it does not cause mass sport *per se* (Hanstad and Skille, 2010), through the implementation of economic and organisational advances that could filter through to the grassroots level. The study used a mixed methods approach including interviews, statistics and document analysis providing a diverse data set, in which a more accurate and substantial conclusion was drawn (Hanstad and Skille, 2010).

The success on the elite end of the spectrum, Team GB and London 2012 fulfilled the legacy promise to make the UK a world-leading sporting nation (DCMS, 2007). By achieving a total medal count of 65, Team GB became the most successful British team in 104 years (Gibson, 2012). That said, the ambitious promise of increased mass participation will be more challenging, to achieve as well as to investigate and evaluate. The former Head of Research, Planning and Strategy at SE stated that “no summer Games has produced an increase in sports participation” (Collins, 2013, p.56). Coalter (2004) suggests that the trickle-down benefits must form part of a long-term development strategy and that they are not automatically achieved. Girginov (2013) echoes these concerns suggesting that London will not be able to achieve this mass participation increase without enhancing the structural capabilities of the NGBs.

Yet, mass participation seems to be an afterthought for the NGBs, if the elite level athletes’ priorities are met. The scepticism around the trickle-down effect was echoed by Weed et al. (2009) who state there is no scientifically valid evidence to support the effectiveness of the trickle-down effect, from international sporting events to mass participation. This highlights the need to improve the organisational, structural and developmental capacities and dynamics of NGBs. They provide services and amenities to a substantial net of approximately 150,000 affiliated sport clubs, more than 3 million sport volunteers and 14.7 million participants and form the backbone of the UK national sports system (Girginov, 2013).

Pappous (2011) researched the feasibility of the Olympic Games leading to an increase in grass-root participation. Athens (2004) was the SMEs under investigation and secondary data was utilised from the Eurobarometer surveys, with supplementary

face to face interviews that were undertaken. The results highlighted an increase in PA from 10% in 2003 compared to 16% in 2004 (Pappous, 2011). However, Greece won the European Football Championship and started the European year of education through sport, which started initiatives linking to PA, across the 2004 period. Hence, there is a multitude of additional factors that could have contributed to this increase in PA, rather than solely the Olympic and Paralympic Games themselves. Additionally, this increase was short lived, as by 2009, only 3% of the population were exercising, which demonstrated lowest participation rates in Europe (Pappous, 2011).

It is worth noting however that security was prioritised at the Athens Olympics, which consumed a sustainable proportion of the budget as it was the first global event, post the 2001 September 11th terrorist attack in America (Pappous, 2011). Thus, instead of a sustainable participation increase, a short-lived spike in PA occurred, followed by a fall, which is known as a 'rebound effect' where participation drops to levels lower than during the pre-event period (Pappous, 2011). This could have been caused by a lack of planning and leveraging strategies implemented to increase and most importantly sustain the PA increases displayed within the general Greek population.

Bullough (2012) specifically researched one the London 2012 legacies promises which aimed to introduce 1 million adults into regular PA participation. This was investigated by using two national surveys by the DCMS, the TP and APS surveys, alongside a Mosaic Tool from Experian. By utilising these three databases SE could create 19 market segments to improve the understanding of people attitudes towards sport and utilise this information to increase PA levels. Secondary analysis allowed the attitudes and perceptions of non-participant's to be addressed including the barriers to PA. Bullough (2012) highlighted a strategic approach using market segmentation profiles in specific areas at a micro-level, alongside behaviour change and engagement theory. This approach was used to engage individuals who do not achieve the minimum 30 minutes of participation, 3 times a week; these individuals should be the key target for the objective to increase participation levels of 1 million people (Bullough, 2012).

The official London 2012 Places, People, Play scheme aimed to increase the nation's health and PA, yet this programme was disproportionately funded towards

facilities. This may indicate a limited focus on leveraging strategies, by placing a strong reliance on the trickle-down effect. The scheme's budget is £135m, yet only £38 million is targeting the population and engaging them in sport. With £32 million for 'Play', the Sportivate programme provides six weeks coaching in a new sport, £4 million for the 'Gold Challenge', to encourage adults to raise money for charity through sporting pursuits (Weed, 2010). £2 million is going toward the 'People' element of the programme (sports leaders), yet, £90 million was spent on 'Places'. Even though it is important to have facilities, this anticipates participants will independently choose to use the facilities, rather than encouraging participation directly. This is an indirect route and stresses a "build it and they will come" mentality (Weed, 2010, p.2).

Veal et al. (2012) researched SMEs in Australia, unfortunately results were predominantly speculative, due to poorly maintained data collection, this was improved ensuring more reliable data collection methods for the Rugby World Cup (2003) and the Commonwealth Games (2006). The Sydney Olympic and Paralympic Games (2001) indicated slight increases in PA participation, but surprisingly within non-Olympic sports. The 2003 Rugby World Cup, illustrated the clearest indication of boosted adult and youth participation, but these were already increasing. Finally, the Commonwealth Games in 2006 provided no evidence to suggest that adult participation levels increased, but possible changes in youth participation rates were noted (Veal et al., 2012). Due to data collection issues the results must be viewed tentatively, as due to the lack of consideration towards long term monitoring, which affected the overall reliability and comparability of the sample (Veal et al., 2012). These findings raise an issue of causality relating to SMEs and the possible influential relationship with grass-root participation.

2.11 Physical Activity and Health

The London 2012 Games set specific targets for sports participation and PA within a Legacy Action Plan in June 2008, this included the goal of getting at least two million more people in England be more active by 2012 (Woodhouse, 2010). Yet, the Coalition government in 2010, removed both these original objectives and a vague replacement aim was set "to increase grassroots participation, particularly by young

people and to encourage the whole population to be more active” (DCMS, 2010, p.1). Bloyce and Lovett (2012) could not find any explicit explanation for this dropped objective. Yet this highlights concerns around accountability and the focus on achieving the participation legacy through the NGB, sport focus, as opposed to the PA legacy. Yet, Jeremy Hunt, the Minister for Sport and Olympics, defend this decision in the House of Commons:

“We dropped that target because we believe that having that kind of top-down target can often have a counterproductive effect, in the way that people spend money in order to tick a box rather than to achieve the objective that you're aiming for. We haven't dropped the participation targets for individual sports in the whole sport plans, and we will continue to fund over 40 sport's national governing bodies” (Culture, Media and Sport Select Committee, 2010).

A report by the Culture, Media and Sport Committee in 2007 concluded that “no host country has yet been able to demonstrate a direct benefit from the Olympic Games in the form of a lasting increase in participation” (House of Commons, 2007, p.37), highlighting issues around sustainability. The objective to increase mass participation, involves both sport and PA. The financial burden of physical inactivity was estimated to cost the NHS between £1 and £1.8 billion annually and the economy £8.2 billion (Chief Medical Officer, 2010, cited in Kahn and Norman, 2012). The severity of the problem was highlighted in a study by the British Heart Foundation (2012) which used a self-reporting method and revealed that only 39% males and 29% of females met the PA government targets per week. Yet, when subjects' PA levels were measured objectively using pedometers, only 5% were meeting this target, reinforcing the low PA rates and furthermore the misrepresentation of figures when relying on self-reporting methods. Low Cardio-Respiratory Fitness (CRF) is most likely to be the world's most important non-communicable disease, along with other mortality risk factors such as smoking, diabetes, hypertension, high cholesterol and obesity (Blair, 2009). It has been sufficiently documented and acknowledged that engaging in PA, improves mental and physical health and provides protection against chronic diseases (British Heart Foundation, 2012).

McCartney et al., (2010) carried out a systematic review (1978-2008) to evaluate the health and socioeconomic impacts of SMEs. 54 studies were included;

the studies' quality was poor with 69% of studies using a repeat cross-sectional design. They excluded studies that used entirely estimated data, rather than actual data and high risk bias was seen in the five studies. The economic factors were the dominant focus and conclusions of the study found that there was insufficient evidence to accept or reject the expectation of health outcomes to occur in host countries of SMEs (McCartney et al., 2010). Weed et al. (2012) reviewed the process and questioned whether the London 2012 Games could deliver a PA rather than, or as well as, a sport legacy. Two main outcomes were suggested, firstly that communities that are not positively engaged with hosting 2012 are likely to be beyond the reach of initiatives that are seeking to develop legacies in the host country.

Secondly, SMEs if promoted the right way can produce the festival effect that can be utilised to promote PA among the least or in-active individuals. This festival effect would exploit the 'Cultural Olympiad' element of London 2012, by focusing on the national celebration rather than the sporting event itself. This would allow the SMEs legacy objective to be rooted in local communities, creating a desire for people to participate in a nationally and locally significant event (Weed et al., 2012). These studies could suggest a way to increase participation levels of the UK population, by adapting the focus strongly towards community-based activities and enjoyment, whilst reducing the focus on the competitive, sporting element of London 2012.

A study by Khan et al. (2012) highlighted that "regular physical activity even in small doses confer substantial health benefits" (p.59). However, there is insufficient evidence to assess, whether rates of sports participation influence a population's health. Similarly, in previous research the terminology and meaning of PA and sports participation can be misinterpreted. Globally, differences in PA and sports participation have been identified, in an Australian based study 48% of respondents stated they participated in sport, yet only 20% of these were from organised sport participation (Australian Sports Commission, 2010).

A systematic review produced for the DOH examined improvements in general health after SMEs, the report suggested there is no evidence to support any PA and health developments within the adult population, as previous SMEs have used generic social impact measurements (Weed et al., 2009; 2012). Reflecting on health impacts, post the 2002 Commonwealth Games in Manchester, slight health improvements were noted (Newby, 2003). Furthermore, China carried out a follow up to their local Olympics, which related to a PA based initiative. It showed health improvements and

increased life expectancy from the national physique examinations; however, these findings are problematic to apply and use, as the role of the state in China affects the ability to generalise (Wang and Theodoraki, 2007).

The trickle-down effect is the most effective way to raise sports participation for current or relapsed participants, as they are already positively engaged in sport, whereas for sedentary individuals, it is believed that contemplation needs to be stimulated (Weed et al., 2009). This emphasises the importance of community-based and informal sport by creating a festival effect, as it allows the individual to contemplate participating in PA for a broader purpose or event, rather than solely sport. Furthermore, engagement in PA, volunteering and health related behaviours occurs in stages (pre-contemplation, contemplation, action, maintenance, and termination), as explained through the Trans-Theoretical Model (TTM) (Prochaska, 2008).

2.12 English Sports System

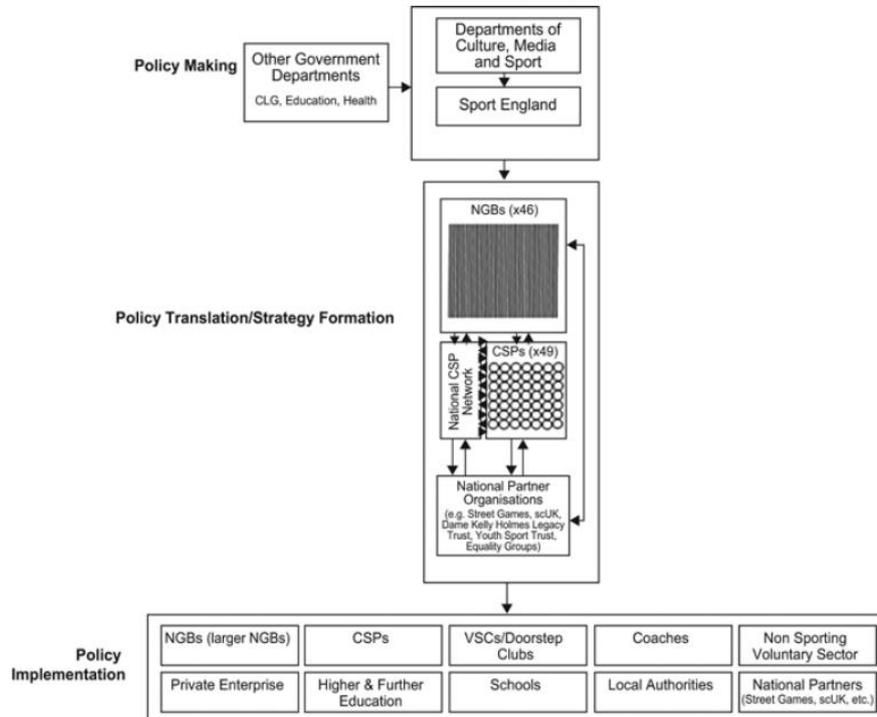
The sports system in England is shown in Figure 1 and it is predominantly structured through a club system, in which “sport organisations are likely to be more autonomous, which will have an impact on the process of policy development and implementation, as well as its efficacy” (Nicholson, Hoye and Houlihan, 2010, p.4). In England, NGBs are heavily reliant on funding from the non-departmental, public body SE, which sits under the DCMS. SE decides how to invest government and National Lottery funding to help people across England create a sporting habit for life, thereby achieving the sports participation legacy (DCMS, 2013). To achieve this promise of mass participation, the UK government and in turn SE put mechanisms in place when the host city bid for the Olympic and Paralympic Games was won by London in 2005. Sports administration in Britain implies that sports policy is made at the formulation stage by professional, national organisations such as the DCMS, SE and NGBs and it is subsequently translated into practice by predominantly informal, local volunteer-run organisations through a process of implementation (Kay, 1996; May, Harris and Collins, 2012).

Sport England in 2008 defined community sport as the participation in sport by adults (16+), yet this continued uncertainty about the specific nature of community sport resulted in the government redefining the target to focus on 14-25 year olds to

tackle the issue of sports participation drop-off, post-school years (Harris and Houlihan, 2014). Figure 1 illustrates the organisations that are currently involved in the community sport delivery system. From the formation stage, through to translation in which NGBs, County Sport Partnerships (CSPs) and other stakeholders formulate strategies for the delivery agents to be able to implement the community sports policy (Harris, 2013).

Reflecting on Figure 1, additional connections and reciprocal arrows could be added to depict the two-way communication, especially between policy making and strategy formation groups, as Goodwin and Grix (2011) research into sport policy, highlighted upward communication towards such organisations. Also with implementation delivery agents, there should be interorganisational communication shown, due to growing partnerships and collaborations between these groups. Bloyce and Smith (2009, p.13) reinforce the complexity of this system, it is apparent that “policy process rarely follows the neat, rational models reinforcing the need for research focusing on the policy implementation process.

Figure 1: The English Community Sport Delivery System (Harris, 2013, p.298)



2.13 National Governing Bodies

NGBs and their network of Voluntary Sports Clubs (VSCs) which are run by volunteers, are a critical part of the sporting infrastructure in the UK (Taylor, Barrett, and Nichols, 2009). NGBs were first created around the 19th century, as voluntary organisations, with the main aim being the regulation and administration of their particular sport. In the UK, there are more than 100 sports recognised by the sports council (Sport England), which are affiliated to approximately 400 NGBs, highlighting the dominant role NGBs play in supporting sports development in the UK (Green, 2008). Their main responsibilities were to select a national team, organise and run domestic competitions and create the rules for their sport (Green, 2008). Yet, in the past century the remit of NGBs has evolved. Now they are responsible for meeting a variety of government goals and objectives that determine the level of support they can obtain. Specifically, “from a governance perspective, NGBs are non-profit organizations, managing both professional and amateur sports, and administer

the allocation of considerable amounts of funds, especially public funds” (Taylor and Sullivan, 2009, p.681). NGBs of sport remain at the core of Sport England’s strategies and sports development objectives which aims to help more individuals in the UK, to undertake a sporting habit for life (DCMS, 2013). Eligible NGBs that are recognised by SE submit WSPs every four years, which outlines how they plan to use National Lottery and Exchequer funding to increase the number of individuals participating in their sport once a week, alongside specifics on the elite and disability provisions (Sport England, 2016a).

NGBs must function effectively at two ends of the sporting spectrum, providing elite sport, as well as population wide, grass-root sports participation opportunities. Both require contrasting approaches, support and delivery systems, again reiterating the complexities that are evident when researching in this discipline. There are many pressures on NGBs as they typically rely on a volunteer board to oversee multiple roles, including organisation, coach and talent development, volunteer training, marketing to promote the sport and increase participation (Walters, Tacon and Ternberth, 2010). Thus, with such a diverse range of roles to fulfil, these non-profit organisations are under constant pressure, like their profit making and public counterparts, in which they must consider and develop management strategies to ensure organisational effectiveness (Papadimitriou, 2007). This has been part of the modernisation process and Walters, Tacon and Ternberth (2010) highlights that over the past decade, sports councils and NGBs within the UK have been encouraged to professionalise their administrative structures.

Many researchers in recent years have begun to analyse organised sport and the role of NGBs, by investigating the changes in individual’s membership pre-and post a SMEs. This allows analysis of the impact, if any, that SMEs have on grass root participation (Frawley and Cush, 2011; Veal, Toohey and Frawley, 2013). In 2008, Girginov and Hills addressed the underexplored connection between hosting the Olympic and Paralympic Games and sports participation in the host country. Using a process-oriented approach they reviewed the actual processes involved in envisioning, framing and implementing a legacy. Results found that sustainable achievement is attainable, but somewhat contingent on influential organisations such as the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and the UK government, bringing their influence on sports development, through effective communication and directing collective efforts and resources (Girginov and Hills, 2008). This to date has not

occurred, highlighting the questionability surrounding the ambitious aim of improving a nation's PA level as early as four years prior to the London 2012 Games (Girginov and Hills, 2008). This research sits within an emerging field, which has developed through the emphasis and importance placed in recent years, on legacy and more specifically on the role that NGBs and Sports Federations alike, play in achieving the goal of sustained grass root sports participation.

The CEO of an NGB states that “the London Olympic and Paralympic Games are a great opportunity to all- a ready-made marketing tool which sports can use to underpin their on-going development priorities” (Girginov, 2013, p.238). This illustrates an opportunity that the 2012 Games provided to the UK national sports system, by utilising the SMEs as a catalyst to strengthen local, regional and national sports clubs and NGBs. Research was undertaken for SE by Girginov (2013) and data was collected from 54 SE and UK Sport organisations. It encompassed Olympic, Paralympic and non-participating Olympic and Paralympic sports, between October and November 2011 via an online survey. This was followed up with three in-depth NGB case studies, with one established sport (British Gymnastics), one emerging Olympic sport (Volleyball England) and a Paralympic sport (British Table Tennis Association for Disabled) (Girginov, 2013). The Olympic and Paralympic Games was marketed as a national project, which encouraged both co-operation and competition between stakeholders and NGBs.

Girginov (2013) highlights that most of the NGBs saw the 2012 Games as a niche opportunity to develop their sport. Yet only a selected few used a holistic approach and fully integrated this SMEs into their WSP. Many NGBs implemented singular initiatives aiming to engage with the Olympic message, but this was on a more tactical basis. NGBs engaged with eight national and international Games-related initiatives, but a profound difference was seen with the uptake of three key programmes: Sports Makers (volunteering- 24 NGBs), Gold Challenge (mass participation-17 NGBs) and Sportivate (coaching-19 NGBs). Additionally, for non-Olympic sports the organisations' efforts in leveraging the Games to increase participation was limited. Furthermore, with regards to media coverage 22 NGBs used the Games to increase positive media coverage, however this number dropped to only 13 NGBs for disability sport (Girginov, 2013). The disparity between NGBs and non-Olympic sports and the lack of incorporation of SMEs in strategic planning highlights that it may be necessary to develop sports policies in the UK; as NGBs must capitalise

on the SMEs possibly through a strategic leveraging approach, to fully utilise the opportunities that the event presents.

The sport and recreation alliance undertook a legacy survey targeting individuals who are involved with running sports clubs at a grassroots level; the results were weighted to be representative of the 150,000 sports clubs in the UK (Cox, 2013). Prior to the 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games very few clubs (14%) saw the upcoming Games as representing an opportunity for them and 73% felt that the Government did not assist community sport to enable the creation of a participation legacy (Cox, 2013). These findings are concerning as the club network is the main delivery agent spread locally and if they did not feel this SMEs provided an opportunity that was supported and direct, the possible benefits from the London 2012 Games are likely to be limited.

2.14 Voluntary Sports Clubs (VSCs)

English VSCs have been investigated within the literature, but with the focus on the volunteer's attitudes, Sport England funding and general national policy implementation (Garrett, 2004; Harris, Mori, and Collins, 2009; May, Harris, and Collins, 2013; Nichols and James, 2008; Taylor, Barrett, and Nichols, 2009). This research has provided some critical insights into the nature of policy implementation and the issues faced when using voluntary clubs as the main policy implementers. Issues relating to club engagement, communication issues, competition felt between NGBs and VSCs, NGB capacity and the disconnect felt by some NGBs were stressed. Additional studies nationally and internationally have focused on VSC delivery and the challenges with using clubs and volunteers, as policy implementers (Cuskelly, 2004; Cuskelly, Taylor, Hoye and Darcy, 2006; Schlesinger, Egli and Nagel, 2013; Skille, 2008). Club's sensitivity to organisational policy, strong volunteer reliance and autonomy were also mentioned, which highlights the significant reliance on interpretation and implementation of that individual (Skille, 2006; Skille and Skirstad, 2007; Skille, 2008; Taylor, Barrett and Nichols, 2009).

Whilst these studies shed light on the characteristics of VSCs and policy implementation and leveraging process, and focus on the delivery 'implementation stage', only a couple of studies have highlighted the need or investigated the 'strategy formation' stage through NGBs. Research has looked at the board or organisation structure (Theodoraki and Henry, 1994; Taylor and O'Sullivan, 2009), performance

and organisational effectiveness (Bayle and Robinson, 2007; Papadimitriou and Taylor, 2000), gender issues (Fasting, 2000; Shaw and Penney, 2003), marketing and social media use (Eagleman, 2013) and disability policy implementation (Hums, Moorman and Wolff, 2003). Yet, as Frawley, Toohey and Veal (2013) have highlighted, there is a need to investigate NGBs' viewpoints and attitudes towards SMEs and how they used a SMEs to leverage an increase in participation.

2.15 Sports Development and Sports Policy

Overall, prior research highlights both positive and negative outcomes from previous SMEs. A systematic review focusing on these large-scale SMEs revealed that there is limited evidence that international elite sporting events lead to an increase in PA or sports participation at the population level (Mahtani et al., 2013). Furthermore, they emphasise that “high-quality, evidence-based studies are needed to measure the true impact of the London 2012 Games” (Mahtani et al., 2013, p.1). This need for this evidence-based research and the foundations for this research links to the preparation, delivery and outcomes of any SMEs, of which sports policy and related processes are a critical part. Sports development and sports policy are complex to define, due to their interconnection with other policy goals. As in many cases the government and policy makers are using sport as a tool to achieve those additional objectives (Bloyce and Smith, 2009). Essentially, sport development is the process by which individuals are supported in their engagement with PA or sport and consists of overlapping policy objectives (Taks et al., 2014; Houlihan and White, 2002). It encompasses the policies, process and practice of facilitating opportunities for involvement in sport, at both the elite and mass participation level (Hylton and Bramham, 2008).

Policy and specifically sports policy is similarly difficult to define, due to its rather vague and ambiguous nature. Many criticise sport policies as more of a problem description or statement of intent, rather than a policy itself, leading to conceptualisation issues (Bloyce and Smith, 2009). Public policy is the “actions and positions adopted by the state” (Houlihan, 2014, p.5) and Jenkins (1978) provides a concise definition:

“A set of interrelated decisions taken by a political actor or groups of actors concerning the selection of goals and the means of achieving them within a specified

situation where these decisions should, in principle, be within the power of these actors to achieve” (p.15).

Houlihan (2014) acknowledged the value of this definition, due to its restrictive nature and suggests the reference to political actors stresses the relationship between policy and power. Furthermore, future attempts to define public policy have identified these interrelated elements: series of objectives or policies, originating within or dependent upon state resources, in which human action is aiming to resolve an acknowledged problem (Houlihan, 2005; Bloyce and Smith, 2009). Finally, Houlihan (2014) suggests policy is about setting objectives and achievement guidelines, yet the latter part of Jenkins’ definition of achievability is disputed, as policy makers may push a policy for its symbolic value. Another definition is provided by Nicholson, Hoye and Houlihan (2010, p.4) who suggest that “government policy is an articulation of governmental priorities”, alongside a provision of predominately financial resources. For sports systems, such as the UK, which are principally volunteer based and non-profit (Nichols et al., 2005) this is critical due to the heavy reliance on “collaborations with national... and local governments in the provision of facilities and services” (Nicholson, Hoye and Houlihan, 2010, p.4).

In developed countries, sports policy has predominantly focused on two key areas over the last 30 years - elite sport and increasing participation in competitive sport (Nicholson, Hoye and Houlihan, 2010). Academic research has focused upon elite sports policy (Green and Houlihan, 2005; Houlihan and Green, 2008). Yet, Nicholson, Hoye and Houlihan (2010, p.1) identified that ‘none have focused on participation policies’, which is astonishing given that many national governments have detailed policies aiming to increase sports participation. This research area is growing, with interest shown within the academic community. As valuable insights are emerging into community sport delivery networks, the role of voluntary sport organisations in delivering policy and the changing political environment (Harris and Houlihan, 2014; Skille, 2014; May, Harris and Collins, 2012; Harris, Mori and Collins, 2009; Skille, 2008; Garrett, 2004; Green, 2006). Very few are investigating and analysing the specific participation programmes and the core processes used to achieve the governmental policy objective, instead of the overall impact or outcome.

Thus, a further prominent gap in the literature relates to these sport development mechanisms used to achieve the sports participation policy objectives, in

line with hosting a SMEs, such as the London 2012 Games. This is surprising since awareness and expectation of such policy objectives is heightened when a country is hosting such an event. Taks et al. (2014) stated the importance of focusing on the processes that lead to the legacy outcome, thus strengthening the relevance and need for this current research into the specific mechanisms implemented by NGBs.

It is important to examine policy beyond the formulation or policy making stage as highlighted above (Figure 1), as resistance to policy is best investigated by firstly “recognising that policy is not a fixed entity, separate from the implementation process, it evolves beyond the formal phase of formulation through a process of contestation” (Kay, 1996, p.233). Deviation between the intended policy and practice itself is often seen as a failure, through a limitation in the implementation process (Kay, 1996). Thus, for future policy makers, academics and sports administrations understanding the implementation procedure is vital to be able to understand and influence the policy process and leverage outcomes effectively.

2.16 Policy Implementation

Despite several decades of enquiry into policy implementation, which has seen considerable growth through the 1990s and twenty-first century, surprisingly little is known about these cumulative research results (Saetren, 2005, p.559). The concept of implementation typically describes the process of putting a proposal or strategy (usually a public policy) into effect. Fernman (1990) states that implementation is what occurs between policy expectations and (perceived) policy results and it involves “exploring causality and the reasons why” (May, Harris and Collins, 2012, p.5). The origins of the policy implementation process began with the work of Pressman and Wildavsky (1984). They identified that implementation goes further than evaluation. i.e. ‘the mere measurement of outcomes,’ by investigating the ‘causes’ for these outcomes and this provides knowledge, allowing future alterations and adaptations to specific programmes (p. xv).

Goggin, Bowman, Lester and O’Toole (1990) recognised that there have been three generations of implementation research, which emerged in the 1970s in the United States to deal with the rising interest around reform programmes and the evaluation of their effectiveness. The first generation of studies carried with them a pessimistic undertone; they were attempting to stress implementation failure (Pulzl

and Treib, 2006). These were the “pioneers with explorative case studies” such as Pressman and Wildavsky’s classic study on an economic, development project to reduce unemployment in Oakland (Winter, 2003, p.212). The second generation of studies brought with it an abundance of hypotheses and theoretical perspectives. A distinctive split appeared in the literature, with the formation of the ‘top-down’ and ‘bottom-up’ approaches. These perspectives were centred on the policy-practice gap, outlining factors such as: a lack of alignment between policy creation and the agents’ capacity to implement the policy, the policy creation itself, social constraints, through to agent’s support, responsiveness and understanding to deliver the policy (Harris, 2013). Braun and Guston (2003) characterise this as the principle-agent theory, where the (principle) policy makers depend on the delivery (agents) to implement the policy.

The third generation of implementation literature encompassed both ‘top-down’ and ‘bottom-up’ approaches and attempted to synthesise elements from both theoretical camps, with “systematic tests based on comparative and statistical research designs” (Winter, 2003, p.212). The focus was to ensure that an explicit hypothesis was outlined and could be appropriately tested, essentially “to be more scientific” than the previous generations in its method of investigating implementation (Goggin et al., 1990, p.18). Yet, O’Toole (2000) highlights that there has been some, but no sustained interest in this third generative approach, potentially due to its scope and intimidating standards, which would equate to a career’s worth of work, when many resource constraints are in place for researchers. In summary, these three generations of implementation research can be divided into three main theoretical perspectives- ‘top-down’, ‘bottom-up’ and ‘synthesis’.

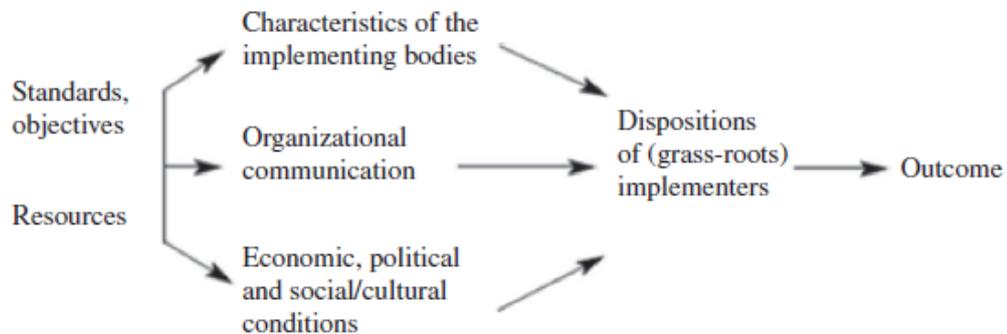
2.17 Top-down

Top-down theorists such as Pressman and Wildavsky (1973), Bardach (1977), Sabatier and Mazmanian (1980) and Hogwood and Gunn (1984) follow a centralised, prescriptive ideal, focusing on policy formation followed by an objective, hierarchical sequence through the system (Figure 1) from national formation through to translation and finally implementation by the delivery agents. Mazmanian and Sabatier (1983, p.20) define implementation as “the carrying out of a basic policy decision, usually incorporated in a statute but which can also take the form of important executive orders

or court decisions”. This centralisation decision is the beginning of the implementation process, reinforcing the idea that (principle) policy makers hold the most relevance in achieving the required outcome (Matland, 1995). Pressman and Wildavsky (1973) highlighted implementation failure through a lack of joined-up thinking and coordination between the necessary organisations involved in the process. Yet, it has been suggested this research is overly pessimistic and had a distinct failure bias (Pulzl and Treib, 2006).

Van Meter and Van Horn (1975) build upon Pressman and Wildavsky’s (1973) general model to provide a process model for implementation, in which there are six interrelated variables (Figure 2). Their focus concentrated on whether the initial policy objectives related to the implementation outcomes. The model flows left to right, accentuating the focus on hierarchal control and organisational capacities such as “resources”, “policy objectives” and “standards” (Van Meter and Van Horn, 1975, p. 482). Yet, the “characteristics of implementing agencies” and “disposition of implementing agents” slightly deviate from the mainstream ‘top-down’ approach, as policy change will only occur if policy consensus among actors is high (Pulzl and Treib, 2006). Otherwise the policy aims may be rejected through a misalignment to delivery actors’ self-interest, beliefs or existing loyalties (Skille, 2008, p.185). This model was predominantly created for the public sector (Skille, 2008), yet many have highlighted its relevance to other sectors including sport, as long as the values and norms of community sports are dominant in the analysis (Harris, 2012).

Figure 2: The Policy Implementation Process, Van Meter and Van Horn (1975) modified by Kjellberg and Reitan (1995, p.143).



Sabatier and Mazmanian (1980) identified six objectives that were necessary for effective implementation which involve 1) the policy having clear and consistent objectives, 2) ensuring the policy has adequate causal theory, 3) a legal structure to improve agent compliance, 4) agents being committed to the policy goals 5) and being skilful and supportive. Finally, it is important to ensure there are 6) no damaging socio-economic conditions, which could undermine political support. Bardach’s (1977) work ‘The Implementation Game’ immediately identifies the central, political importance of implementation through the intentional reference to a ‘game’, where Bardach highlights that anyone involved in implementation should:

“look at the players, what they read as the stakes, their strategies and tactics, their resources for playing, the rules of play, the rules of ‘fair’ play, the nature of communication among the players and the degrees of uncertainty surrounding the possible outcomes” (1977, p.56)

Bardach explores the challenges for policy implementation and attempts to provide advice and guidance for central policy makers on the writing process, placing him in the “top-down” perspective. Bardach concluded that successful implementation is possible if the “games” are written correctly. That said, his ideas also influenced many “bottom-up” theorists (Pulzl and Treib, 2006, p.92), due to the identification of

possible issues surrounding outcomes and communication emphasising a lack of total control from the “top-down”.

2.18 Bottom-up

Bottom-up theorists such as Lipsky, (1980), Hjern and Porter (1981), Hjern (1982) and Hjern and Hull (1982) argue that to truly examine implementation theory the focus needs to be on the grass-root delivery or ‘street-level bureaucrats’ (Lipsky, 1980) such as sports development officers or coaches in the voluntary sports clubs. Lipsky (1980) states these are the main actors that deliver the policy and determine successful or ineffective implementation of a policy. Research in this field identifies those actor networks, which reject the notion by ‘top-down’ theorists that policies are defined by the central policy makers and suggest a level of discretion is valuable, as the delivery agents are closer to the tangible problems (Pulzl and Treib, 2006). Lipsky’s work not only pioneered a methodological approach of research implementation process by outlining the issues with regulating street-level agents. Hill and Hupe (2002) propose that it also emphasises the oversight by top-down theorists, as even if their policies are clearly outlined and there is a hierarchical sequence to delivery agents, this is insufficient to ensure implementation will happen as intended or even if it will be successful. As it is the “the decisions of street-level bureaucrats, the routines they establish, the devices they invent to cope with uncertainties and work pressures that effectively become the public policies they carry out” (Lipsky, 1980, p. xii).

Hjern and Porter (1981) and Hjern and Hull (1982) emphasised that it is actors and organisations at a local level and their interactions that is at the heart of understanding implementation and policy delivery, thus when investigating implementation, it is critical to identify these network patterns of organisations and actors that work in collaboration to implement the policy objective. Thus the “literature finds the field split into two major schools, top-down and bottom-up” (Matland, 1995, p.145), which subsequently evolved to a theoretical perspective of ‘synthesis’ of the different perspectives.

2.19 Synthesis

There are many key figures that sit within this hybrid theory (Elmore, 1979; Winter, 1990; Goggin et al., 1990; Matland, 1995) in which elements of both top-down and bottom-up approaches are combined. Elmore's (1979) idea of backward mapping provided guidance and advice for the formation phases of policy implementation, suggesting that the starting point is the intended policy outcome and this process maps backwards to investigate what dominant process are needed to ensure this result. Matland (1995) noted that theorists following the top-down approach investigate reasonably clearly defined policies, whereas bottom-up theorists are examining with "greater uncertainty inherent in the policy" (p.155). Thus, he developed an ambiguity-conflict matrix, which is a contingency model that attempts to provide a comprehensive basis to comprehend implementation (Table 3).

Table 3: Matland's ambiguity-conflict matrix, adapted by Hudson (2006)

Table 3 Matland's ambiguity-conflict matrix (adapted)

	Low Conflict Administrative Implementation	High Conflict Political Implementation
Low Ambiguity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • goals are given and a means for problem solving is known • a central authority has the information, resources and sanction capability to enact the desired policy • implementation is hierarchically ordered with each link receiving orders from the level above • policy is spelled out explicitly at each level and there is agreement on responsibilities and tasks • relatively uniform outcomes at the micro-level across many sites 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • there is conflict over both goals and means • the implementation process is a key arena for conflict • implementation outcomes are determined by the distribution of power • compliance is not automatically forthcoming • low ambiguity ensures that monitoring of compliance is relatively easy
High Ambiguity	<p>Experimental Implementation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • outcomes depend largely on which actors are involved • variation in outcomes from site to site • outcomes are hard to predict • opportunities for local entrepreneurs to create local policies • compliance monitoring mechanisms are of limited relevance • the policy may become a low priority 	<p>Symbolic Implementation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ostensibly implausible combination • salient symbols can produce high levels of conflict even when the policy is vague • outcomes will vary across sites • outcomes will depend upon the balance of local coalition strength • policy ambiguity makes it difficult to monitor activities

When there are two different methods of studying policy (top-down and bottom-up) two issues emerge: ambiguity and conflict. Policy ambiguity links to a

lack of uncertainty or vagueness in the policy goals or the means in which the goals are intended to be implemented. Policy conflict occurs when more than one organisation has identified a policy as directly relevant to its interests, but has incongruous views of policy goals or activities (Matland, 1995). The ambiguity-conflict matrix (Table 3) is divided into four sections which highlight the type of implementation process (low ambiguity-low conflict, high ambiguity-low conflict, low-conflict- high ambiguity and high-conflict-high ambiguity). Yet, he stresses that these ‘theoretical constructs are continuous...there is no tipping point at which a slight move up or down causes a radical shift from one type of implementation to another’ (Matland, 1995, p.159).

2.20 Policy Implementation within the English Sports System

In the context of the ESS, the importance and use of voluntary sports clubs, as policy implementers is not a new phenomenon. It can be seen, as far back as 2000, through the ‘A Sporting Future for All’ report (DCMS, 2000) and then subsequently in the DCMS’s (2002) ‘Game Plan’ report (May, Harris and Collins, 2012). There are many schools of thought surrounding policy implementation and within voluntary sport clubs it is not without its difficulties. In the ideal situation policy-makers would have absolute control over every stage, including elements such as available resources, adequate staffing, successful communication and interpretation, to ensure intended policy implementation is achieved, yet, this is not realistic. There are many external processes and variables that are beyond the control of the policy makers, leading to a lack of influence over the result (Bloyce and Smith, 2009). These external variables refer to the diverse features apparent within VSCs, who in recent years have been assigned a leading role in delivering the government’s sports policy (Harris, Mori and Collins, 2009). However, there are many problems or concerns with how much voluntary sports clubs will conform to the national sports policy, due to “tensions between the idea of voluntary organisations as agents of ‘civil renewal’ and as service providers” (Lewis, 2005, p.121).

Historically, VSCs have displayed indifference towards national policy and the drive for professionalism is unlikely to align with volunteer’s beliefs and values, many

of whom volunteer for their love and commitment to the sport rather than for delivering national objectives (May, Harris and Collins, 2012; Bang and Ross, 2009). May, Harris and Collins (2012) state that due to the well documented heterogeneous nature of VSCs, their compliance with top-down implementation is uncertain, particularly when considering the origins and motives of volunteers and their general indifference towards national sport-related policy. May, Harris and Collins (2012, p.1) highlight that the “new policies for community sport set out a clear focus on using NGBs and voluntary sports clubs”. The main aim is achieving growth in sports participation, especially within the 14-25 year olds age bracket, which is core to Sport England’s new strategy and reducing the proportion of participants dropping out of sport by the age of 25 (DCMS, 2012; Graham and Spiers, 2012).

2.21 Governance

Governance refers to ‘a *new* process of governing; or a *changed* condition of ordered rule; or the *new* method by which society is governed’ (Rhodes, 2007, p.1246). Relating to the study of sport, governance is a term that has been used since the early 2000’s and can be studied at both an international and domestic level. Domestically this relates to how sport policy is funded and delivered, this links directly the process of policy implementation. Grix (2010) highlights that the ‘governance narrative’ relates to the shift in policy and politics, where it is believed there has been an erosion to central governmental power.

Power within policy delivery has moved from a top-down, hierarchical process to a side-ways governance system through a series of partnerships and networks, known as ‘network mode’. Governance through a hierarchical mode has high levels of central control over policy outcomes and creation, however within network mode, private and public agents have agreement and co-operate with ‘significant autonomy from the state’ (Rhodes, 1997, p.15; Grix and Phillips, 2011). Bevir and Rhodes (2003, 2006) and later works by Bevir and Richards (2009a, 2009b) highlighted limitations within the positivist nature of the network approach, they proposed a decentred, interpretivist approach which ‘implies governance arises from the bottom-

up' (Bevir and Rhodes, 2006, p.76). This approach makes allowances for the conflicting and diverse beliefs, practices and strategic actions of individual's agents.

Much investigation has been undertaken into the governance of sports organisations, Goodwin and Grix (2011) research into elite and grass roots sport policy, identified upward communication towards government funding agencies- UK Sport, DCMS and Sport England. This links to accountability through an asymmetrical relationship, between the government and sport delivery organisations, as NGBs were instructed by Sport England that 'funding would be withheld if you do not fulfil the government's objectives' (Goodwin and Grix, 2011, p.550). Additional studies have investigated governance within sports organisations and board structure, to evaluate the performance of sport organisations and issues around policy implementation and decision making (Ferkins and Shilbury, 2012; Taylor and O'Sullivan, 2009). These governance concepts are important within the investigation of NGBs and VSCs, due to the complex networks involved in the governance of sport in the UK. Specifically, for this investigation the shift in the governance narrative towards a network based, agent led approach links directly to the use of policy implementation theory to investigate the 'bottom-up' and top-down' process involved in legacy creation through the investigation of agent's attitudes and beliefs.

2.22 Theoretical Perspective of Current Research

There has been a rise in governmental interest and attention surrounding sport, yet this "has not been matched by an equivalent increase in the analysis of public policy for sport" (Houlihan, 2005, p.164). Frawley, Toohey and Veal (2013) identified this gap in the sports literature regarding the process, due to the dominant focus being on the outcomes rather than on the process. They not only stressed the lack of consideration for "organisational inputs...relating to managers of NGBs and their view on hosting international sporting events" (p.106), but also interestingly relating to "how NGBs aim to capitalise on mega-events and which strategies have been successful or failed" (p.106). The additional absence of empirical research was echoed by Bloyce and Smith (2009) and suggests that most sports development research is narrow and prescriptive, lacking in empirical grounding, by describing an ideal world rather than focusing on explaining how sports development and policy exist and are

delivered in practise through observational, first hand studies, which are required. When looking at policy there are many theories that have been utilised in previous research and there is a growing body of knowledge, using a selection of these approaches that focus on top-down, bottom-up, policy making, policy networks and implementation and attempts to look at the whole approach (Harris and Houlihan, 2014; Hogwood and Gun, 1984; Houlihan, 2005; May, Harris and Collins, 2012; Sabatier, 1998; Seippel, 2005; Skille, 2008; Skille, 2006; Van Meter and Van Horn, 1975). Many of these approaches have their strengths but their weaknesses must also be considered.

The Advocacy Coalition Framework (ACF) as proposed by Sabatier (1998) and modified by Houlihan (2005) is highly regarded in policy analysis discourse. This framework, however, along with the policy tools perspective developed by Salamon (2002) and implemented in the Norwegian context by Seippel (2005), and the top-down perspective (Van Meter and Van Horn, 1975), fail to account for the implementing body i.e. the voluntary sports clubs. Hence, they do “not contribute to the understanding of the implementation of sports policy at the local level” (Skille, 2008, p.190). Skille (2008) stressed the relevance of external restrictions and the beliefs of the delivery agents and how this affects the transition from the policy makers defined objectives to the policy outcome, making “the way from the top to the bottom long and uneasy” (p.190).

Houlihan (2005) suggested that in the 1970-80s, the stages model dominated policy analysis and it is based on a set of characteristics, following the rational actor model. It can be used to investigate the policy process in its entirety but it has been used to highlight specific elements such as implementation (Pressman and Wildavsky, 1973), underlining its application to the current research. Hogwood and Gun (1984) recognised nine stages (implementation preconditions):

- 1) agenda setting (deciding to decide),
- 2) issue filtration (deciding how to decide),
- 3) issue definition,
- 4) forecasting,
- 5) setting objectives and priorities,
- 6) options analysis,
- 7) policy implementation,

- 8) evaluation and review,
- 9) policy maintenance, succession or termination.

Whilst it is strongly criticised for weaknesses, such as being descriptive, many have used the core concepts in implementation research, signifying that the main components can be revised to form part of a more intensive framework or to prompt enquiry (Houlihan, 2005). Highly relatable work by May, Harris and Collins (2012) investigated community sports policy and the attitudes of clubs to policy. They utilised Van Meter and Van Horn (1975) policy implementation model and highlighted that this model reflects the reality of the top-down community sport policy process. Furthermore, they highlight that this model has methodological value in the community sport policy process as it provides an analysis of both top-down mechanisms, as well as, the characters of grass-root implementers in the ESS (May, Harris and Collins, 2012). This is vital for the current research, and ultimately provides a deeper understanding of both perspectives and the challenges of policy implementation. Even though the authors did not align with the top-down approach, they highlight the relevance of model selection to ensure all relevant and interrelated variables are analysed. Hence, for this research the most suitable frameworks for analysis, due to their relevance and use within the field are Lipsky's (1980) street-level bureaucrat theory, Van Meter and Van Horn's (1975) policy implementation model, and finally, Hogwood and Gunn's (1984) nine stage model of implementation preconditions. The concerns raised about this approach will be considered and these will be used as a guiding scheme through the implementation process.

2.23 Methodological Approaches

SMEs such as the Olympic and Paralympic Games are high profile, international events that attract “significant media attention and draw interest well beyond the local hosting area” (Taks et al., 2014, p.214). The summer Olympic Games provides an exclusive opportunity to attract unparalleled interest from people within the host country and beyond, hence this SMEs acts as an influential tool to raise awareness of sport, and especially for the competing sports (Taks et al., 2014). This highlights the significance of investigating such a high-profile event and the

opportunities that the event provided for non-traditional sports within England, as these sports gained automatic qualification for the SME, providing a platform, for media and TV coverage of these sports.

This research utilised the protocol of a highly relatable study by Cuskelly, Taylor, Hays and Darcy's (2006), this research informed the methodological framework of this investigation. The study aimed to create a volunteer management inventory, Cuskelly et al. (2006) utilised the Human Resource Management (HRM) framework and the research was formulated of two studies. Firstly, study one involved 16 focus groups being conducted, with 98 community rugby club administrators to develop a volunteer management inventory (VMI). The interview schedule was based on the seven categories of the HRM framework, similarly to the current research, which utilised Van Meter and Van Horn's (1975) policy implementation model and other relevant literature.

Then study 2. investigated Australian Rugby Union community rugby clubs, 375 clubs completed and returned the self-administered surveys. Data collection utilised a Likert scale and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was used to test the application of the hypothesised VMI model of HRM practices (Cuskelly et al., 2006). CFA is used frequently in social research, as researchers "need measures with good reliability and validity that are appropriate for use across diverse populations" (Harrington, 2009, p.4). CFA can be used to examine construct validation, which in its simplest form allows examination of the relationship among constructs. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was used in the current research, due to the exploratory nature of the topic, and this will be explained in more detail in the methodology chapter. Even though the content and location differs, the main structure and process provides a strong base, from which the current research could gain methodological stability.

In addition, research undertaken by Doherty, Misener, and Cuskelly (2013) lead to the development of a multidimensional framework to measure the capacity in community sports clubs, specifically for the non-profit and voluntary sector. It consists of the following critical components: financial, networks, infrastructural process, and planning and development capacity. Key strengths and challenges of each capacity dimension were uncovered and the findings support the use of this multidimensional

framework. Two main approaches to data collection were used, semi-structured, interviews and active-member researcher observations. Doherty, Misener, and Cuskelly's (2013) framework states that human resources are the most important dimension and that the various dimensions interact to impact goal achievement. These connections were verified in the context of the VSC that was examined, thus providing support for the frameworks use in future research. Even though the current research is not directly focusing on organisational capacity, the main themes that are needed for organisation capacity are relevant to NGBs ability to create and implement grass-root participation programmes. Thus, these dimensions were used as sensitising concepts to prompt discussion in the focus groups to gauge their relevance within the current context.

By investigating the mechanisms that were put in place by these NGBs, which as highlighted above, was the principal method employed by SE to achieve this legacy objective, this research sits within the sports policy and development field. Yet, similarly to the current attention within SMEs literature, which focuses on outcomes of participation in relation to mega-events in regard to public policy a large proportion of the literature has focused on the agenda setting or policy making stage of the process (Fischer and Miller, 2006) resulting in a comparative shortfall of studies investigating the critically important implementation stage of the policy process. One of the aims of this research is to contribute to this underrepresented area of literature. As this thesis aimed to investigate the process of legacy production and policy implementation within NGBs, aiming to achieve the legacy objective of increasing participation. Due to the multiple agents involved it is important to consider implementation holistically, by investigating top down and bottom up approaches.

2.24 Conclusion

Reflecting on the review of literature, SMEs have been investigated and analysed in many ways. Several elements associated with SMEs have been addressed in this chapter, which aids the understanding of the current landscape of academic literature, to highlight the need for this current study and support the research questions outlined in the first chapter. This review of literature has explored the current level of understanding surrounding leveraging and legacy and specific outcomes of SMEs are highlighted throughout the existing literature. The aims and specific plans

of London 2012 were also discussed, to ensure a greater understanding of how the legacy plans could continue to develop. The evaluation methods used to monitor the sports participation legacy were analysed and highlighted some possible concerns around attribution.

Then relating to sports participation, health and PA, these areas were discussed through the analysis of previous research and illustrated the different possible approaches needed to engage positive, lapsed and sedentary individuals when investigating a population wide legacy objective. As this research was undertaken with England, an understanding of the sports system was needed to provide context to the research. Furthermore, sports policy and implementation was also investigated through the 3 main approaches top-down, bottom up and synthesis to explore the current understanding within the literature and then this was investigated within the content of the ESS. Theoretical perspective and methodical approach was then illustrated to demonstrate the relation to previous studies. This literature review illustrates the current understanding within the academic field and highlights the need for more research into leveraging and the implementation processes within sports organisations aiming to contribute to the sports participation legacy.

Chapter 3- Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines and explains the research processes and strategy that were used for this investigation. These processes were constructed around the philosophical views and assumptions that form the foundations of the research choices. Research requires a set of principles to provide fundamental underpinnings for the investigation and in turn these drive the more technical research methods. These principles are ordered through scientific paradigms, which form a set of beliefs, assumptions and values of how research should be carried out (Gelo, 2012). Thus, the research methods define the ‘what and how’, whilst the scientific paradigms provide the ‘why of scientific inquiry’, which forms the basic philosophical foundations (Gelo, 2012). Philosophical assumptions are critical in the development, direction and eventual outcomes of any research process and they provide an insight into the researcher’s orientation. The key building blocks of the research process are ontology, epistemology, methodology and methods. Hay (2002, p.63) highlighted the “directional relationship” between these concepts. The philosophical beliefs held by the researcher underpin all choices that are made within the research, from the initial development of ideas, through to the specific research questions that are outlined. This ultimately provides context for this research and a point of reference, to assist the justification of the research design.

Research questions are an important part of the research process, as they help researchers to focus precisely on the topic being investigated and they guide numerous elements of the research project from the literature search and research design, to the data analysis and write up (Bryman, 2012). Research questions are split into three main groups, ‘what’, ‘why’ and ‘how’. They generally follow a sequence, firstly ‘what’ questions are descriptive in nature, directed towards describing and determining trends and patterns of social phenomena (Blaikie, 2000). ‘Why’ questions aim to find explanations or reasons to highlight causality within the particular research phenomena. Lastly, ‘how’ questions aim to suggest methods or ways in which an intervention could achieve a specific outcome (Blaikie, 2000). Depending on the existing research that has been produced in the field of investigation, it may be relevant

to move directly to ‘why’ and ‘how’ questions, as long as the ‘what’ questions are clearly understood; as “we need to know what something is before we can explain it” (Blaikie, 2000, p.61). Due to the nature of this research, a mix of ‘what’, ‘why’ and ‘how’ questions were used throughout. ‘What’ questions were addressed initially, to ensure a sufficient understanding of the phenomenon was achieved, combined with the current knowledge that was identified in existing literature.

This exploratory study focused on the London 2012 Games and evaluated the sports development and legacy creation processes of this Sports Mega Event (SME). The aim of this research was to investigate the impact that a SME (London 2012 Games) had on community sport within the UK, specifically focusing on NGBs and their role in leveraging a participation increase. To investigate this, the study’s main objective and RQ are outlined below:

Main Objective: To analyse the impact that the London 2012 Olympic Games had on community sport within the UK, by investigating what role NGBs played in leveraging a participation legacy.

RQ1: How do NGBs perceive SMEs and what impact did their perceptions have on the leveraging and implementation strategies in order to achieve the legacy objective of increased sports participation?

RQ2: What are the key components involved in legacy production for a sport participation objective, utilising the policy implementation process?

RQ3: What were VSCs attitudes towards the implementation and what legacy creation processes were undertaken by VSCs, across the four minority sports?

RQ4: How can the findings from the selected NGBs and VSCs inform the way sports organisations create and implement sports event policy and strategies in the future?

3.2 Philosophical Considerations

Grix (2002) states that the research process is interrelated, with the researcher's view of the world; this is shaped by the experience one brings to the process and what the individual believes can be researched (ontological position). Grix (2002) suggests that this links what we know about that topic (epistemological position) to how you acquire it (methodological approach). Hence, for the current research, the objective was to analyse what and why certain strategies and mechanisms were put in place by NGBs to leverage an increase in sports participation. This research focused on the process of implementation and examined this practice from the policy formation at the national NGB level, through to local policy implementation within VSCs. The subsequent philosophical approaches will be used.

3.3 Ontology

Ontology "is the way we think the world is" (Fleetwood, 2005, p.197) and this is the starting point of all research. In effect, ontological assumptions are concerned with what we believe constitutes social reality (Blaikie, 2007). Ontological positions largely fall into 'objectivism', where social phenomena is thought to live independently of social actors, then 'constructivism,' is the belief that the phenomena is continuously created and revised through social actors (Grix, 2002), whilst CR is situated between the two.

Realism itself has been described in many forms, by several scholars and Blaikie (2007, p.93) suggests these are split into six categories:

- 1) 'Shallow realists' believe that the researched phenomenon exists independently of us, but also that we can have direct contact with this and it is 'only that which is observed...by the senses... that is relevant to science'.
- 2) 'Conceptual realists' assume that reality exists independently of the human mind. They note that reality is not directly observable or the property of any individual, but is a structure of ideas.
- 3) 'Cautious realists' also identify that reality has an independent existence, but due to the flaws and interpretative nature of human senses, suggest that reality cannot be measured accurately or directly. Hence the researcher must approach their investigation with a critical attitude.

- 4) 'Depth realists' believe that three domains exist within reality. Empirical (what is observed through our senses), actual (what exists independently of the observation) and real (the underlying mechanisms and structures that may not be observed). These levels of reality ensure ontological depth and a stratified reality.
- 5) 'Idealists' suggest that the human mind develops representations of reality, and social actors produce and reproduce interpretations of social reality through daily life.
- 6) 'Subtle realists' emerged to improve on existing approaches, they highlight that an independent reality exists and cultural assumptions prevent access to it. They emphasise the fact that 'all knowledge is based on assumptions and purposes, and is therefore a human construction, it is not certain'.

Depth realism has been strongly linked to CR (Creaven, 2000). Yet, Bhaskar originally did not use the phrase CR to outline his philosophical standpoint; but rather the terms 'transcendental realism' and 'critical naturalism'. It was these two approaches, through which the term CR arose, which is now accepted by Bhaskar and others involved in the realist movement (Archer, Bhaskar, Collier, Lawson and Norrie, 2013). Yet, unlike positivists they do not privilege direct observation. Realists believe there are deep structural relationships that are critical to allow an explanation of behaviour to be possible, however these are not directly observable (Marsh and Furlong, 2002). The early use of CR was by Campbell (1987) through the description of his theory, which he called the 'evolutionary epistemology' of the phrase CR. This was used to refer to the joining of ontological realism and epistemological relativism, which is essential to Bhaskar's views (Maxwell, 2012).

The term 'critical realism' has been met with many misconceptions. Sayer (2000, p.2) states that many believe realism offers "privileged access to the truth". The distinctive feature of critical realism "is the belief that there is a world existing independently of our knowledge of it". Fleetwood (2005, p.198) states that just because "an entity can exist independently of our identification of it, does not always mean it does". Thus, this autonomy of the world or entity from our knowledge impedes any possibility of this assumption of 'access to truth'. Sayer fittingly describes this independence through the term "evident fallibility of our knowledge" (2000, p.2). All knowledge is partial, for example, if you reflect on the times that things have not gone

as expected or our assumptions were not met, this helps to justify the belief that the world can be independent of our knowledge. As in comparison “if the world were a... construction of our knowledge, then our knowledge would surely be infallible” as no lapse in expectations or mistakes would occur (Sayer, 2000, p.2). Once any misconceptions highlighted above are eliminated, CR offers “great promise for social science and theory... providing an alternative to several philosophical and methodological positions which have been found wanting” (Sayer, 2000, p.2).

The ruling characteristic of the realism approach is the refusal to believe that it is probable to have any objective or complete knowledge of the world and it allows alternative valid accounts of any phenomenon to be accepted (Maxwell, 2012). Lakoff (1987) highlights this distinction between objectivism and realist and states that:

“Scientific objectivism claims that there is only one fully correct way in which reality can be divided up into objects, properties, and relations. . . . Scientific realism, on the other hand, assumes that “the world is the way it is,” while acknowledging that there can be more than one scientifically correct way of understanding reality in terms of conceptual schemes with different objects and categories of objects” (p.265).

In relation to research paradigms, CR sits centrally between positivism and interpretivism, which provides a more balanced research perspective (Byers, 2013). In basic terms researchers using this perspective are merging these two contrasting paradigms, by asking how (interpretivism) and why (positivism). In CR, the social world is comprised of four modes of reality: material, ideal, artefactual and social. It is this unique aspect in which multiple modes of reality exist for the phenomenon under investigation (Byers, 2013). ‘Material’ is not dependent on human activity, they are tangible mechanisms (such as a policy), which are often observed, whereupon they may be referred to as conceptually mediated (Ackroyd, 2004; Byers, 2013). ‘Ideal’ refers to conceptual, intangible entities such as ideas, beliefs, language and behaviour (Ackroyd, 2004). Artefactual is the buildings, computers, as well as “the interpretation of mechanisms over time...i.e. this is just the way things are done here” (Byers, 2013, p.10). ‘Social’ relates to unplanned social structures and casual powers such as norms, rules, class or gender (Fleetwood, 2013).

Using a critical realist ontology, reality is seen as an open system that is structured, Sayer (2000, p.73) states that “these structures may have powers emergent and irreducible to those of their constituents... and a variety of contingent relationships...co-determine the occurrence of events”. Downward (2005, p.307) refers to this as social ontology and echoes the focus around the structured world, in which “relationships between these constituent features are causal in bringing about outcomes”. Furthermore, the critical realist perspective views structures and agents, as elements that in conjunction determine the outcomes of social phenomena (Byers, 2013). Structures are the “relatively enduring institutionalized relationships between social positions and practices located at different levels of analysis that constrain actor’s capacities to ‘make a difference’” (Reed, 1997, p.25). Underlining that, both structures and agents are causal forces, by both initiating and constraining such action, through agents’ production and reproduction of structures (Grix, 2010). Yet, “agents are not without power to resist pressures from the structures they created” (Byers, 2013, p.11). Thus, when investigating multiple realities through the critical realist perspective, the analysis of the mechanisms created and/or implemented by NGBs, cannot be understood by just investigating the structures alone, the influential agents also need to be considered.

3.4 Epistemology

The way we think the world is (ontology) influences what we think can be known about it, which is known as epistemology (Fleetwood, 2005). Within social research there are six epistemological positions to consider, empiricism, rationalism, falsificationism, neo-realism, constructionism and conventionalism. Blaikie (2007) highlighted some key features of the different positions.

Empiricism proposes that the human senses create and verify knowledge. A neutral observer can produce reliable knowledge, if they do not distorted contact with reality. Rationalism suggests that knowledge is examined directly through human thought and takes into account that reality is formed of both the observable and unobservable. This can be investigated though the “consequences it has on people’s lives or thought processes” (Blaikie, 2007, p.94). Falsificationism advocates that knowledge is produced through a process of trial and error, as theories exist prior to and are then tested against observations to “falsify or confirm them” (Blaikie, 2007, p.94). Knowledge must be approached cautiously, as it is unclear whether it is true,

due to the lack of ability to observe reality. Neo-realism accepts that there are casual relationships that are independent of the observer, which are formed by the mechanisms that produce them (Blaikie, 2007). Constructionism provides an alternative to empiricism and rationalism. By suggesting “knowledge is neither discovered from an external reality nor produced by reason independently to such reality” (Blaikie, 2007, p.22), it is the process of people understanding their encounters with others and the physical world. This process of meaning-giving has emerged into two sub-groups from constructionism: social constructionism and constructivism.

Social constructionism proposes that reality is created through the individual’s interpretations and subsequent explanation of social constructions, whereas, constructivists propose that reality is structured through the individual. They place a strong emphasis on individual viewpoints and the meaning-giving activity that occurs in the individual’s mind, through the cognitive processes. Conventionalism advises that theories are created to allow individuals to deal with the world. Nevertheless, they do not describe reality but rather they suggest what the observer considers to be real (Blaikie, 2007). Realists can accept weak social constructionism, as the social character of knowledge does not mean that it is unable to successfully identify real objects (including social constructions), which exist independent of the researcher (Sayer, 2000).

Blaikie (2007) stresses that ontological and epistemological assumptions should not be looked at independently, as different approaches can form different combinations. Social constructionism implies that social phenomena and its meanings are “continually being accomplished through social actors, and is not only produced through social interaction, but is in a constant state of revision” (Bryman, 2012, p.33). Yet, if the world or social phenomena is ‘socially constructed,’ how does that interact with the critical realist view that the world is independent? This is a necessary consideration to clarify, when using critical realism as an ontology and social constructionism as an epistemology. Sayer (2004, p.7) states that the first step is to critically investigate “construction” and how it develops over time, as well as, asking what is “constructed” and by whom, is it researchers or actors?

Primarily, Sayer (2004) suggests there is a difference between a construal (a mental construction or interpretation of the world) and a construction itself (materially constructing something). An interpretation (construal) informs material constructions, such as organisational practices, i.e. participation programmes are not merely a social

construction and are an incomplete one at that (Sayer, 2004). This is because on its own it is unable to control or safeguard the effects that were intended. These depend on other conditions, not outlined in the participation programme specification such as understanding, “trust, certain shared assumptions and social norms” (Sayer, 2004, p.7). Sayer (2004) highlights that construal and construction may merge in communication; for example, in which an iterative process is occurring across time, with the specific social phenomena that have been constructed and then interpreted by others. Most social phenomena is the product of activity, prior to the observations that are made by the researcher. These observed constructions exist independently of those they can influence, meaning social constructionism fits generally with the realist principle (Sayer, 2004).

3.5 Critical Realist Methodology

A critical realist methodology was utilised for this investigation, consistent with Byers’ (2013) articulation of CR, which was applied to understanding control of volunteers within sports clubs. The current and Byer’s study utilised Marsh’s (1999) six features of CR and Tsoukas’s (1994) notion of multiple levels of reality, to understanding the concept of legacy production through the application of CR. The critical realist ontology accepts that there is a ‘reality’ external to individuals (assumption 1) containing both superficial and deep structures that are not easily or directly observable (assumption 2). An individual’s knowledge of the ‘reality’ of legacy is limited by the individual’s background and education. If there is necessity in the world (assumption 3), objects and structures will have causal power. This indicates a need to make causal statements about the determinants or causes of the phenomenon (legacy). However, actors’ discursive knowledge regarding ‘reality’ has a construction effect on the outcomes of social interrelations (assumption 4). Structures such as cultures, ideologies, and institutional practises enable and constrain everyday social activities, rather than determine outcomes (assumption 5). Taking assumptions 3-5 into consideration, the reality of the concept of MSE legacy can be directly illustrated by formal mechanisms designed to deliver the legacy such as legacy strategies, organisation structures and programs as well as evidence of long term change (i.e. outcomes) as a result of an event related to legacy objectives. At first glance superficial ‘structures’ may appear to ‘control’ and coordinate the production of an event legacy. That said, the deep structures that underlie stakeholder’s acceptance and utilisation of

formal mechanisms may be underpinned by more latent constructs, such as emotion, values, norms and/or identification with the event, organising body or focus of the legacy.

Social science involves the study of reflexive agents who may construct, deconstruct and reconstruct structures (assumption 6) to understand, the deep, subtle structures. Hence the researcher only partially relies on organisation members' perceptions and discursive constructs to understand how legacy (and what type of legacy) is produced. These assumptions reveal an essential component of a CR perspective, that reality (i.e., event legacy) is comprised of multiple realities and so the production of that reality (legacy) needs to take a multi-level approach. Tsoukas (1994) provides a framework to facilitate this, as applied to the concept of event legacy, shown later in Table 5.

3.6 Research Strategy

This section will explain the research approach and methodological considerations for the thesis. As the research questions, have been identified, the next step involved the selection and clarification of the research strategy that were used to answer them. Specifically, this section will present and consider the different possible research strategies, with an identification of the most suitable method for this research. In addition, it will also address other methodological issues, such as justification of the research method, reliability and validity of the data and the role of the researcher. There are four main research strategies, Inductive, Deductive, Retroductive and Abductive, which aim to answer research questions. These four strategies each have a rooting within a specific philosophical and theoretical tradition (Blaikie, 2000). Bryman (2012) suggests there are two distinct strategies, inductive (data to theory) and deductive (theory to data).

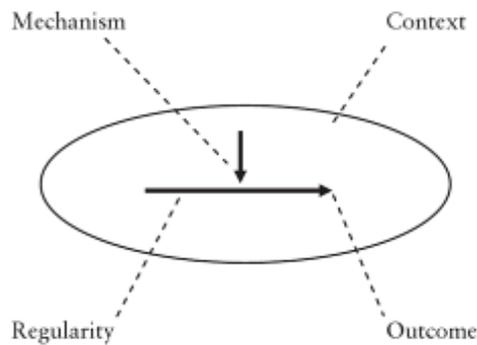
Induction is the process by which conclusions are made from direct observation of empirical evidence (Grix, 2004). In simple terms induction starts with data collection and continues through to data analysis. This results in the discovery of patterns and generalisations, with the overall outcome being the development of a theory. Induction follows the logic of positivism and is of use for answering 'what' questions, however the capability to answer 'why' questions is limited (Blaikie, 2000).

Deduction aims to explain the social phenomenon using an existing theory. The theory comes first and drives the process of data collection (Bryman, 2012). The theoretical proposition is presented as a hypothesis and through the deductive method, that hypothesis or theory is tested against the data to either eliminate or accept the theory (Blaikie, 2000). Deduction follows the logic of critical rationalism and is particularly useful for answering ‘why’ questions. As deductive strategy starts with a regularity that has been identified (existing theory), to which an explanation is needed (Blaikie, 2000).

Grix (2004) highlights that most research contains elements of both induction and deduction, hence the value of distinction stops at a certain point. Grix (2004) reinforced these complications, using grounded theory as an example, as it is simply not possible to start research with no “*priori* assumptions” (p.114). Grix (2004) echoed Ragin (1994) states that in most research there is an interplay between inductive and deductive methods, through the interaction of both observation and theory. This interaction between theory and observation is known as retroduction and has been supported by Bhaskar, as it follows the logic of scientific realism (Blaikie, 2000). Retroduction starts with the data and explains the regularities that are seen within the social phenomena, researchers must then use theory to aid explanation (Blaikie, 2000). Retroduction involves the creation of a model to describe a mechanism, and then it is the researcher’s job to establish if that mechanism exists (Blaikie, 2000). If so, and if the mechanism acts in the proposed way, it explains the regularity (Bhasker, 1979).

There are two forms of retroductive strategy; ‘structuralist,’ as demonstrated in the work of Bhaskar (1979) which aims to use social structures to locate explanatory mechanisms (Blaikie, 2009). Then secondly ‘constructionist’ was utilised in the later works by Harré (1974) and Harré and Secord (1972). This type of retroduction strategy is concerned with cognitive mechanisms rather than social structures (Blaikie, 2009). Pawson and Tilley (1997) adapted the structuralist strategy into an explanatory model (Figure 3). The model clearly demonstrates how the concepts are connected theoretically, as a combination of socially relevant influences, unlike deductive theory where they are seen as a logical set of associations (Blaikie, 2009).

Figure 3: Explanatory Model (Pawson and Tilley, 1997, p.72).



Abduction has a considerably different approach from the other three research strategies, with the starting point focusing on the perceptions and attitudes of the participants that are under investigation within the social world (Bryman, 2012). Blaikie (2000) states it is the social actor's construction of reality that is critical and the researcher should enter their reality too. This allows the researcher to discover the individual's motives and reasoning for certain activities, as well as, providing an understanding their motives and the situation in which they occurred. Abduction is based around certain elements of interpretivism and the objective is to re-describe the individual's motives and actions into a more technical account to produce a theory (Blaikie, 2000).

The retroductive strategy was most relevant for this current research, given the aims of the investigation and the critical realist approach. Retroduction builds on the strengths of induction by allowing the data to be addressed first. This approach overcomes the combined shortcomings of deduction and induction by allowing the movement between the data and theory to offer causal explanations. Specifically, the structuralist version of retroduction was utilised, due to its relevance for the current research. The aim was to understand the mechanisms (and social structures) that were created and implemented by NGBs and VSCs, as well as, to understand the attitudes of NGBs towards London 2012 and the role this played in the creation of the legacy objective. The objective of the research was to discover and understand those leveraging mechanisms and the implementation process, through reference to the literature. These mechanisms aimed to achieve the legacy outcome of increased participation, within the context of London 2012. By using the structuralist

retroduction strategy combined with the critical realist position, it is possible to ensure that regularities can be identified and with the assistance of theory, explanation can occur.

3.7 Methodological Concerns

Possible data choices

It is critical to note the distinction between methodology and method. Methodology is concerned with the study of methods and the way in which knowledge is produced. Each methodological approach will be moulded by specific ontological and epistemological assumptions (Grix, 2004). This is often confused with method, which is the specific “techniques and procedures used to collect and analyse data” (Grix, 2004, p.170). In its simplest terms, there are two main types of data used within research, text or written data (qualitative) and numerical data (quantitative). Each has a philosophical rooting and both have their merits and flaws.

Qualitative research is associated with the interpretative approach and methods can include unstructured, semi-structured or structured interviews, participant observations and focus groups (Gratton and Jones, 2004). This approach “usually requires an extended and intensive period of involvement with the social world” (Blaikie, 2000, p.242). The focus of this thesis was to gain an understanding of individual’s perspectives, i.e. their opinions on financial support from SE. Comparatively, quantitative research is related to the positivist domain and is likely to have limited if any contact with the people being studied (Blaikie, 2000). Methods can take many forms, with experiments and surveys being the most common. Bryman (1988) noted three other methods, official statistics, structured observation and quantitative content analysis.

Quantitative data mainly looks at quantity and quantifiable results, e.g. the changes in club membership figures, pre-and post the London 2012 Games. The main objective of this research was to investigate the impact that the London 2012 Games had on community sport within the UK and specifically NGBs role in leveraging a participation legacy. It was essential to investigate the attitudes of NGB senior staff and to examine the implementation process of the sports participation policy; this allowed the exploration of the participation figures and the mechanisms that highlight

the efficient relationships or challenges faced between the policy creators and strategy formation (SE and NGBs) and delivery agents (VSCs).

Social research- qualitative and quantitative methods

There has been much debate amongst academics, as many believe that these research methods rely on their epistemological assumptions. Many believe quantitative and qualitative research methods sit within two different paradigms, hence it is not possible to combine the two (Bryman, 2012). Bryman (2012) notes that especially in social science there are areas within qualitative and quantitative research that overlap and have commonality. This has led to some suggesting that mixed methods is a third methodological movement, which was originally referred to as 'triangulation' to denote the combination of methods (Blaikie, 2010). Gratton and Jones (2004) argue that qualitative data helps to provide some evidence and support quantitative measurements; for example, quantitative membership figures from NGBs, both at a national and club level can provide useful data about certain elements of their development and progression as a sport. Yet, even though this gives an insight into the 'what', it does not allow an in-depth analysis to investigate 'why' this change has happened and most importantly 'how'. Understanding the 'why' and 'how' through dialogue with NGB senior managers and club coaches will provide some explanation to the quantitative measurement and can highlight why these participation changes did or did not occur.

Denscombe (2014) states that by combining qualitative and quantitative methods you can recognise and utilise the benefits of both methods, whilst reducing their respective weaknesses. Blending qualitative and quantitative methods can produce a final product that demonstrates the significant contributions of both (Nau, 1995). This was utilised in the current research, with qualitative data primarily collected in study 1, via in-depth interviewees with VSCs. These findings were then used to inform and complement study 2, which consisted of a mainly quantitative, national online survey. This method allowed a large sample of data to be collected and analysed across a wide range of NGBs, which would not have been possible if qualitative methods were used alone. This combination allows more complex research questions to be addressed, than one method could achieve solely and a richer, stronger range of evidence to develop (Yin, 2013).

A mixed methods approach has been selected, as it is the most suitable method to answer the studies' research questions. Blaikie (2000) states that there are no clear connections between paradigms, research strategies or methods of data collection and analysis. Rather some methods are more commonly associated with a particular research strategy. Hence, issues are limited as long as the researcher is aware of the methods being used and in what context, it is related to particular research strategies (Blaikie, 2000).

Reliability and Validity

Reliability and validity are two key concepts by which the quality of research is assessed, in effect they assess how 'truthful' the research is (Gratton and Jones, 2004). Reliability states that the processes within the research, such as data collection methods, can be replicated with the same results (Yin, 2013). There are three main types of reliability; stability, inter-observer reliability and internal reliability. Stability, in simple terms refers to whether the measure is stable across time (test- retest). This ensures that there is confidence in the results, measurement and sample as the results do not fluctuate if tested and then retested (Bryman, 2012). Within this research, the relationship between the research participants and the context in which they were investigated is significant. This context is liable to adapt and vary over time due to staff and funding changes, meaning it was not a requirement of this research for participants to be tested then retested. Therefore, stability did not directly impact the reliability of the results.

Internal reliability relates to whether certain indicators selected by participants tend to relate to their scores on other indicators (Bryman, 2012). For the quantitative survey the internal reliability was tested using Cronbach's Alpha. This "essentially calculates the average of all possible split-half reliability coefficients" (Bryman, 2012, p.170). An Alpha coefficient value will vary between 1, which suggests internal reliability is perfect, to 0 which suggests no internal reliability. Within the literature, the value, 0.80 is typically highlighted to represent an acceptable internal reliability (Bryman, 2012).

Inter-observer reliability is the level to which two researchers would give similar or the same scores to the same social phenomena. As there is a highly subjective element of data translation into categories, a lack of consistency can occur

(Bryman, 2012). For the qualitative elements of the research, which are present in both study 1 and 2, reliability was insured by using inter-coder reliability. This is the degree to which the researcher and two other individuals agree about the coding of items (Bryman, 2012). There are three main threats to reliability (Gratton and Jones, 2004):

- 1) *Subject error*. The subject may respond differently depending on the time of day they are asked to supply data, which can lead to bias or error in responses. Within this research this threat to reliability was eradicated as the objective was not to test-retest reliability of participants, as highlighted above. The same sample selection and communication processes were followed for both phases of the research.
- 2) *Researcher error*. Two researchers may approach the same data collection in slightly different ways which could affect the results. The creation of the survey and interview script followed a consistent method through which the themes and specific questions were outlined. Additionally, an individual researcher collected and undertook all participant interviews across the four minority sports meaning the process was consistent across all data collected. The survey and interview scripts were both screened prior to distribution by six individuals involved within the community sports sector either practically or as an academic. Then from a participant recruitment perspective individuals were contacted via details available within the public domain or through the human resources department at each NGB. Thus, these steps helped to eliminate reliability error by the researcher.
- 3) *Subject Bias*. The participants may provide a response that they believe the researcher wants to receive that is more socially acceptable or 'correct'. To limit the impact of this factor, anonymity and confidentiality was stressed to all participants in both the survey and interviews. Also, the importance of participants providing their own accounts of the topic being investigated was emphasised, reinforcing that there is no right or wrong answer.

Validity is concerned with whether the measure really measures the concept or social phenomena under investigation (Bryman, 2012). Face validity was deemed a suitable measure for validity for both studies 1 and 2, as the script of questions for

both studies was derived from the same triangulated method (investigation of existing literature, exploratory focus groups and document analysis). The survey and interview script was reviewed by a total of six sports sector and academic professionals to test the content, ensuring clarity and understanding. This provided the ability to ensure the two research methods accurately addressed the topic under investigation.

Construct validity relates to whether the constructs used within the research to identify different elements of implementation are an accurate measure of implementation theory. This is relevant for studies 1 and 2, as both include constructs that link to implementation theory. Construct validity will be tested within the data analysis, through comparisons between the existing literature, the data itself and the researcher's interpretations, through a triangulation method, which is suggested to increase construct validity (Yin, 2013). Furthermore, Yin (2013) states that construct validity is obtained when a chain of events is established, i.e. clear links are shown between the theory, research questions, data collection and analysis and the conclusions that are drawn.

Researcher and the research-

It is critical to clarify the role of the researcher, to ensure an understanding of their influence and the level of involvement they did or did not have within the research. With the selected structuralist retroductive research strategy, the role of the researcher is similar to the deductive strategy. The objective is to establish the existence of real structures and mechanisms, using theory-dependent observation (Blaikie, 2000).

The topic area was chosen for a mixture of academic, social and personal reasons. Firstly, from an academic perspective, within the area of legacy, policy implementation and sport there is real need for a wider base of literature to develop to help address the current challenges being faced by the community sports sector. Furthermore, this research provided a greater understanding of how SMEs are being leveraged and the opinions of the stakeholders involved in this process, adding to the limited body of research surrounding empirical leveraging examples. This is supported by Chalip (2014, p.10) who state, "more work is needed...to explore event leverage in the context of event portfolios". Personally, sport and the specific topic area of grass-root level participation, mega-events, event leverage and its impact within the

community sport setting was one of individual curiosity and importance. Then socially, the research was undertaken to contribute to society, by providing findings and greater explanation to aid the improvement of the sports development sector.

It is worth noting that both elements of this research, study 1 and 2 involve NGBs and VSCs as research participants, hence it is important to understand the relationship between these organisations. NGBs are comprised of a range of individuals, from the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) and paid staff at the head office, through to volunteers and coaches who run the local community VSCs. All of these individuals form and determine to a certain degree the action and direction of the organisation. CR accepts the connection between the researcher and the participants within the social phenomena under investigation. Yet, as the researcher is not directly involved with these organisations and is entering externally from a university setting. It was important to consider the impact this could have on the researchers understanding and analysis, as well as the participant's responses. Nevertheless, within critical realism the objective is to explain (by identifying casual mechanisms) how they work and under what circumstances, underpinned by the belief that there is an external reality "separate to our descriptions of it" (Bryman, 2012, p.29). Hence, the researcher's objective was to be impartial and conduct a study that would shed light on the attitudes of specific individuals and the participation mechanisms that were leveraged and implemented within NGBs. This contrasts to interpretivism, where the "researchers are inextricably part of the social reality being researched" (Grix, 2004, p.83).

3.8 Research Methods

This section outlines the specific research methods that were used across the different elements of the investigation and highlights the specific processes or techniques used to collect and analyse the data (Blaikie, 2000). Four main data collection methods were used: firstly, focus groups (for exploratory, developmental purposes), along with semi-structured interviews, an online survey and document analysis. The research is made up of two main studies which are both concentrated around a case study framework. A mixed methods approach has been utilised with interviews being the primary form of data collection in study 1 and an online survey being used in study 2. The secondary data in the form of the document analysis was

critical to highlight the ‘material’ layer of CR, which is the observable, tangible evidence (i.e. the legacy strategy, specific programmes outlined in NGB documentation and funding types). The following section firstly presents the rationale for the choice of a case study design. It then outlines how the main framework was created for the two studies, in the format of the interview script for Study 1 and the online survey template for Study 2. These frameworks were developed through the same process, with concentration specifically directed towards certain elements relevant to each study. Finally, this section provides specific details about Study 1 and 2.

Selection of case study method

Case study research is preferred in situations where the phenomenon under investigation is contemporary in nature. The research questions are focused predominately around ‘how’ and ‘why’ and the researcher has limited control over the behavioural events (Yin, 2013). This approach allows the researcher to explore the selected phenomenon through a variety of methods and data sources such as interviews, questionnaires, direct observations, document analysis and focus groups (Baxter and Jack, 2008).

Yin (2013, p.2) states that “a case study investigates contemporary phenomenon (the “case”) in its real-world context, especially when the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not clearly evident”. Case studies can be used for three main types of research, exploratory, descriptive and explanatory, as well as to bring about change and produce theory (Blaikie, 2000). As a method, it is applicable to different epistemological orientations. However, Yin (2013) reinforces the usefulness of case study research in complimenting the realist perspective and the acknowledgment of multiple levels of reality. The researcher must recognise the importance of the theoretical propositions and the research questions, as they determine the nature of the approach and the data collection methods. In the context of the current research, both studies followed a case study framework; study 1 was explanatory and formed part of an embedded multi-case design, with the objective to expand on and gain a greater understanding of existing implementation theory. Study 2 was exploratory in nature and builds on the findings from study 1 within a broader context of the English sports network. This links to the retroductive approach being

utilised and suits the objectives of this research, as case studies provide analytical rather than statistical generalisations (Yin, 2013).

Two main criticisms of case study design are mentioned within the academic literature. Firstly, the most prolific concern is the risk of poor and possibly biased research. This links to a prejudice between the validity of qualitative methods over quantitative methods. Nevertheless, Blaikie (2000) highlights that part of this prejudice links to the fact this qualitative data unlike quantitative, is hard to replicate due to the interpretative role that the research plays in the research process. The second concern is the generalisability of the results, and the possibility of being able to generalise your results from one specific case. Blaikie (2000) notes that the same could be said about a single experiment or study focusing on a single population. CR is well suited to case study research, as it justifies the study of any situation, regardless of the number of research units, but only if the process involves in-depth, well thought out research which has the objective of understanding why things are as they are (Easton, 2010). Case study research can be split in four major types: single or multiple and holistic or embedded case designs and they all have their own strengths and weaknesses.

This research was investigating four minority sports (four cases), therefore a multi-case design was the most appropriate. One of the main arguments for this method relates to theory building and testing (Bryman, 2012). Comparing two or more cases allows the researcher to look at the different situations to see whether the theory is or is not applicable, linking to retroductive research. Furthermore, Bryman (2012) states the comparisons between cases highlight further concepts relevant to the emerging theory, and multi case design is a significant method for researchers with a critical realist standpoint.

Limitations of the multi-case design must be considered. Due to the intensive nature of the design, the amount of resources and time required for a multi-case sometimes goes beyond the resources available for a single researcher (Yin, 2013). Moreover, due to the approach, it is sometimes a concern that the researcher will place too much focus on ways to compare the cases, rather than the context (Bryman, 2012). Yet, due to the length of time the researcher had to undertake the investigation, as well as the clear focus and concentration of the overall objective to investigate legacy

production and the implementation process, within the context of minority NGBs, these concerns were somewhat negated. Finally, to overcome the concern regarding the single case, a replication design was used to ensure a clear understanding of NGB leveraging processes could develop.

Within multi-cases, the importance of replication is similar to that used in experiments, when a significant and unique finding is discovered through one experiment and must be replicated in another experiment to validate the result (Yin, 2013). There are two main types of replication: literal and theoretical replication (Yin, 2013). Literal replication was used for this study, since the four sports under investigation share similar characteristics, which will be highlighted in detail in a later section.

For this research, the aim was to look at policy implementation and legacy production within different NGBs. Each NGB was the topic of a case study, with four cases, meaning three were replicating the direct results (literal replication). An embedded study allowed each NGB to be investigated separately, within each case there are sub-units of analysis. Document analysis of leveraging processes (WSPs) were used, alongside specific information about the individual interviewee (needed for social layer of critical realism). This allowed an understanding to develop, into the successes and failures of legacy creation and implementation within each NGB.

Instrumentation- framework creation

After outlining the main approaches and strategy for this research, this section highlights the development of the framework for studies 1 and 2, which was created through two main methods. Firstly, existing literature was analysed to identify relevant themes, the main elements of Van Meter and Van Horn (1975) policy implementation process was utilised. Then exploratory focus groups were undertaken with individuals involved in the community sports sector (3 NGBs and 1 County Sport Partnership [CSP]). This process was necessary due to the limited existing literature investigating the attitudes of NGB managers towards hosting a SME. Additionally, there is limited research into the implementation process within NGBs and VSCs.

Existing literature within the field of SMEs, community sport, leveraging and policy implementation were investigated (Byers, 2013; Chalip, 2006, 2014; Frawley and Cush, 2011; Harris and Houlihan, 2014; May, Harris and Collins, 2012; Skille,

2008; Taks et al., 2014; Veal, Toohey and Frawley, 2012). There was a lack of existing research that investigated the networks involved in community sport implementation and delivery, specifically within the context of leveraging and SMEs. Nevertheless, key themes were identified relating to the importance of investigating strategy creation and the interrelation and impact that the VSC have on the delivery process. This intertwined with the identification and use of Van Meter and Van Horn's (1975) implementation model adapted by Kjellberg and Reitan (1995, p.143) and provided six themes: "resources", "policy objectives and standards", "characteristics of implementing agencies", "organisational communication", "economic, political and social/cultural conditions" and finally the "disposition of implementing agents" which interconnect to influence the "outcome". Thus, these themes allowed question creation to occur based around these categories.

Doherty, Misener, and Cuskelly (2013) undertook research focused on capacity, rather than the specific workings and dynamics of grass-root participation programmes, as if sports organisations don't have the necessary capacity, the programmes themselves would not be delivered. This highlights the strong association between the past research that has been examined and the current research. Secondly, to ensure the strength and relevance of the identified themes, exploratory focus groups were undertaken with three NGBs and one CSP. This mixture of organisations was utilised in this initial stage, as both are delivery agents within grass-root sport and this allowed a holistic picture to develop in this first phase. 21 participants in total were involved in the four focus groups, which included a variety of employees including: membership officers and managers, regional development officers, programme leads, research and insight team and managers. By including a plethora of individuals, it was possible to gain an insight into the dynamics and processes occurring both internally and externally, within the sports development sector. This allowed an initial understanding of the organisations' attitudes towards hosting London 2012 Games to be obtained.

Furthermore, the complexities involved with the specific participation mechanisms that were planned, implemented and evaluated were discussed. Open and Axial coding was undertaken using Corbin and Strauss's (1990) approach. Data analysis regarding studies 1 and 2 will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter. This coding led to the emergence and acceptance of key themes already identified within the literature, i.e. Van Meter and Van Horn's (1975) model, with themes such

as communication between the NGB and VSCs, resources and the characteristics of the club volunteers. Yet, additional themes were identified across the focus groups, including the competitive nature of the sports system, which has led to a lack of collaboration between sports, which highlighted the importance of including questions related to knowledge transfer. Relating to Van Meter and Van Horn's (1975) 'economic, political and social/cultural conditions' variable, the focus group shed light on this within the English context, the importance of Sport England and the method of performance evaluation through the APS. Consequently, this reinforced the need to investigate the dominance of these factors within studies 1 and 2, to gain the opinions of both NGB senior managers, as well as, VSC coaches and volunteers.

Furthermore, during the initial focus groups and through informal discussions with individuals within the field, it was highlighted that some individuals had heard of examples of corruption. This took the form of individuals falsifying attendance or participation figures for certain programmes when writing funding applications. It would be interesting to research whether this is a common negative side-effect of the highly competitive environment surrounding grass-root sports funding, or whether it was provoked by the extra funding attached to London 2012 Games and its legacy. This factor was investigated within study 1, since the interview context helped to facilitate a stronger rapport with the participant. This was particularly important for a sensitive topic like potential corruption. This was the most suitable environment to enquire about this phenomenon, as if these practices were occurring, the rich dialogue may aid their discovery.

In addition to the themes highlighted above, supplementary demographic questions were asked to participants in both studies 1 and 2 to gain an insight in participant's personal characteristics, motives and beliefs for the 'social' layer of reality within CR. This was necessary, as individual characteristics play a significant role in participant's perceptions towards SMEs and leveraging and their motivations in general. The formulation of these three methods led to the creation of the interview and online survey script, which were reviewed by six sports sector and academic professionals, allowing existing content to be adapted or removed and additional content to be added based on their opinions and experiences. This ensured any issues with clarity and content were identified and modified prior to data collection. Study 1 was undertaken prior to study 2 therefore, further adaptations and additions could be

made to the online survey template, based on the findings from the interviewees undertaken in study 1.

3.9 Study 1 Data Collection

Study 1 used interviews as the primary method of data collection within four NGB case studies. Interviews are one of the most important sources of case study evidence and this mode of data collection involves verbal information from a participant and is driven by the researcher (Yin, 2013). Grix (2010) reinforces the importance of using interviews as part of a triangulated method, rather than the sole research method. This allowed the investigation of the social phenomena through different methods, which provided a more objective approach.

The study aimed to give a deeper insight into non-traditional sports and the processes surrounding policy implementation. This study is formed of an embedded, multi-case design, which comprised of interviews with individuals involved with four minority sports, to gain an insight and to evaluate the impact of London 2012 Games and the mechanisms that the interviewees created and implemented to make the most of the legacy objective. CR is well suited to case study research that examines complex issues such as organisations or inter-organisational relationships; as “it justifies the study of any situation, regardless of the number of research units... with the objective of understanding why things are as they are” (Easton, 2010, p.119).

The interview participants included both NGB staff (policy creators), as well as the clubs and coaches themselves (policy delivers) to investigate the implementation process from its conception to its delivery. NGBs are ‘network’ organisations and they operate via a network of regional structures and VSCs. When investigating their performance, it is essential to examine the role and management of other organisations in the network, as well as the headquarters themselves (Bayle and Robinson, 2007). As such, this underlined the importance of examining the process of implementation from the national level (NGB staff) through to the individual VSC perspective, to ensure a comprehensive understanding of the diverse network was achieved.

Interview Process

Interviews enable participants to talk about their experiences and provide their own account of the social phenomena under investigation. This allows rich data and often unexpected data to emerge, especially in unstructured or semi-structured interviews (Gratton and Jones, 2004). Face to face interviews allow analysis of participant's body language, tone of voice and facial expressions, which can provide critical information about the participant's beliefs or approach (Gratton and Jones, 2004). The major benefit, is the opportunity for the researcher to build up trust and establish a rapport, encouraging the discovery of the richest data possible (Gratton and Jones, 2004).

There are four main types of interviews, a) unstructured, b) semi-structured, c) structured and d) group interviews or focus groups, as they are also known. Semi-structured interviews involve the researcher having a set number of questions relating to the research area, although they are not in a predetermined order. Additional probing during the interviews, allowed expansion using subsidiary questions, ensuring flexibility when required (Gratton and Jones, 2004). This was the selected method for the current research, as the results could still be compared with the views of other respondents and statistics can be used (Grix, 2010).

Group interviews, sometimes referred to as focus groups, can be structured, semi structured or unstructured in nature. In this context, it is the role of researcher to act as a facilitator to stimulate discussions, rather than acting as an interviewer (Gratton and Jones, 2004). This method was used during the initial exploratory stage, prior to study 1 and 2, and they aided the development of the interview script and survey template. The script was created through a triangulated method, with the focus group data being used in conjunction with existing literature and document analysis.

Furthermore, group interviews were used on a few occasions during study 1, when enough information was not known by one VSC coach individually. For example, one VSC coach that was contacted by the researcher had only been volunteering at the club post London 2012 and was unable to provide information on programmes, advertising and participation changes during the pre-London 2012 period. Consequently, another coach that was volunteering pre-London 2012 also participated in the interview to provide a more holistic perspective of the clubs' development. Due to the similar characteristics of the two participants and their

affiliation to the same club, the focus group provided an advantageous solution. More detail on the specific sports and clubs that were used within this research are highlighted in the next section and the data analysis for the interview data is described in the next chapter.

Overcoming the disadvantages of interviews

Grix (2010) highlights that one of the main problems with interviews is the access to participants, especially if you are trying to use hard to reach or senior individuals. To limit the possible issues with access, contact was made via email first, with the key individuals within the NGBs and VSCs to see if they would be willing to participate in the research. This initial contact ensured a relationship was already established between the researcher and the participants. The resources required for interviews are more intensive than questionnaires, with extra pressures on time, travelling and the financial elements which form a consequence of the interview process. This study was conscious of these issues and they were accounted for when possible.

Skype interviews were used as an alternative method when face-to-face interviews were not practicable. Hanna (2012) argued that Skype is the most feasible alternative to traditional face-to-face interviews, because the software provides a simultaneous interaction between the participant and researcher. In addition, due to the live video feed, this reduces the suggested limitations around physical interaction and the researcher's ability to build a rapport and trust with the participant (Evans, Elford and Wiggins, 2008). Further, benefits worth noting are the "low costs, ease of access and minimization of ecological dilemmas... In addition, both the researcher and the researched can remain in a 'safe location' without imposing on each other's personal space" (Hanna, 2012, p.241)

Additionally, Grix (2010) reinforces the importance of listening and analysing the interview data, as soon as possible after the data collection itself. Otherwise there may be issues with interpretation later. This ensures that the clearest possible idea can be drawn from the data and any issues or clarifications that are needed can be addressed. Thus, for this study the recording, with any field notes were transcribed within one week of each data collection period, so participants could be emailed if any clarifications were needed. An important consideration is the equipment used and making sure it is suitable and the researcher familiarised themselves, as one does not

want to waste time working out how the equipment works or having a recording error (Grix, 2010). This issue was overcome, through two recording devices being used for every interview to limit the chances of any errors in recording or quality issues. Furthermore, a pilot interview was undertaken prior to data collection to ensure the researcher was comfortable with the equipment and the quality of the recording could be checked.

3.10 Case Study- Sport Selection Criteria

It is important to examine the policy (participation legacy in this case) beyond the formulation or policy making stage, as acceptance or resistance to policy is best investigated by firstly “recognising that policy is not a fixed entity, separate from the implementation process, it evolves beyond the formal phase of formulation through a process of contestation” (Kay, 1996, p.233). Hence, this legacy objective was explored from both the NGB and club perspective. The purpose of examining the mechanisms and operationalization of participation legacy production relates to the current limited research into leveraging, as “more work is needed...to explore event leverage in the context of event portfolios” (Chalip, 2014, p.10). It is necessary to examine the different stakeholders that are involved in legacy production, such as NGBs and clubs and CR allows the examination of different organisations and their interactions related to legacy creation. Furthermore, Sport England’s legacy objective of increasing participation placed NGBs “at the heart of the strategy, as it is their network of community clubs and other assets that will drive delivery” of the legacy (2008, p.10). Yet, investigating the concept of legacy production and implementation through a Critical Realist analysis is a new approach to examining and understanding legacy and the factors that can determine or constrain its creation.

To select the non-popular English sports for investigation, the APS data was used as a guide to help segment the sports and remove sports with the highest participation rates. The reason for selecting non-popular sports is due to the unique opportunity that this SMEs provided these sports in terms of funding, media, publicity and public awareness, within the UK context. That is, they provide an interesting and unique opportunity to investigate the impact this event may or may not have had. A study by Veal, Toohey and Frawley (2012) rationalises and explains the importance

of using the APS as a data source to gain a detailed picture of non-organised sport. Veal, Toohey and Frawley (2012) state that:

“For activities where non-registered participation is significant (e.g. swimming, tennis) change would typically need to be assessed by means of sample surveys of the population before and after the event” (p.165).

Carmichael, Grix and Marqués (2013) reinforce the importance of using this survey, yet the survey was considered through an objective lens, due to the critical overview of the survey that was highlighted previously. The participation figures from the APS were not used as the sole method for sport selection, as some non-popular sports are not large enough to register on the APS data collection, due to an insufficient sample size. However, they are still funded by SE and form part of the catalogue of sports that may have been positively or negatively impacted by London 2012.

The initial criteria included:

- Time Period: October 2012-October 2014 (APS 7 to APS 8)
- Geographical location: England
- Sports: Olympic only
- Demographics: 14+ (added from APS 6- Q2)
- Measure: Participation once per week (1 x 30mins)
- Funding: Sport England funded sports, which required a WSP document
- Type of sport: two team and two individual sports
- Preference: two sports for each funding/participation increase and decrease
- Preference: highest club participation figures

APS data could only be compared from the APS6 (Quarter 2) onwards due to differences in methodology prior to this date (Public Health England, 2015). Thus, sports were selected based on their APS participation values across APS 7 and APS 8. Any sports that were not part of London 2012 were removed² due to the issues identified in the exploratory focus groups. Results highlighted that sports not involved

² Golf, Exercise, movement and dance, Bowls, Netball, Rugby Union, Squash and Racketball, Cricket, Angling, Mountaineering, Rugby League, Rounders, Baseball and softball, Lacrosse, Orienteering and Water skiing.

in the Olympics felt a lack of engagement with London 2012. Considering the rich, in-depth data that was needed from the research participants of each sport and the time commitments that participants would need to give for interviews, non-Olympic sports were removed from the research criteria. Additionally, the objective was to provide relevant and useful research findings for future mega-event hosts surrounding the community sports system, thus focusing on Olympic sports aligns with this intention for future study.

Furthermore, Paralympic³ and Winter Olympic sports⁴ were also removed from the second study due to the complex nature of the embedded, multi-case design, which investigated multiple elements of implementation, across the four cases (non-popular English sports). Therefore, multiple comparisons were already being made using this case study design across the different variables, which Yin (2013) suggests has shortcomings; focus can be drawn to the sub-unit level and fail to return to the larger unit of analysis. This is because the data focuses on individual employees within the NGB meaning it becomes an employee study, rather than being a study about the NGB and the leveraging and implementation processes. The aim of the research was to compare the multiple subunits of implementation regarding the London 2012 legacy programmes aiming to increase grass-root participation, within four (two team and two individual) minority English Olympic sports.

Additionally, only the 46 SE funded sports were included within the criteria, as this research focused on NGBs, which were highlighted by SE as the main implementing agent to leverage the policy objective of increasing grass-root participation. The objective was to try and ensure a mix of sports that displayed an increase and decrease in participation, which in turn was echoed by the SE funding. This is due to the 'contractual' agreement that each NGB committed to, meaning that funding can be reduced if an NGB consistently fails to deliver on the specific funding linked targets (Sport England, 2012). Consequently, the perceptions of the organisations' effectiveness and attitude towards this funding stream could be affected. Therefore, the choice to include a mixture of both positive and negative participation results was supported by Veselý (2011) who undertook research surrounding Best Practice Research (BPR) and suggested that 'research should not be

³ Wheelchair Basketball, Boccia, Goalball and Wheelchair Rugby.

⁴ Snowsport

limited to positive examples and we should also analyse “unsuccessful” cases where the implementation of a policy or programme failed’ (p.115).

This initial criterion resulted in 26 sports out of the 46 Sport England funded sports being identified, for which the average participation between ASP7 and APS 8 was calculated. For sports that were identified within the APS data, ‘*’ indicates that the sport had an insufficient sample for once a week participation. However, it was important to include these sports, as the focus on non-popular sports meant that some may not statistically reach the needed sample size, but they still needed to be included. Due to the focus on non-popular sports within England, the 50% of least participated in sports were selected, leaving 13 sports (Table 4).

The 13 sports (NGBs) which indicated the lowest participation rates were contacted to request contribution to the research. The objective was to have two team and two individual sports. All 13 sports (NGBs) were contacted as they are non-popular sports; it is possible they have a smaller sized NGB structure, meaning that staff resources, time and accessibility to data inhibited the selection of some NGBs. Initial priority for participation within the research from the remaining 13 sports was decided through the percentage of participation that occurred in the club environment (Sport England, 2014a). Central to this research was the investigation of the leveraging strategies and their implementation, within the VSC setting. Thus, if participation is not occurring within the club environment it could have impacted the identification and examination of the traditional implementation process. Probing questions allowed the researcher to identify other strategies and environments that coaches used when aiming to increase grass-root participation. To highlight the significance of investigating club participation levels, only 30.1% of swimmers are club members, compared to Judo, which has 59% club membership (Sport England, 2015).

Table 4- NGB selection criteria- 13 sports selected through initial selection process

No.	Sport	Average participation APS7-APS8	Funding increase or decrease (funding cycles: 2009-13 to 2013-17)	Average organised sport participation (club based)
1	Gymnastics	78,300	Increase	22.4% (APS 2,3,4,5 and 6)
2	Sailing	65,450	Decreased	34.3% (APS 2,3,4,5, 6,7 and 8)
3	Canoeing	54,400	Increase	17.6% (APS 2,3,4,5, 6,7 and 8)
4	Shooting	62,200	Increase	25.7% (APS 2,3,4,5, 6,7 and 8)
5	Volleyball	40,100	Decrease	17.31% (APS 2,3 and 4)
6	Archery	37,150	Increase	42.7% (APS 2,3,4,5, 6,7 and 8)
7	Taekwondo	29,650	Increase (no participation specific funding)	50.5% (APS 2,3,4 and 5)
8	Judo	23,150	Decrease	59% (APS 2,3 and 4)
9	Fencing	15,850	Increase (with ring fenced funding)	50.2% (APS 2,3 and 4)
10	Handball	*	Increase	*
11	Modern Pentathlon	*	No change	*
12	Triathlon	*	Increase	*
13	Wrestling	*	Increase	*

All 13 sports were contacted but the sports with the highest percentage of club participation were preferable. Firstly, contact was made with the NGB head office to secure participation of at least one member of NGB head office staff within the participation or development department. Once confirmed, VSCs were contacted within each of those sports to enquire about participation. Appendix 4 outlines the sample of voluntary clubs that were contacted within the four sports, from which the research sample was drawn. Many of the non-popular sports (from the 13 identified samples) were unable or unwilling to participate in the research due to time constraints, lack of resources, upcoming funding decisions or changes in staff. The four sports selected for the multi-case design were:

- 1) Judo (British Judo Association [BJA])
- 2) Fencing (British Fencing)
- 3) Volleyball (England Volleyball)
- 4) Handball (England Handball)

The focus was on four minority English sports, two team and two individual sports. All sports can be played by all ages and both genders. The importance of investigating non-popular sports, is due to the unique opportunity that a home Olympic and Paralympic Games provided these sports. As hosts, Team GB were granted automatic host-nation qualification status for all the events on the Olympic programme (British Olympic Association, 2006). Prior to London 2012, Team GB had not qualified in two of these sports, in at least the last four Olympic Games. This played a key role in the selection of these sports to investigate the added benefit that having automatic qualification and in turn the promotion for sports that would not originally have existed. Furthermore, as these four sports were in receipt of the Sport England WSP funding, they thus formed part of the legacy objective to use the 46 funded NGBs and their network of clubs to achieve the Olympic objective.

The four sports meet the criteria of two team and two individual sports, as well as a mix of WSP funding changes. Yet, even though club participation levels were not as high as some of the other sports, the level of club participation is still significantly higher than many traditional funded sports. Additionally, this selection was somewhat out of the researcher's control, due to extraneous variables within the individual NGBs

themselves. Many were unable to participate due to many issues such as limited resources both in terms of time and available staff, as well as, staff turnover which has resulted in limited knowledge of the pre-Olympic and Paralympic period. An outline of the main questions asked during the interview is shown in (Appendix 3), which provided a guide for the researcher. Yet, due to the semi-structured nature of the interview approach, additional expansion to areas of interest was used when needed.

Sampling

The clubs were sampled from the NGB club finder website, which outlined all the affiliated clubs nationally. The clubs were selected randomly to ensure a diverse sample was achieved across six regions within England (South West, South East, North East, North West, Central and London). Availability and resources were a major consideration when collection was made for the interviews, as it had to be practical and realistic for both the researcher and the club coaches and volunteers themselves. Appendix 4 highlights the distribution of interviews across sports and their geographical location.

Data Collection and Analysis

The primary data collection method for this research consisted of 32 face to face interviews, across the four minority sports. Seven interviews were undertaken with NGB head office staff, either in a regional or senior management position. The other 25 interviewees were all VSC coaches, with four additionally being involved part time with their associated NGB, as a regional officer. Interviews typically lasted between 45 minutes to 1 hour and were semi-structured in nature to allow the emergence of new themes, during the process itself. Geographically, the 25 clubs were selected randomly nationwide across regions; from each NGBs website club directory, this ensured a good spread of clubs nationally (South West, n=4, South East, n=8, London, n=4, Central, n=3, North East, n=4 and North West n=2). Noted resource limitations relating to travel, finances and coaches' time meant flexibility was also needed during club selection. Reflecting on the employment and positions held by the coaches these varied. 11 participants held a non-sport related full time job and the

other 14 individuals worked as a full-time coach or within the sports development sector, within a local authority for example. The demographic spread of ages ranged from 21 to 67 years of age and interviewees were predominantly male (n=25), with a limited number of females (n=7). The data was collected after the 2012 Games from January 2014 through to December 2015. Documents used in this research included primary data sources (interviews transcripts and investigation notes), as well as secondary data (WSP documentation, the NGB website, annual reports and newsletters), and finally any additional sources, as obtained (emails).

Data analysis was undertaken using NVivo, a qualitative data analysis software. By using this software, it was possible to code emergent and predetermined themes through a strategic, methodical approach (Basit, 2003). These 'predetermined' themes were identified through analysis of the literature and policy implementation, such as 'communication' and these were then coded within the data set.

Additional 'emergent' themes were discovered throughout the data analysis process and using Nvivo it was easy to code and re-visit specific themes as they arose. Nvivo, does not replace the need for the intellectual analysis, the process of deliberating, generating and rejecting codes, yet the computer software facilitated the analyses and allowed a more in-depth analysis to occur and valuable reports to be generated (Basit, 2003).

Furthermore, this software allowed the interview data to be coded and interpreted through the four layers of reality, as defined by the CR framework. This allowed the identification and emergence of key themes in the data analysis phase. By categorising the interviewee's responses in the four layers of CR, it allowed the multifaceted nature of legacy to be dissected. As Table 5 illustrates the multiple layers of CR, allow a deeper analysis of legacy creation to emerge. CR acts as a tool to understanding the determinants of legacy and hypothesises how legacy (any type or form) is produced.

Table 5- A Critical Realist (CR) perspective of Legacy and Factors affecting Legacy (adapted from Tsoukas, 1994) (Byers, Hayday and Pappous, under review).

Level of reality	Legacy	Factors affecting Legacy
Material (superficial)	Observable, tangible evidence of positive or negative impacts beyond 2 years	Legacy strategy, organisations created to facilitate legacy, programmes and funding for legacy, media coverage of legacy action)
Ideal (interpretive perspective)	Individual stakeholder interpretations of whether legacy exists, what legacies they perceive to exist and how to produce legacy	Understanding how their views have developed or changed over time, why (i.e., stakeholders include sport clubs, community organisations, sponsors, government,)
Artefactual	The interpretation of those individuals above as to whether the legacies are legitimate or oppressive to them.	Asking subjects if they feel disadvantaged or empowered, how they see SMEs (positive or negative) why. (i.e., ‘I don’t trust government and business organising these events’)
Social	The underlying mechanisms (e.g. cultural context, ideologies, class, race, etc.) that exist alongside similarities and differences across levels of reality and stakeholders, that give rise to the existence or absence of ‘legacy’.	Contextual questions relating to individuals, education, experience, cultural values and key demographics such as age, class, etc. why and what factors influence their perception.

3.11 Study 2- Data Collection

CEOs and the senior management team were the main target group used for this research, due to Sport England's intention to achieve the London 2012 sports participation legacy, using NGBs and their subsequent network of VSCs. Both NGBs and VSCs were core to the strategy and were fundamental in the delivery of this legacy objective (Sport England, 2008). Therefore, investigating the perceptions and attitudes of these senior individuals towards the London 2012 Games was critical to begin to understand the role and character of NGBs in assisting SE with this leveraging objective. Minimal research has considered the processes, relating to mega-event leveraging through VSCs, and whether the strategies are achieved or not, as to date there has been a principal focus on the outcomes (Frawley, Toohey and Veal, 2013).

Taks, Green, Misener and Chalip (2014) investigated the sports development outcomes of the Pan-American Junior Athletics Championships highlighted that "future research should focus on the underlying processes, rather than just the impacts and outcomes" (p.213). To date, organisational inputs, such as the "managers of NGBs...view on hosting international sporting events" has been overlooked (Frawley, Toohey and Veal, 2013, p.106). Yet, the beliefs and actions of these influential individuals, play a role in policy implementation. This reinforces the significance of this study into the London 2012 Games and the attitudes of the NGB senior management team, who are fundamental actors in the formation phase of sports policy (See Figure 1- The English Community Sport Delivery System, Harris, 2013).

Protocol

Surveys form two broad categories, either a structured interview or a self-completion questionnaire (Bryman, 2012). Surveys are most effective when combined with another method, supporting the use of interviews in study 1, and for study 2, a self-completion, online questionnaire formed part of this case study design. Study 2 was an exploratory online survey, created through Bristol Online Survey (BOS) and included a mixture of quantitative and qualitative questions (Appendix 7). It was distributed to CEOs, senior and regional managers of the 46, SE funded NGBs to gain a deeper understanding of their opinions surrounding SMEs and the participation programmes implemented. This allowed a holistic view to develop across all sports, building on the narrower investigation into non-popular sports in study 1. Through the

exploratory focus groups that were conducted by the researcher, time restraints were highlighted as a major limitation for NGB head office staff, meaning that distributing the online survey via email, was the most suitable method for this participant group.

A personalised email was sent to each individual identified as a possible survey respondent. All the contact details were accessible within the public domain, via the NGB websites to initiate primary contact. A Participant Information Sheet (PIS) (Appendix 6) was attached to each email, ensuring that participants were fully aware of the study and its objectives before consenting to participate. Key considerations for participants were re-highlighted within the first few pages of the online survey, before informed consent was requested (Appendix 7). Quantitative responses were analysed using descriptive statistics and qualitative results were analysed using Open and Axial coding (Corbin and Strauss, 1990; Bryman, 2008). Each of the 28 variables or 'Likert items' in the survey were measured on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. These questions were created, as minimal research has investigated the perceptions of NGBs managers towards hosting SMEs within the literature (Frawley, Toohey and Veal, 2013).

Piloting

Piloting is vital development stage for any questionnaire or survey, since many factors can be checked and corrected. For example, questionnaire wording, sequence of questions, time to complete, administration issues and practicing data collection (Gratton and Jones, 2004). The finalised online survey was tested by four individuals, comprising of sports management academics and sports development professionals. The pilot was carried out on BOS, through the same system that the participants in the main study used. This ensured that the pilot was undertaken in conditions, as close to the mains study, as possible (Gratton and Jones, 2004). This piloting phase was particularly important as it allowed any issues with clarity and content to be identified and corrected prior to data collection.

Sampling

With regards to sampling originally only CEOs and senior managers were going to form the participant group. However, initial findings highlighted the importance and detailed knowledge held by the regional managers who work in a much closer capacity with the VSCs. Thus, the decision was taken to include these individuals within the data set. Collection across these two groups was undertaken in phases (Phase 1 and 2). Within Appendix 8, the grey sections highlighted the NGBs (5 in total) that refused participation, which was due to numerous difficulties, such as limited resources, existing research contracts, employment and staff changes and concerns of staff burn-out within regards to survey completion. This resulted in 41 sports remaining, the green sections highlight the four sports that did not participate, meaning overall responses were received from 37 sports, resulting in an 83% overall response rate. The focus was to gain an insight into the opinions and attitudes of the senior and regional managers involved within the 46 funded NGBs, this resulted in 402 possible respondents. Therefore, the response rate of 26% (105 participants) was deemed acceptable for the empirical analysis.

Advantages of surveys

The questionnaire was sent in the format of an online web survey, through BOS. This method was critical to ensure the feasibility of the study to ensure the highest possible response rate from the selected demographic. Wright (2005) highlights there are three main advantages of this method, firstly, online methods provide access to individuals across differing geographical locations. Online surveys reduce time constraints for both the researcher and the participants, as they can be completed at any location or time. Finally, online web surveys can reduce monetary outlay, by removing costs such as printing, travel and postage (Wright, 2005). Grix (2010) states that one of the main limitations of questionnaires is the fact that the researcher is not at hand to explain any misunderstandings. To negate this, the piloting phase was undertaken by four sports management academics and sports development professionals, which ensured the survey was clear and easy to understand. The advantage of this lack of contact, ensured there was no researcher-induced effect on the answers (Grix, 2010).

Importantly, questionnaires provide highly structured, quantitative data, as this survey utilised a Likert scale asking participant's level of agreement or

disagreement with specific statements. Due to the structured nature the data, it is easily comparable and straightforward to convert to graphs or tables (Gratton and Jones, 2004). Supplementary qualitative data, allowed the researcher to gain an understanding of individual's opinions relating to important themes or previous quantitative statements. This combined approach was needed to successfully answer the different components of the research question. A further advantage of using a web survey is the range of possibilities and embellishments that can be used to improve the appearance of the questionnaire, as well as, the filtering system e.g. if a participant answered no to question four, move to question six (Bryman, 2012).

Disadvantages of surveys

Two main limitations with e-mail surveys are the representativeness of the sample and the response rate; as individuals with certain socio-economic characteristics are more likely to reply and this method is limited to email users (Yun and Trumbo, 2000). However, as the selected sample for this research was CEOs, senior and regional management individuals within NGBs, all contact details are accessible through the public domain, this reduced the limitation, in which you have no control over who completes the survey. Additionally, as a specified participant group was used, responses provide a representative sample, due to their relatability to the research questions (Gratton and Jones, 2004). For online surveys, a typical response rate is around 25-30%, to reach this objective three follow up, reminder emails were sent to the participants, which is known to improve response rates (Yun and Trumbo, 2000). The reminder emails were sent over a six-week period, with the first reminder being sent after two weeks the original email and the following two reminders sent systematically, after each additional two-week period.

This was then followed by the traditional paper version, which was sent to all non-respondents, with a pre-paid return envelope to maximise return rates. This method is known as mixed mode and multiple contacts (Yun and Trumbo, 2000). When investigating the type of questions, the current questionnaire contained both open and closed questions. One of the main limitations of questionnaires relates to the depth and detail of understanding that can be gained from the responses. The open-ended questions allowed detail responses to be collected, providing explanations and

reasons for specific attitudes and behaviours, alongside the more traditional structured quantitative responses. Previous research emphasised that questionnaires distributed through email, resulted in more self-disclosing statements and longer responses to open-ended questions, compared to traditional mail questionnaires, reinforcing the choice to use the online distribution method first (Bachmann, Elfrink and Vazzana, 1996; Schaefer and Dillman, 1998). The data analysis techniques used to analyse the survey data will be described and outlined in the next chapter.

3.12 Ethical Considerations

When carrying out any research into social phenomena, it is inevitable that one is going to come across some ethical issues and every research project needs to ensure it is ethically and morally acceptable. Most social research will involve an intervention into the social phenomena under investigation, however big or small (Blaikie, 2000). Ethical considerations can occur and are important throughout the whole research process. From the development of the research strategy, participant recruitment, data collection and analysis through to the presentation or publishing of results.

The major ethical issue for most research within the social domain is the treatment of human participants. Procedures are needed to ensure they have sufficient, clear information about the nature of the project. Deception is an important ethical concern within the research project and is rarely justified. It can be detrimental and harmful for research subjects, both in the short and long term (Gratton and Jones, 2004). All research participants were fully aware of the aims and objectives of the research and the types of questions that they were going to be asked. This was outlined to all research participants, via the PIS for both study 1 (Appendix 1) and 2 (Appendix 6), prior to their decision to participate. Furthermore, human participants needed to be made aware of other factors, such as how the research may affect them, what was expected of them as a research participant, and how anonymity was ensured.

Additional considerations were also discussed, such as the right to withdraw at any time during the process and assurances that their information or data will be treated in confidence (Blaikie, 2000). It was clearly stated and emphasised to all participants across both studies, that participation was voluntary and they were free to withdraw from the research at any time. These elements were highlighted to

participants within the consent form (Appendix 1), through which informed consent was required. Participants were informed and reminded that they did not have to answer any questions that they felt uncomfortable answering and no incentives or enticement was given to the participants at any stage.

To ensure anonymity each participant was provided with a pseudonym for the purposes of data storage, analysis and publication. Demographic information that was collected included individuals' email addresses, gender, age and duration in post. This information was only accessible by the head researcher and was primarily used for identification methods. This information allowed reminder emails to be sent when necessary, as well as, to segment the data during data analysis. Electronic and hard copies of the survey results and the interview transcripts will be kept for five years and then will be destroyed. Electronic data was stored in a password-protected computer file and any hard data was stored in a locker at the university. By ensuring these considerations were adhered to, ethical approval was granted by the University of Kent for both studies.

Limitations

One critical factor that needs to be mentioned considering this research methodology is linked to an ethical, but also practical viewpoint. When undertaking research in the social sciences, it must be noted that participants may not be totally honest regarding their responses. There are several reasons for this, and some of these were highlighted in the literature review and initial exploratory focus groups. For example, the funding for these non-profit sporting organisations has created a highly pressured and competitive marketplace. This view is reinforced by Veselý (2011):

“Exemplars of good practice have their value and they increase an organization's competitiveness. When they really work, they help us do things better and more effectively, increasing our profits. This places “the researcher” in a competitive market... an innovative approach that can be used by others represents a competitive advantage no one is interested in revealing to others” (p.114).

It is important to recognise this limitation, as the dialogue between the researcher and the participants was open, allowing them to provide as much or as little knowledge and detail about their programmes as they liked. This factor was limited slightly, when investigating the national legacy programmes such as ‘Sportivate’, as these are national programmes, which reduces innovative thinking. When a best exemplar is too specific or publicly accessible, those implementing are not as concerned with losing their competitive advantage (Veselý, 2011). Furthermore, within study 1, it would have been beneficial to investigate more than four non-popular sports, yet the time constraints of a lone researcher conducting one to one interviews limited the possibility to investigate more sports. The four sports allow beneficial insights to emerge, regarding the attitudes and opinions held by the VSC volunteers and coaches through a case study approach, which can be built on within future research.

This study is one of the first to investigate the attitudes of key stakeholders (NGBs) within the legacy creation process, to understand the influence and impact that their view can have within the sports development sector. Further insights into the perceptions of these key stakeholders, across a wider portfolio of sports events would allow a clearer literature base to emerge. This multi-layered survey has been developed for this exploratory research and provides a valuable tool from which future studies can adapt and improve the survey to investigate sports organisations and other key stakeholders’ involvement with future SMEs within their cultural contexts.

3.13 Conclusion

This chapter has presented in detail the ontological and epistemological standpoints that were used in this study. Furthermore, it outlined the research strategy and methods that were followed, to address the research questions. A critical realist ontology and a social constructionism epistemology were evidenced as being most suitable for the structuralist retroductive research strategy. As this strategy allowed an interaction between data and theory, which develops causal explanations. A mixed methods approach was used for data collection, following a case study framework. This thesis utilised four main methods; exploratory focus groups, an online survey, semi-structured interviews and document analysis. This allowed the researcher to gain

a better understanding of the role NGBs played in the creation and delivery of the participation legacy, through the process of leveraging and policy implementation. Participants were recruited for both studies based on them fulfilling certain criteria. For study one, participants had to be either a member of the NGB head office staff or a coach at a voluntary club in one of the four minority sports. For study 2, research participants had to be a member of the senior or regional management team, at one of the 46 funded NGBs. The data analysis will be presented and outlined in the following chapter.

Chapter 4- Data Analysis Techniques and Procedures

4.1. Introduction

This chapter will outline the main analytical procedures that were used during study 2. Section 4.2 provides detail on the descriptive statistics: variable measurement, the mode, median, upper and lower quartile ranges, mean and standard deviation. Next, section 4.3, summarises the differences between Likert items and Likert scales and the relevance to this current research. Then section 4.4, focuses on outlining the data analysis processes and 4.5 defined outliers and how to control for them within the data set. Section 4.6 focuses on the inferential statistics that were utilised with this data set, and section 4.7 specifically explains Factor Analysis (FA).

The distribution of data was highlighted in section 4.8 and in section 4.9 the processes involved with understanding Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) were discussed. The procedures needed when undertaking EFA, such as sample size and factor extraction were outlined in section 4.10. Following on from this, factor loadings were defined in 4.11, with further discussion on what future analysis is possible with the factor scores in section 4.12. The additional statistical analysis method of MANOVA was presented in 4.13 and finally, the chapter concludes at section 4.14, with an overview of the analysis procedures and techniques that were employed to ensure that the aims and objectives of the research were achieved.

Descriptive statistics allow the data to be organised and a summary of the numerical data to develop (Gratton and Jones, 2004). This is the initial phase of data analysis, and descriptive statistics have multiple uses. Firstly, when researchers are looking to use statistical techniques, descriptive statistics allow any violations of statistical assumptions to be highlighted (Pallant, 2013). Additionally, they provide the researcher with an overview of the raw data set and a description of certain sample characteristics. Inferential statistics, on the other hand, allow differences and associations between variables to be analysed (Gratton and Jones, 2004). These can be bivariate, testing one single independent variable, against a singular dependent variable, or when it involves two or more variables this is known as multivariate (Gratton and Jones, 2004).

4.2 Variable Measurement

Variables take different forms and there are two main categories of variable measurement (categorical and continuous). Across these two groups there are four different measurements available for variables. Categorical variables are made up of categories and can either be nominal or ordinal (Field, 2013). Nominal variables are equal in some way, but are not ordered and there must be more than two options. Thus, gender is not a nominal variable, as there are only two options. Nevertheless, it is similar due to the fact there is no order between the male and female variables, as they are effectively both equal. When there are only two categories, like in the case of gender, this is known as a binary variable (Field, 2013). Yet, as stated a nominal variable requires more than two categories, for example in team sports the players' numbers on their shirts, shirt number 3, 7 or 10 does not suggest any ranking or relationship. The player in position number 10 is not necessarily any better than position 3 or 7, meaning subjects are just grouped into different categories. On the other hand, when categorical data is ordered this is known as ordinal data. Ordinal variables illustrate that something has occurred and that there is order between the variables. Yet, it provides no information on the differences between the figures. Thus, ordinal data provides more insight than nominal data, as we can find out the order in which the categories occurred, but it provides no insight into the differences within the points on the scale (Field, 2013). Non-parametric tests are used with ordinal or nominal data (Gratton and Jones, 2004).

Continuous variables have an increased level of sophistication. It allows the researcher to find out the differences between the scale points. These are known as continuous variables and this signals the move away from the categorical types of measurement. A continuous variable provides a score for each individual and regardless of the measurement scale used it can take on any value within that scale (Field, 2013). Continuous variables can be either interval or ratio. Interval variables are used for most statistical tests and are thought to be more useful than ordinal variables. For a variable to be interval, the distances between the scale points must be equal (Field, 2013). For example, the distance between 4-6, is the same as the difference between 10-12.

Field (2013) states that ratio variables are the level above the interval variable, and, as well as, meeting the criteria of an interval variable, the ratios of the scale values

must be meaningful. The results still demonstrate equal distances between scale points, as with interval variables. Additionally, the ratios of results make sense, i.e. on a depression scale a person with a depression rating of 8, is twice as depressed as an individual displaying a value of 4. Ratio variables cannot have negative results and scale values range from zero upwards (Gratton and Jones, 2004). Continuous variables (interval and ratio) can also be discrete variables, as a continuous variable can be measured to any level of accuracy, e.g. on a discrete scale there are limits to the level of precision, as only specific values usually whole numbers are possible i.e. 2 and 4, whereas, on a scale values of 2.34 or 4.52 are possible (Field, 2013). Interval or ratio data is used for parametric tests, these tests assume that the data is not skewed and is drawn from a normally distributed data set (Gratton and Jones, 2004). Distribution will be discussed later in the chapter.

4.3 Likert Items and Likert Scales

Rating scales, like the 7 point Likert scale are typically treated as ordinal variables (Norman, 2010). It is important to note that researchers treat Likert scales in numerous ways and there is a lot of disagreement in the literature. In some cases, they are treated as an ordinal variable, yet others suggest that Likert scale data can be treated as an interval variable. The practice of treating Likert scales as an interval variable has long been common practice by authors, but this has been controversial (Field, 2005; Jamieson, 2004). Field (2005) suggests that when individuals are asked to subjectively rate something, their response is based on their individual feelings towards that issue. This means you can't ensure that there are equal distances between scale points, thus the data should be treated as ordinal. "The response categories in Likert scales have a rank order, but the intervals between values cannot be presumed equal" (Jamieson, 2004, p.1217). With regards to the data set for this research, respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement with a statement from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7), for example: 'I was in full support of the London 2012 Olympic Games'. The distance between 1 (strongly disagree) and 2 (disagree) cannot be guaranteed to be an equal to distance, as is expressed between 4 (neither agree nor disagree) and 5 (slightly agree). The main argument for the use of this data type at the interval level of measurement is the distinction between Likert items and Likert scales (Norman, 2010).

Boone and Boone (2012) state that Likert-type and Likert scale data require unique data analysis methods, and due to this, mistakes or misuses often occur, when analysing these data types. Norman (2010) suggests that parametric statistics can be used with Likert data, even with the following characteristics: small sample sizes, with unequal variances, and with non-normal distributions. Furthermore, he states that these findings are consistent with empirical literature dating back nearly 80 years (Norman, 2010). Likert scales are a collection of variables, which consist of sums across many items and are said to be treated as interval variables (Carifio and Perla, 2007). Similarly, this justification was utilised by Koutrou (2014) who undertook research surrounding the Women's Rugby World Cup and VSC volunteers, also using a survey with a Likert scale. Koutrou (2014) states:

“Responses to a single Likert item are normally treated as ordinal data, because [...] one cannot assume that respondents perceive the difference between adjacent levels as equidistant. However, Likert items are often treated as numeric and continuous allowing their mean or SD [Standard Deviation] to be computed” (p.133).

Likert scales are the averages of answers to multiple Likert items and in combination produce a single score (Boone and Boone, 2012). Thus, due to the fact Likert scales contain multiple items they are likely to have enhanced reliability compared to single items (Brown, 2011). This distinction between ‘Likert Items’ and ‘Likert Scales’ is critical (Carifio and Perla, 2007), and Factor Analysis involves multiple Likert items through the construction of factors called ‘Likert Scales’. Hence, parametric analysis of averages from Likert scale data is justifiable by the Central Limit Theorem (CLT) (University of Saint Andrews, 2015). As the CLT suggests, with data that has observations greater than 5 or 10 per factor, the Mean is approximately normally distributed, irrespective of the original distribution (Norman, 2010).

This further justifies the decision made by the researcher to treat the individual Likert items as ordinal, in the descriptive and initial inferential stages of data analysis, meaning median and Inter Quartile Range (IQR) are presented. Yet, the mean and Standard Deviation (SD) are also displayed due to the use of EFA, meaning multiple

Likert Items formed Likert Scales. Then subsequent statistical methods such as MANOVA, which utilise both mean and SD were used later in this analysis. This conscious decision to present the mean and SD provided consistency throughout the results section.

4.4 Analysing Data

One of the initial steps to analyse a data set is through a frequency distribution, also known as a histogram. The data is plotted on a graph, with the observations or variables on the X axis, with the Y axis illustrating how many times that value occurred within the data (Field, 2013). Frequency distributions can take many forms, but ideally a normal distribution is the objective. A distribution can deviate from normal in two main ways. Firstly, skewness, which is a lack of symmetry within the data set. Skewed distributions are clustered at either end of the scale, either positively or negatively and are non-symmetrical (Pallant, 2013). Negative skewness is clustered around the right-hand side of the graph and represents high values, whereas, positive skewness illustrates low values bunched to the left of the graph (Pallant, 2013).

Secondly, the distribution could deviate through 'peakedness' which is known as kurtosis. This relates to the degree at which scores cluster at the ends of the distribution, which is known as the tails (Field, 2013). A normal distribution value for skewness and kurtosis is 0, although this is rather uncommon in social sciences (Pallant, 2013). The further away from 0, the more likely it is that the data is not normally distributed. Pallant (2013) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) suggest alongside this, it is also necessary to look at the histograms, to investigate the distribution, as it provides a graphic representation for the researcher. Based on the skewness and kurtosis values and the graphical distribution of the current data seen in the histograms, the data is non-normality distributed. Nevertheless, Pallant (2013) reinforces the fact that many measurements or scales within the social science field are positively or negatively skewed. This does not necessarily suggest that there is an issue with the scale, yet illustrates the underlying nature of the variable itself. For example, the scale item 'I was pleased that we were hosting the London 2012 Games', was negatively skewed, due to the nature of the question that was asked, as most of the participants in general would agree that they were hosting this SMEs.

Alongside, skewness and kurtosis, normality can be tested through the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic, which calculates the normality of the score's

distribution (Pallant, 2013). A normally distributed sample, has a non-significant value of ($p > .05$), meaning that when the value is over .05, normality is assumed (Field, 2013). On the other hand, when the value is ($p < .05$) the distribution is significantly different and normality cannot be assumed (Field, 2013). For the current data set, all variables illustrated a Kolmogorov-Smirnov value of ($p < .05$), suggesting that the data is not normally distributed. Yet, Pallant (2013) states that this is common in certain types of social science research, due to the nature of certain questions, as highlighted above. This can lead to a skewed result either positively or negatively.

The median or mode is used to calculate the centre of a frequency distribution (central tendency) as the median is reasonably unaffected by skewed distributions and extreme scores at end of the distribution, this can be used with ordinal, interval or ratio data (Field, 2013). The mode is the score that occurs most frequently in the data, yet this can be difficult in some cases when two or more variables share the same mode value (Field, 2013). The mean on the other hand is a parametric measure, which can be distorted, if your data set is heavily skewed (Pallant, 2013). Mean is the most popular measure of central tendency and is the average score of all observations made for that variable (Gratton and Jones, 2004). It provides a hypothetical estimation of a typical score, yet the mean can be influenced by extreme scores or skewed data and can only be used with ratio or interval data (Field, 2013).

The measure of dispersion specifies the spread around the point of central tendency, whether that be the mean or median for example (Gratton and Jones, 2004). Field (2013) states that the easiest way to calculate the central tendency is through the range (by subtracting the highest score from the lowest score), yet this can be affected by extreme scores. Thus, one way around this is to exclude the extremes of distribution and then calculate the range, a non-parametric test known as the IQR (Field, 2013). This process allows you to eliminate the scores from the top and bottom 25% and calculate the range from the remaining 50%. The most common measure of dispersion is SD, which is the square root of the variance (Field, 2013). It is a parametric measure and is used alongside the mean. It provides an indication of the spread of data and measures how well the mean represents the data set. Field (2013) states that a standard deviation of 0 indicates that all data is the same. The larger the SD is, relative to the mean suggests that there are data points dispersed further from the mean, whereas the smaller the SD, the closer the data is to the mean value (Field, 2013).

It is essential to ensure the appropriate variable measurement is used for Likert item and Likert scale data, as the appropriate descriptive and inferential statistics vary for interval and ordinal variables. This may lead to the researcher using an inappropriate statistical method and possibly reaching the wrong conclusion (Jamieson, 2004). Due to the variable measurement, along with the skewed nature of the current data set, non-parametric descriptives (median and IQR) were the most suitable measure for individual Likert items. Mean and SD will also be presented, alongside median and IQR, due to the use of EFA and MANOVA in the latter stages of the data analysis.

4.5 Outliers

Outliers are scores within the data set that have values significantly above or below the majority shown through other scores. There are many techniques by which these can be investigated and they are a necessary consideration due to the sensitivity of many statistical tests (Pallant, 2013). Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) state that there are multiple causes of outliers. First is incorrect data entry, this was checked using the minimum and maximum values displayed for each scale item. This research utilised a scale from 1-7, if there were any variables outside these values, an outlier would be evident. Yet, none were identified during data screening, due to the pre-set scale selection buttons on the online survey. This ensured that participants were unable to select a value outside the predetermined range. Secondly, there could be an error within the missing-values codes in the computers syntax, which would result in the computer analysing the missing value (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). This was avoided because any missing-values identified in the raw data set typically within the demographic questions, were coded in the missing value section of SPSS as '99', to ensure that the IBM SPSS did not misinterpret the value as a genuine value (Pallant, 2013).

Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) also stated that the third way outliers occur is through a participant that is not in your intended sample, being a member of sampled population. This issue was eradicated by the selection criteria of the NGB staff and additionally by the contact method used via the individual's personalised emails, which meant that an unintended response was not possible. Results were only received from intended participants, but the distribution across the sample itself included some extreme values, as well as, the predominantly normal distribution. This could be since

individuals from the selected population, had a range of experiences, alongside other organisational or personal factors that may have influenced the scores. This resulted in some individuals not having opinions or viewpoints that fell within the normal distribution. For example, some NGBs were not part of the London 2012 Games, meaning their attitudes and opinions were different, compared to the typically normal responses seen within the data set.

4.6 Inferential Data Analysis

This section focused on outlining the inferential statistical methods that were used within the current research, whilst also providing a justification for those techniques chosen for analysis. The RQ and subsequent hypotheses that were investigated during this research are outlined throughout this chapter.

RQ: What were the main elements/factors that are present in legacy production and sports participation policy implementation associated with the hosting of the London 2012 Olympics?

This RQ led to the use of Factor Analysis (FA), which was the primary inferential statistical method used with this data set, which will be explained in more detail in the next section. Then from the FA results, additional hypotheses were examined, using MANOVA analysis. This follows the methodology of a similar study by Rocha (2015) which explored politicians' views and support for Rio de Janeiro 2016, along with their perceptions of legacy. Rocha (2015) conducted a 7-point Likert scale survey and utilised MANOVAs to investigate any significant differences between specific variables and groups.

4.7 Factor Analysis

FA is a technique used to identify certain clusters of variables, and is a data reduction technique. It aims to reduce and summarise data into smaller clusters than were initially investigated within the research. The purpose of summarising, is to identify underlying factors (latent variables) that correlate highly with each other. These are drawn from the original variables outlined in the initial data, e.g. survey responses (Field, 2013). Field (2013) suggests that there are two main types of factor

analysis, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA).

EFA is used most often in the early stages of research, when the objective is to discover and explore the interrelationship between different variables. CFA, on the other hand, occurs at a much later stage in the research process and is a more complex process aiming to confirm a specific hypothesis. The choice between these two methods relates to the researcher's aims and objectives for the investigation.

As the current study was aiming to explore the perceptions and motivations of NGB staff and identify the underlying elements that are involved in the production of legacy and the implementation of the legacy participation policy, EFA was utilised during this research. Even though this current study looked to test certain beliefs and hypotheses such as the process of policy implementation (Lipsky's, 1980; Van Meter and Van Horn, 1975), literature surrounding legacy, document analysis and the interviews undertaken were used to create this exploratory survey. Consequently, EFA was more suitable for the current investigation due to the exploratory nature of the data, which EFA accounts for. Whereas, CFA is more appropriate to test and confirm a specific theory or hypothesis, which is already evident within the literature (Field, 2013; Pallant, 2013).

The term FA describes a variety of techniques, that have similarities, these are known as Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and FA. Both aim to reduce the original variables to a smaller number of clusters or groupings (Pallant, 2013). Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) state that if you are concerned with a theoretical solution uncontaminated by unique and error variability, then FA is your choice, but PCA is a more suitable choice if the researcher wants an empirical summary of the data. For FA, a mathematical model is used to estimate the factors and only 'common variance' is analysed. Whereas PCA, focuses on trying to explain 'total variance' not just 'common variance,' as original variables are converted into a set of linear combinations (Pallant, 2013), thus identifying the level to which each variable contributes to the components (or factors, is it is sometimes called). An additional difference between PCA and FA is that communality estimates are undertaken (Field, 2005).

Communalities are a correlation index, and the communality of an item is the variance it shares with all other variables (Spicer, 2005). Field (2013) suggests the total variance for a specific item in the R-matrix will have two elements. Firstly, some

variance will be shared with other variables (common variance). The second element of variance will be specific to that item only (unique variance). Each variable has a communality value, at the start of factor analysis to illustrate this shared variance with other items (Spicer, 2005). A variable that has no unique variance would have a communality of 1, whereas a variable that shares none of its variance with any other items would be given a communality of 0 (Field, 2013).

FA focuses on the shared variance between items; it does this by estimating the communality values from extracted factors (Field, 2013). Whereas, in PCA, the communalities are all set to 1, which although possibly unexpected, demonstrates that all variance is available for analysis, or in other words “all a variable’s variance is treated as if it is shared with other variables” (Spicer, 2005, p.194). Thus, the PCA approach assumes all variance is common and the original data is transposed into constituent linear components, and identifies the level to each item or variable contributes to a component (Field, 2013).

4.8 Distribution of Data

Field (2005) highlights that as well as interrelations, in some cases it is worth ensuring “that the variables have roughly normal distributions” (p.686). Yet he states this is necessary, unless you are doing significance tests or the researcher is aiming to generalise the sample beyond the sample collected (Field, 2005). As this survey gained a response from 83% of the sports contacted, a sufficient sample has been collected from within the ESS, limiting the need to generalise further. Additionally, no significance tests were undertaken within the current data set, ensuring that the normality of the data is not essential for EFA to be undertaken. This consideration is echoed by Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) who suggest that if PCA is being used descriptively to summarise the relationships between a large group of variables, the assumptions regarding the normality and distributions of data are not necessary. Yet, it is important to note that normally distributed data can enhance the factor solution, and this was taken into consideration when analysing the data (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013).

4.9 Undertaking an EFA

When considering using an EFA, as a statistical technique there are three main considerations or steps that a researcher must take. Firstly, the sample size of the data set must be checked to ensure it is suitable for FA. Additionally, the strength of the relationship between the items, has to be considered. Investigating the relationship between items, contributes to the choice of how many factors should be extracted (known as factor extraction). Secondly, the method of factor rotation and interpretation needs to be decided, as this ensures that the factors are easier to interpret (Pallant, 2013). Lastly, the importance of the factor loadings themselves must be decided. As Field (2013) states the factor loadings assist measurement, of the importance of a given variable to a given factor (or components- as factors are known in PCA). These considerations made by the researcher will now be discussed and illustrated to highlight the decisions that were made in the current research.

4.10 Sample Size and Factor Extraction

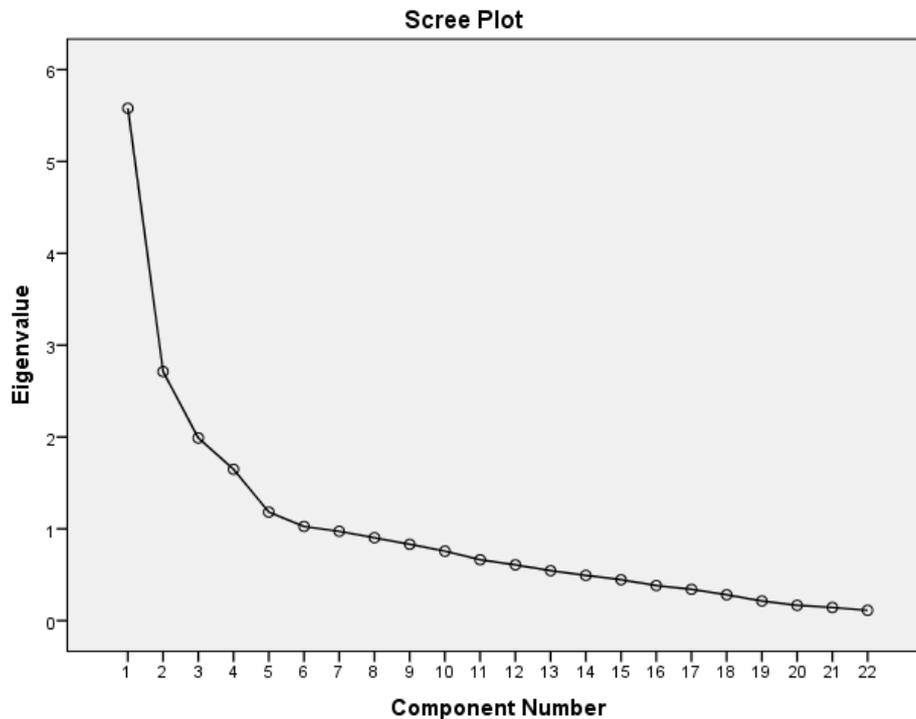
The first consideration was regarding sample size and whether it was large enough to run the analysis. It has been suggested that the larger the sample the better, with recommendations normally around samples of 300 participants (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). Yet, Stevens (1996) notes that the suggested sample sizes supported by researchers, have been reducing over the years, as more research is being undertaken in the area. Hair, Anderson, Babin, and Black (2014) state preferably the sample size should be 100 or larger, with fewer than 50 observations not being suitable for factor analysis. Coakes, Steed and Ong (2010) support this and suggest that a sample of 100 subjects is acceptable. Sample size will also be addressed later, during the factor loading section.

The second issue is the strength of the intercorrelations between the items, and Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) recommend an initial inspection of the correlation matrix for evidence of coefficients greater than .3. This initial review was undertaken with the data set for this study. A sufficient proportion of the variables were showing coefficients greater than .3, meaning that factor analysis was an appropriate statistical technique. Two statistical measures form part of this intercorrelation decision process and are generated through SPSS. The two tests are Barlett's test of sphericity and the

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sample adequacy (Pallant, 2013). Bartlett's test of sphericity should be significant ($p < .05$) and for KMO, the value will range from 0-1, with .6 being suggested as the minimum acceptable value for factor analysis (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). Other researchers have suggested that a KMO value of .5 has been highlighted as acceptable, the closer the value to 1, the more compact the correlations are, suggesting that factor analysis will produce reliable results (Field, 2013). Thus, Kaiser (1974) states that values of .5 are 'barely' acceptable. Hutcheson and Sofroniou (1999, cited in Field, 2013, p.685) provide guidelines that suggest that values in the .50s are 'miserable', within the .60s values are 'mediocre', .70s are 'middling', values in the .80s are 'meritorious and finally values in the .90s are 'marvellous'.

Factor extraction involves the selection of the smallest number of variables that can be used to best represent the inter-relationships between the variables. There are two main ways in which this can be done, either through Kaiser's criterion which examines the eigenvalues, or through examination of the scree plot (Pallant, 2013). Eigenvalues represent the amount of variation that is explained by a factor and Kaiser's criterion is the technique used to aid factor extraction. It states that only factors with an eigenvalue of 1.0 or more should be retained (Field, 2013). Yet, Pallant (2013) notes that Kaiser's criterion has been criticised, with Jolliffe (1972, 1986) stating it is too strict and factors with values of .7 or above should be retained. Yet, criticism highlighted that Kaiser's criterion and Jolliffe's suggestion, results in the retention of too many factors. However, Field (2013) states that there is some evidence that when there are less than 30 variables, there is some evidence to show it is an accurate measure. This research utilised 26 variables for the EFA, meaning that Kaiser's criterion may be suitable in this case. An additional method can be used to assist in the researcher's decision of the eigenvalue and if it is deemed large enough to illustrate a meaningful factor and it is known as Cattell's scree test (1996). This consists of plotting the eigenvalues on a graph, known as a scree plot (Figure 4) and examining the plot to find a point at which the shape of the curve changes direction to a more horizontal position (Pallant, 2013). Cattell suggests that the most variance in the data is explained by the factors that are above this directional change or break in the plot.

Figure 4- An Example of a Scree Plot Used for Cattell’s Scree Test (1996)



For the purposes of this investigation eigenvalues over 1, using Kaiser’s criterion and scree plots were used as the main methods for factor extraction. These methods combined throughout the EFA process provided an insight into variables that were positioned close to the curves change in direction (around the ‘1’ value). This ensured that the researcher was able to interpret the visual representation of the factors, to determine whether a factor contributes to the explanation of the shown variance within the data set. Field (2013) highlights that when investigating the scree plot, the factor at the point of inflexion should be removed. The point of inflexion is where the slope of the line changes dramatically, and only factors to the left of this should be retained (Field, 2013). This view was supported by Cattells (1996) original paper on the use of scree tests to determine the number of factors to retain. As Thurstone (cited in Field, 2013) suggested “it is better to retain too few rather than too many factors so most people do not retain the factors at the point on inflexion” (p.640). This was the main approach taken by the research, as Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) suggested to use an exploratory approach, experimenting with different factor until the best solution

is achieved. Pallant (2013) states that it is the researcher's decision as to the number of factors to retain that best illustrate the relationships between the variables. It is a question of striking the balance between explaining the largest proportion of the variance within the original data set and finding a simple solution with the fewest factors (Pallant, 2013).

Seven factors had an eigenvalue value over 1. Yet, most variance was explained by the first 4 or 5 factors. As such, a 4 and 5 factor solution was tested, due to the eigenvalues and total variance explained. These variance values alongside the scree plot highlighted that factor 5 was at the inflexion point. This resulted in the first 4 factors being retained. To confirm this, in line with Tabachnick and Fidell's (2013) suggestion of an exploratory approach, both solutions were tested. It was determined that the 4-factor solution best illustrated the relationships between the variables, in line with the literature, compared to the 5-factor solution.

Next, after factor extraction had been undertaken, the focus moved to interpretation of the factors themselves. Through the factor extraction most factors illustrated high loadings, as these are the factors that illustrated the strongest relationships between the variables. Higher loadings were present on the more important factors, with smaller loadings on all other factors (Field, 2013). Loadings on multiple factors can cause issues for the researcher and makes interpretation extremely difficult, so to assist the researcher the factors are rotated. This allows the data to be more easily interpreted; it does not label or deduce the factors, but rather shows which variables "clump together" (Pallant, 2013, p.192). Then the researcher's own knowledge from previous literature and possible theories are used to interpret these clusters of variables and suggest explanations for those dimensions. There are two main types of factor rotation: orthogonal (uncorrelated) and oblique (correlated). Orthogonal rotation can be undertaken in several ways: Varimax, Quartimax and Equimax. Similarly, oblique rotation can take shape as Direct Oblimin or Promax.

Varimax is the favoured orthogonal rotation method; its objective is to simplify the columns in a factor matrix. It is considered superior to other orthogonal rotational methods in achieving a simplified factor structure (Hair, Anderson, Babin, and Black 2014). Direct Oblimin is the most common oblique rotation technique and in this method "the degree to which the factors can correlate is determined by the value of a

constant known as delta” (Field, 2013, p.681). With a delta value of 0, high correlation of the factors is not allowed. If the delta value is lower than zero (down to -0.8) then there will be less correlated factors, whereas delta values above zero (up to 0.8) will illustrate highly correlated factors (Field, 2013).

Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) state that orthogonal rotations are easier to interpret and report, yet researchers which utilise this method, are presuming, usually incorrectly, that the data is uncorrelated and independent. Hair, Anderson, Babin, and Black (2014) reinforce this, suggesting that very few constructs in the real world are uncorrelated. Osborne and Costello (2009) highlight that due to the fact that behaviour is rarely separated into neatly packaged units that operate independently of each other, using the non-correlated, orthogonal rotation causes a loss of useful information. Hence, if the factors are correlated, oblique rotation should theoretically create a clearer, reproducible solution. When undertaking oblique rotation, the associated output is only marginally more multifaceted than an orthogonal rotational output. In SPSS outputs, the rotated factor matrix is examined after orthogonal rotation. In oblique rotation, the pattern matrix is inspected for item loadings and the factor correlation matrix illustrates any correlation between the factors and the fundamental interpretations are the same (Osborne and Costello, 2009).

Furthermore, relating to this specific research project, previous research relating to SMEs, sports development and policy implementation were used. Correlations have been suggested between elements such as communication, characteristics of grass-root implementers and the outcome of the policy objective. Thus, due to the known possible correlations within the elements that were being addressed within the survey, oblique rotation was the most appropriate method for factor rotation.

4.11 Factor Loading

Factor loading refers to “the regression coefficient of a variable for the linear model, this describes the latent variable or factor in factor analysis” (Field, 2013, p.875). During factor interpretation, there are some rules that need to be adhered too. First and foremost, all factors must be interpretable, as with an uninterpretable factor it is hard to see the factors’ practical or theoretical function (Spicer, 2005). Furthermore, at least 3 variables are needed within each factor measured to produce an acceptable solution (Spicer, 2005; Williams, Brown and Onsmann, 2010). Osborne

and Costello (2009) support this and highlight that those solutions that have less than 3 variables are generally unstable and weak. A variable must not load significantly onto more than one factor, which is known as a “cross loading” variable. This is an item that loads at .32 or higher on two or more factors. In this case, the researcher removes the item from the analysis, as its connection to a specific component is unclear, and the item may have been poorly written (Osborne and Costello, 2009).

To interpret factor loadings, the size of the loading variable must be determined to highlight a meaningful and reliable value. Spicer (2005) states that a practice has been established that uses .30 as a minimum loading. This decision is mainly due to the fact it should represent 10% of the variance within that factor. Stevens (1992) suggests that the sample size poses the most significant consideration for factor loadings and the reliability of factor analysis. Furthermore, Stevens (1992) produced a critical values table from which factor loadings could be determined, linking to the sample size of the data set. He suggested that for a sample of 50 a loading of .722 is deemed significant, for 100 the loading should be greater than .512, for 200 a value of .364 can be considered significant, for 300 the loading should be greater than .298, for 600 it should be greater than .21 and for 1,000 it must be larger than .162 (Stevens, 1992). Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson (2014) reinforce that factors loading values greater than .50 are generally considered necessary for practical significance, even though loading of .30 and .40 are accepted as the minimum value. Thus, for the purpose of this study, factor loadings had to be over .512 in order to be deemed significant, due to the sample size of 105 that was collected for this study.

Additionally, relating to sample size, the stronger the data set, the smaller the sample can be, whilst still providing accurate analysis. In this context, strong data means high communalities (.8 and above) with no cross loadings, and multiple variables loading strongly on each factor (Osborne and Costello, 2009). In practice, these conditions are unlikely and Osborne and Costello (2009) state that within the social sciences, ‘low to moderate communalities of .40 to .70’ are common and acceptable. Pallant (2013) states that low values of below .3 could highlight that the items do not fit well with other variables in the component and the items fit may need to be reconsidered.

Osborne and Costello (2009) echoed this, and, they suggest that if a variable has a communality of less than .40, this could suggest an additional factor that needs to be investigated or the item may not be related strongly enough to the other variables

within that construct, this may require additional examination. No communalities were identified below .30, but the three items that showed a value of between .30-.40 were examined by the researcher to confirm or dispute the relationship between the variables. The nature of the first factor: 'objectives, standards and resources', which included the three variables that highlighted communality values between .30-.40 related to knowledge sharing and objectives, meaning the researcher decided they were deemed relevant and related to the context of the first factor.

4.12 Factor Scores: Further Analysis

The factors derived from EFA, can firstly be used in additional studies following confirmatory factor analysis, as part of a scale for a questionnaire within the field of mega-events, legacy and policy implementation. Adaptations can be made to the context of the funding stream, the type of organisation or mega-event involved to allow further use. This is a common use of factor analytical techniques, as the researcher starts with a large sample of individual questions and reduces these items into smaller clusters of sub scales (Pallant, 2013). Additionally, as factors are reduced into more manageable groupings of related variables this analysis is used prior to further analysis such as Multivariate Analysis Of Variance (MANOVA) or multiple regression for example (Pallant, 2013). This transition from individual Likert items into Likert scales through EFA ensured enhanced reliability, through the justification of the CLT allowing further parametric analysis of averages to be undertaken.

4.13 MANOVA

MANOVA is an extension of analysis of variance and is used by researchers when the analysis involves more than one dependent variable (Field, 2013). It is important to consider the theoretical underpinnings of the dependent variables and there must be a clear conceptual reason for considering them together (Field, 2013; Pallant, 2013). Within the current research there is a clear theoretical link between the variables, due to the literature surrounding SMEs, legacy and policy implementation that was used to aid the creation of the survey questions.

With statistical methods such as analysis of variance and T- test there are always possibilities of reaching the wrong conclusion (Pallant, 2013). There are two main error types, Type 1 and Type 2. Field (2013) states a type 1 error is when it is believed that there is a genuine effect within the data sample, when in fact there is not.

On the other hand, a type 2 error occurs when it is believed there is no effect in the population, whereas there is an effect (Field, 2013). The relationship between these two error types is problematic, since when a researcher attempts to mitigate a type 1 error, the risk of committing a type 2 error is enlarged. The aim is to ensure that the statistical tests used by the researcher correctly identify a difference between groups if there is one (Pallant, 2013). This is known as the power of a test. Stevens (1996) highlighted that the power of a test is highly related to the sample size and if the sample is over 100, the power of a test, is not a concern. Thus, due to the sample of the current study being 105 subjects, the concern of power, is eradicated. In order to reduce the likelihood of type 1 error, MANOVAs were conducted to test the multiple hypotheses for this study, which are:

H₁: There will be a significant difference between Olympic and non-Olympic sports and the way NGB managers perceive legacy production.

H₀: There will be no significant difference between Olympic and non-Olympic sports and the way NGB managers perceive legacy production.

H₂: There will be a significant difference between employment levels (CEO, Senior or regional manager) in Olympic and non-Olympic sports and the way NGB managers perceive legacy production.

H₀: There will be no significant difference between employment levels (CEO, Senior or regional manager) in Olympic and non-Olympic sports and the way NGB managers perceive legacy production.

H₃: There will be a significant difference in the way NGB managers from different-size sport's (participation: small, medium, large) perceive legacy production.

H₀: There will be no significant difference in the way NGB managers from different-size sport's (participation: small, medium, large) perceive legacy production.

H₄: There will be a significant difference in the way NGB managers perceive legacy production depending on their sports funding level (increased or decreased).

H₀: There will be no significant difference in the way NGB managers perceive legacy production depending on their sports funding level (increased or decreased).

Pallant (2013) states that you could run a series of individual Analysis of Variance (ANOVAs) for each dependent variable, however this inflates the risk of type 1 error. This is because by conducting a series of individual analysis it is more likely that a significant result will be found, even if there are no differences within those groups. MANOVAs control this increased risk of a type 1 error (Pallant, 2013). By using MANOVAs an increased number of assumptions need to be considered, and these are outlined below.

The first assumption is that the two or more dependent variables being used for the analysis need to be measured at the ratio or interval level (Pallant, 2013). The four factors (Objectives, Standards and Resources, Opportunities for Capitalisation, Monitoring and Evaluation and Club Engagement and Implementation) meet this assumption. Laerd Statistics (2016) states that the second assumption is that your independent variables should consist of two or more categorical, independent groups. The four groups being used for the MANOVA analysis highlighted below meet this requirement:

- Sport Type (Olympic and non-Olympic sports)
- Funding level (increased, decreased⁵)
- Sport size (participation: small [under 49,999], medium [50,000-299,999] or large [300,000+])
- Employment type (CEO, senior or regional manager)

The third assumption states that there needs to be independence of observations, meaning that the datasets are independent from each other (Field, 2013). With the current data set this assumption is met, as the same participant cannot be in more than one group and as the observations were not collected in a group setting (Laerd Statistics, 2016; Pallant, 2013). The researcher did note that in some cases multiple responses were collected from the same NGB, however this was often at multiple levels within the organisation. This was also due to the survey being online and delivered on an individual opinion basis, meaning risk to independence within the samples is limited. Therefore, it is worth noting some organisations refused

⁵ The third category in which funding 'stayed the same' was removed due to a small sample n=4, hence the results would not be meaningful.

participation as they were not happy for their staff to complete the survey, due to upcoming funding decisions, as well as, time and resource restrictions. This reinforces the independence of samples and cases, where individuals could have participated and being scripted in their responses were removed.

The fourth assumption that must be considered when understanding MANOVAs relates to having an adequate sample size. Pallant (2013) states that as a minimum, you are required to have more cases in each group than the number of dependent variables being analysed. Hence, in this research a minimum value of four was needed, yet the sample ($n=105$) exceeds this. Furthermore, by having a larger sample this can also allow the researcher to “‘get away with’ violations of some other assumptions (e.g. normality)” (Pallant, 2013, p.295). The fifth assumption that must be accounted for by the researcher is to ensure there are no univariate or multivariate outliers. Univariate outliers were checked using SPSS software through the ‘Explore’ function (Pallant, 2013). Reflecting on the histograms and boxplots the distribution of scores were reasonably normal, with most scores following the shape of a normal curve. The histogram looked somewhat normally distributed and the boxplot showed a few outliers, nonetheless when the data set was checked all respondents were all from the expected sample group and the responses were within the expected response range (between 1 and 7). The Kolmogorov-Smirnov for two of the dependent variables (“Opportunities for Capitalisation” and “Club Engagement and Implementation”) were 0.00, thus violating normality.

Efron and Tibshirani (1993) suggest that to overcome this deviation from normality, bootstrapping can be used. For this research bootstrapping was undertaken through the SPSS 21 programme, as this technique does not rely on the assumptions of normality being achieved. Bootstrapping estimates the sample distribution from the sample of data used within the research. In effect, the sample data ($n=105$) are “treated as the population from which smaller samples, known as bootstrap samples are taken” (Field, 2013, p.163). Through this method, a mean is calculated from each sample, then by using many samples (SPSS’s recommended default setting of 1,000 iterations was used) the sampling distribution can be estimated (IBM, 2012). This process is known as a ‘robust method’ and ensures the data is accurate when some assumptions are not met or are in doubt (Field, 2013; IBM, 2012). Due to the sample size of the current investigation, bootstrapping was used to ensure that robust estimates were

derived, as well as to provide reassurance in the case of any hesitation or doubt concerning the assumptions for the statistical procedures.

Multivariate outliers, were checked using a measure called Mahalanobis distance, which is calculated through SPSS (Pallant, 2013). The Mahalanobis distance allows the researcher to identify if any cases have a strange pattern of scores across the dependent variables. Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) state that the Mahalanobis distance highlights the distance of an individual case, from the centroid of all other cases and the centroid is the point that is created by the means of all the variables within the analysis. When identifying if there are any multivariate outliers, the researcher compared the “Mahalanobis distance value against a critical value, which is determined using a chi-square table” (Pallant, 2013, p.298). If the Mahalanobis distance value exceeds the critical value, it was considered to be an outlier. The critical values table (Pallant, 2013, p.298) was used to test for multivariate outliers in this investigation and as this study had four dependent variables, a critical value of 18.47 was used. Hence, as the maximum value obtained from the output was 15.6, this was below the critical value, meaning no multivariate outliers were present. The sixth assumption to consider is whether there is a linear relationship between each pair of dependent variables for each group of independent variables. Linearity between two variables is assessed by reviewing bivariate scatterplots. When the variables are linearly related and are normally distributed, the scatterplots are oval shaped (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). After reviewing the scatterplots, there is no obvious evidence of non-linearity meaning the assumption of linearity was satisfied.

The seventh assumption relates to the homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices and this is produced as part of the MANOVA output. The test used to assess homogeneity of variance is Box’s M test of Equality of Covariance Matrices (Pallant, 2013). If the significance value is larger than .001, the assumption of homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices, has not been violated. The Box’s M Sig. value was above .001 for three of the MANOVA’s conducted (funding level .023, sport size .611 and employment type .921), yet for sport type the Box’s M Sig. value was .000, thus violating the assumption. Pallant (2013) states that the next step is to look at Levene’s Test of Equality of Error Variance, and any values that are less than .05, would indicate a violation. This was the case for one of the dependent variables (‘capitalise’ .000) used in the MANOVA to investigate sport type (Olympic and non-Olympic sports).

Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) suggest that when this assumption is violated a more conservative alpha value is needed to determine the significance within that variable. As such, an alpha value of .01 was set to account for this assumption violation, when analysing the data for the dependent variable 'capitalise' within the sport type MANOVA.

The final assumption relates to multicollinearity. MANOVAs are most effective when the dependent variables are moderately correlated (Pallant, 2013). If the correlations are low, running separate univariate analysis of variance could be used. Similarly, correlations that are too high around .8 or .9 are cause for concern (Pallant, 2013). To test for this a correlation was run through SPSS. The correlations ranged between 0.29-0.44, which is deemed acceptable and satisfies an acceptable level of multicollinearity. Similar to the study by Doherty (2009) on volunteer legacy from a major sports event, Pillai's Trace *F*-values were inspected, as they are robust against violations of homogeneity of variance which may occur when there are unequal N values, or if there is a small sample or any assumptions are violated (Pallant, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001).

4.14 Conclusion

This chapter outlined and illustrated the analysis techniques that were used for this investigation, both descriptive and statistical. Firstly, this chapter reviewed the processes involved with descriptive data, in terms of variable measurement and Likert items and Likert scales. Then the chapter defined the processes involved and the justification for the selection of EFA and MANOVA. Chapters 6 and 7, provide more content on the analysis and the specific findings themselves that were a result of the data analysis methods applied to this research.

Chapter 5 - Views From Voluntary Sports Clubs Across Four Non-popular Sports: a Qualitative Study.

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to understand how a SME legacy was produced and implemented with VSCs across four non-popular sports. A focus was to gain a detailed understanding of club coaches and volunteer's attitudes and involvement in the production of the London 2012 participation legacy. Additionally, this study will demonstrate how Critical Realism (CR) can be used to aid the understanding of legacy, as a multi-level construct. This allows the analysis to move beyond separating legacy into different categories, by focusing on the determinants of legacy and the process of legacy production, through exploration using the multiple layers of CR. This chapter outlines the findings from the interviews conducted nationally with VSCs, across four minority sports and illustrates significant findings, which shed light on the implementation process and factors relating to communication, media, the importance of the informal legacy and partnerships.

5.2 Results

Results from the data analysis demonstrate how a CR perspective can be used to aid analysis of SMEs (see Table 6) and how it consists of different ontological levels of the legacy concept. The results illustrate the key themes within the data, on four levels of reality: 'Material, Ideal, Artefactual and Social'. These are outlined in Table 5 within the methods section (Chapter 3), which outlines the CR perspective of legacy and factors that affect legacy production. Within the material layer, key findings illustrate that policy is created via a top down approach and external media was noted to have a greater impact on creating interest from participants, than the individual participation programmes used by VSCs. Furthermore, NGB capacity and the competitive nature of the funding system within England were highlighted as material factors that affect the successful facilitation of legacy production. The ideal layer highlighted that all interviewees noted the importance of informal legacy and accepted

that they have a role within legacy creation. However, the artefactual layer revealed that the respondents' interpretation of their role in legacy production differed. The social layer exposed the diversity of individuals that are involved with the voluntary sports sector and the benefits for individuals that work within the sports development sector. In Table 6, the numbers in the brackets, for example, (1) refers to the participant number that was assigned to interviewees, this relates to Appendix 5, which illustrates relevant details about the interviewees.

Table 6- Results utilising the CR perspective, investigating the creation of the London 2012 participation legacy, across four minority sports.

Material layer	Illustrative examples
<p>Policy created via a top down approach (NGB level)- lack of consultation with bottom up (clubs and coaches)</p>	<p>DCMS (2007) Our promise for London 2012 DCMS (2008) Before, During and After Key legacy promises from London 2012: 1.To make the UK a world-leading sporting nation Sport England NGB investment through WSPs between 2009- 2013 and 2013-2017. Gold Challenge – Part of Sport England's Places People Play programme, it provided participation opportunities to 105,000 people in multiple Olympic and Paralympic sports.</p>
<p>Media -external mechanism greater impact than specific programmes implemented by clubs</p>	<p>“A lot more people actually know what [our sport] is, because it was televised and You could see it all on YouTube” (Head Office- Interviewee 2). “It certainly raised the profile of [our sport ...] people saw it on the television” (3). “Pre Olympics, we would probably [have] maybe two or three enquiries a year, from people who had never played handball and wanted to try handball in the four weeks around the Olympics, we had 88 enquiries, from seniors and juniors. With people who had suddenly become aware of the sport and wanted to try it. And of those we now have two or three of them in our first team” (14). “After the Olympics, people were like oh I have seen that on TV, I like that, so I knew this would provide me with an opportunity to coach” (13). “Three years ago when you mentioned I want to play handball you get laughed at and in some circumstances you still do but more people now understand and recognise it, what the sport is so in that sense the Olympics itself is what has educated people I think.” (11)</p>

	<p>“Before the Olympics started we were getting literally five or six people...when the Olympics started ... thirty-five people turned up. The immediate effect was incredible. Obviously, handball had never had such coverage in the UK as it did during the Olympics” (15)</p>
<p>Importance of immediate post-event capitalisation to produce legacy- build on media interest (some use of social media and online resources)</p>	<p>“We have started pushing the social media more so we have got a Facebook [...] Twitter as well and we have our own website. Our social media account has started to increase now with interactions” (29).</p> <p>“I put it on our Facebook page come and try [our sport] free for a month... there was nothing from the [NGB] that I remember, saying every club has got to do this” (25).</p> <p>“I know lot of people follow Facebook page for the club, where once we had just the website, we relied on them proactively seeking us and many never bother looking. So yeah social media has been useful and certainly the Facebook page” (14).</p> <p>“When she won we should have had posters, flyers and banners up promoting [our athlete ...] the ship has sailed. [The NGB] could have done so much to build the sport up, but the truth is the organisation was just not prepared. The media around Judo and London 2012 was brilliant but you can’t create a legacy without the network to support that interest.” (23)</p> <p>“It has raised the profile of the club a bit and we have done the Facebook thing and advertised more than we had done before” (1)</p>
<p>Small NGB capacity</p>	<p>“The increased interest, demand and expectation was difficult to manage. We are a very small NGB with a limited number of staff and however much we would have like to we struggled with capacity” (Head Office- interviewee 2)</p> <p>“I guess one of the biggest challenges is the feeling of the unknown and not being able to meet the rise in demand, because it is an unknown quantity” (Head Office- Interviewee 8).</p> <p>“But now you don’t have the NGB staff they can’t do their job properly; it is just not possible. I know that the regional staffs are worked off their feet [...] trying to train up coaches, as without coaches you can’t provide and increase the participation. You can’t [...] throw them into a club without helping them develop it, it is not possible and you can’t do that with a visit once a year to the club. We do not have that system in place, it is really a shame so how can legacy develop” (22).</p>

	<p>“I think they [UK government] perhaps over generalised the capacity and ability of NGBs to accommodate new participants. For example, a small niche sport like us is going to have greatly reduced capacity in contrast to cycling or swimming. In all honesty as an organisation and as a sport the Olympics probably came 8-10 years to soon for us. We were still in the process of building lots of systems from scratch whilst have to deal with the extra work of preparing for a home Olympics” (2).</p>
<p>Competitive sports system- constrained legacy production.</p>	<p>“Looking at those 46 Sport England funded NGBs- we all do and focus on participation and all NGBs are vastly the same animals but just on a different scale, [but we] are challenged by bigger more established NGBs” (Head Office- Interviewee 8).</p> <p>‘Such competition between the sports for the same audience’ (1).</p> <p>“That's the thing with legacy; I think potentially again it's that lack of joined up thinking...between minor sports, so individual sports challenging each other for a pot of legacy money” (12).</p> <p>“Olympics was a brilliant opportunity but it is a competitive climate in the sports sector between NGBs” (Head Office- Interviewee 8)</p>
<p>Ideal layer</p>	
<p>All interviewees accept they have role to play in legacy creation.</p>	<p>“I just want to get more people playing sport and the Olympics gave us a platform and extra resources to build a legacy” (9).</p> <p>“Short term, yes a great impact people came in [...]. When they realised that they had to put in some work and they were not Zorro, then they gave up.... I have got to say I am a bit against programmes and the taster sessions” (3).</p> <p>“We wouldn't be sitting right here if it wasn't for 2012 based on the fact that the funding and the initial uptake so in that sense it has been, the Olympics for the sport was a huge positive, it has influenced participation I think and people actually know what it is and this is the start” (11)</p> <p>“Beforehand I was so excited when I was playing handball and knowing it was coming, the Olympics, all my friends are sort of aware that I play handball [...] There'll be an opportunity to kind of show this game I've been playing” (15)</p>

	<p>“It is the idea of taking what happened in the Olympics and making your club develop. You were really left to use your own ideas and try to promote your club to create the Olympic legacy” (25).</p>
<p>Importance of informal legacy-critical for legacy to be produced and sustained (open, flexible approach)</p>	<p>“It caters for a lot of different abilities. Some people can only cope with an hour and then they have had enough... Some are competitive and others not” (Head Office- interviewee 2).</p> <p>“When I turn up at a school I am like what can I use to improvise, with so I always take a kit bag with me with... white adhesive tape this I use to make the goals” (10).</p> <p>“We know that the sport is developing if at one point we don't adapt [...] it is just counter-productive” (13).</p> <p>“[We] moved sessions around which is not ideal because we can't [get a] full-size court and that left the other session to be more foundation, social and open to anyone, that flexibility was needed” (28).</p>
<p>Artefactual layer</p>	
<p>Differed on what they believe their role/place was- lack of guidance and communication, led to a more individualised, localised approach (most cases)</p>	<p>“As a club we are concentrating mainly on ourselves, how we can grow the club, through advertising, social media, to try and increase our participation” (29).</p> <p>“[The NGBs] main role is to provide coaching support and elite support [...] Their main targets are different to what we're looking for. That's why we were looking at the county as they have access to a lot more funding and the adversity to push marketing in our local area so that's why we went towards the council (Club 7)</p> <p>“Communication... what communication!” (22).</p> <p>“Coaches including me do it because we love the sport and want to help and grow the sport. Without the support of the NGB how are we meant to do that? This is why we end up going off and doing our own thing within our clubs” (23).</p> <p>“We've just set up our own hub around here. We use a big local club which has a number of really good players in it and we use feeder schools, or where they have little clubs [...] What we tend to do is to be self-funded” (5)</p>

	<p>“The [NGB] regularly do micro sessions [...] they’ll do a coaching session to introduce a new technique or idea or give you an update on something so they seem to be a lot more proactive” (32).</p> <p>“I’d be more pushy with free newspapers and the local council magazine. You can do that on your doorstep. I think doing it a year before the Olympics rather than waiting until the games and giving it a push, I’d have started much earlier” (6).</p>
Importance of partnerships and collaboration to produce legacy	<p>“Some staff at local authorities cover two minority sports” (Head Office- Interviewee 8).</p> <p>“We got the Sportivate funding by writing to all the CSPs [County Sport Partnerships] ourselves” (24).</p> <p>“I didn’t see it as a competition I saw it as [...] two minority sports actually working with each other for the benefit of the kids” (6).</p> <p>“I think there is a lot of NGBs that don’t need their mates (football, cycling swimming etc.) but then there is the middle tier that are starting to see the importance of coming together to share resources and ideas. We are starting to work closely [...] There are some staff at local authorities that cover two minority sports... and I think NGBs are starting to see that they have to do this now” (H1).</p> <p>“We have just developed a relationship with two national partners to ensure that we can have our equipment in their properties. This makes sure that [the sport] is available and accessible in the summer months” (V1).</p>
Social layer	
Diversity of coaches and staff involved with NGB	<p>“I think that there is a place for [all] clubs and it comes down to person running that club... their individual motivations. If they are interested in that pure, traditional [version of the sport] they will not want to know or an implement [the NGBs] wonderful and amazing programme as that goes against the ethos for them” (24).</p> <p>“I am a 65-year-old retired primary and nursery teacher... a group of us decided to start our own club, [we] researched what was needed” (4).</p> <p>I don't know about this funding... I just don't know! More support and confidence to do it, I am a civil servant I don’t know what a hub club is; I just want to coach the sport” (14).</p>

	<p>“I think that there is a place for [all] clubs and it comes down to identifying what are the drivers of the person running that club, you can’t force it upon them, it comes down to their individual motivations. If they are interested in that pure, traditional Judo they will not want to know or implement BJA’s wonderful and amazing programmes as that goes against the ethos for them” (24).</p> <p>“My job to look for that stream of funding. If I gave it [the application] to someone else they would struggle, absolutely” (9).</p>
<p>Sports development sector employees and coaches, professional outlook</p>	<p>“I am a bit fortunate, I know how to get the funding because it is what I do as a day job it's my job to look for that stream of funding and to tick all the boxes” (9).</p> <p>“We used to have a guy here who was a sports teacher. He used to get loads of money...because he knew; he had all the contacts within the local government” (28).</p> <p>“Luckily enough I am in a position where I have time to do that and my links to the school and sports development help but a lot of coaches and volunteers and they can't do it on top of a full day’s work and family and kids and stuff” (25).</p> <p>“We have won lot of those because the other thing is we used to have a guy here who was very keen on volleyball and was a sports teacher. They did very well and he used to get loads of money from various places because he knew, he had all the contacts within the local government and so on. So he did really well and the club grew to have 40 or 50 members” (28).</p> <p>“I came from the sports funding sector and I know that a change in government could lead to a change in sports policy- so it is a constantly changing climate” (Head Office- Interviewee 8).</p>

Overall, the CR perspective reveals that the process of legacy production may require greater integration of VSCs as stakeholders, by taking into consideration their diverse capacities and willingness to engage in the legacy process. This integration should start in the planning stage of a SMEs to build identification with legacy objectives and recognise resistance or VSC capacity issues. A more detailed discussion of these results and how the CR approach builds on existing knowledge of SMEs is now provided.

5.3 Policy Created via a Top-Down Approach

At the material level of reality, the production of legacy can be investigated through formal systems, structures, organisations and programmes that have been put in place. Many different material aspects used to aid legacy creation were evident, such as programmes outlined in the WSPs. Formal mechanisms were used to ensure effective leveraging, these were concentrated at the top, through policy and NGB initiatives. The process was top-down and VSCs were not required to suggest mechanisms or innovative ways to increase participation. This was illustrated throughout many of the interviews, as coaches felt disconnected from the policy and strategy creation used for leveraging, highlighting a constraining factor. Club 15 states “we’d be looking up stuff on the internet, training session ideas off the internet. That is sort of an issue with [the NGB] they didn’t see what we needed”. This was echoed by many interviewees, as they suggested:

“The sport works because of these volunteers and the [NGB] have alienated them, and I think don’t provide them with enough support on what they want and how they want it to work. So how are they meant to implement these programmes to achieve the policy objectives without this guidance.... major communication issues” (club 23).

Without undertaking consultation with clubs and allowing them to engage in this material layer of leveraging, how can legacy be effectively produced without understanding the characteristics, attitudes and capacity of VSCs? This lack of club engagement may illustrate a limiting factor of legacy production and suggests that a more proactive approach is needed. A few interviewees recognised the importance of

club consultation; “I think with the clubs, [the NGB] could have got them involved in the run-up to the Olympics” (club 25). One individual stated that:

“Traditionally, we have a very poor relationship with our club network. They have high expectations and low opinion of our staff, our brand and of our objectives. Although this is getting better it is still an on-going struggle which can make implementing a NGB policy or project very difficult” (Head Office- interviewee 2).

One NGB has taken this a step further to ensure effective leveraging and in their new WSP documentation (2013-2017) they have actively tried to address this issue. They strategically placed regional staff and have identified positive results in VSC participation figures. This will be highlighted later in the chapter. The limited engagement that clubs perceived between themselves and the NGB is a common issue and was emphasised in a study by Taylor, Barrett and Nichols (2010).

5.4 Media and Post Event Capitalisation

Clubs identify media as an essential element of leveraging desired legacy outcomes. This is firstly due to the fact it “raised the profile” (Head Office- Interviewee 8) of the sport and provided a unique chance to showcase sports to a mass audience. “I’m convinced that the OG gave [our sport] the largest opportunity it has ever had... the impact of those 2 weeks of TV coverage was more than it has had in the last 40 years” (Head Office- Interviewee 8). The external media and press surrounding the 2012 Games were highlighted as critical factors to raise awareness and inspire interest in these sports. It was the capitalisation through social media outlets (Facebook and Twitter) and the club website itself that were suggested as critical to legacy production.

Out of the 25 club coaches interviewed, 17 individuals were already using social media linked to their clubs. They could use this easily as a tool to increase participation within their clubs, as a conscious leveraging strategy by highlighting taster sessions, beginners’ sessions and the awareness of their club’s existence. However, eight of the interviewees did not use social media at all, and one club coach stated that they tried to use it, yet as they started the process too late, it proved

ineffective: “We tried it, but I was not very good and started the profile too late” (Club 3). An additional interviewee stressed that “it has raised the profile of the club a bit and we have done the Facebook thing and advertised more than we had done before” (Club 1), possibly highlighting that when the marketing network or platform was already in place, the extra pressure on volunteers or coaches were limited, reducing the need to implement new practices in the short term; and media platforms may provide more efficiency to VSCs as part of a long-term pre-event leveraging strategy. Taks, Chalip and Green (2015) identified the importance of integrating event leveraging strategies into existing marketing and management strategies.

Interestingly, out of the seven NGB senior managers interviewed only one interviewee highlighted the importance of social media and how they were actively trying to encourage the use of it, by promoting its use within the club network to coaches. This general lack of guidance from the NGB to the VSCs and limited awareness of the benefits meant that some coaches were not supported or aware of some leveraging opportunities: “We should have had posters, flyers and banners up promoting [our athlete...] the ship has sailed. [The NGB] could have done so much to build the sport up, but the truth is the organisation was just not prepared” (Club 23).

The importance of this support network from the NGB to the VSCs is also echoed through the social layer of reality with the diversity of coaches and staff involved with NGB. Of the 25 coaches that were interviewed, 12 had full time jobs outside of the sports sector and 13 were either full time coaches or worked within the sports development field. This plethora of individuals working within the same sport reinforced the difficulties in implementing the same practices across clubs and how consultation would provide a better understanding of what VSCs need support.

5.5 Small NGB Capacity

Organisational capacity is a major concern and limiting factor especially when looking to expand and grow a sport. This was highlighted throughout the interviews as a major concern and most likely relates to the minority nature of the sports themselves within England. One interviewee states:

“I think they [UK government] perhaps over generalised the capacity and ability of NGBs to accommodate new participants. For example, a small niche sport like us is going to have greatly reduced capacity in contrast to cycling or swimming. In all honesty as an organisation and as a sport the Olympics probably came 8-10 years too soon for us. We were still in the process of building lots of systems from scratch whilst having to deal with the extra work of preparing for a home Olympics” (Head Office-Interviewee 2).

This illustrates the difficulties felt by non-popular NGBs (Table 6), as they were unable to keep up with demand and provide enough resources to support the development and growth of the sport. This can lead to a knock-on effect within the club network: “without coaches you can’t [...] increase the participation. You can’t throw them into a club without helping them and you can’t do that with a visit once a year. We do not have that system in place, so how can legacy develop?” (Club 22). This is a limiting factor of the top-down implementation method as there is a heavy reliance on the top at the NGB level, but for the smaller sports, there was not the infrastructure and resources to support the needs and development of the VSC network itself.

5.6 Competitive Sports Sector

As highlighted in the previous chapter funding for NGBs is provided by SE through its WSP application process and this funding is not guaranteed. Each sport has to submit a WSP and to meet certain targets in order to receive the funding. This causes competition, despite the broadly common aims of the NGBs. As one interviewee noted, “those 46 Sport England funded NGBs- we all do and focus on participation, and all NGBs are vastly the same animals but just on a different scale, [but we] are challenged by bigger more established NGBs” (Head Office-Interviewee 8). The competition generated by the funding model distracts and detracts from the common objective of increasing grass-root participation. Thus, NGBs are “fighting against each other. The whole aim is to get people active and it shouldn’t matter whether that’s in fencing [or] athletics [all sports are] vying for the same pot of money” (Head Office- interviewee 2).

5.7 Legacy and Individuals' Role in its Creation.

The data suggests consistency across all stakeholders interviewed regarding their perceptions towards SMEs, as all believe legacies exist. This is the first step in being able to leverage a participation legacy, as the key individuals that play a role in its creation must believe it exists. All interviewees saw the importance of the SMEs profile and 'material' advantages to build and support the development of a legacy were possible. For example, "I just want to get more people playing sport and the Olympics gave us a platform and extra resources to build a legacy" (Club 9). Furthermore, Club 8 states they "wouldn't be sitting right here if it was not for 2012, the initial uptake and funding" (Club 11). This highlights the (material) opportunities that the SMEs provided, as a tangible factor to assist leveraging. This is emphasised further when interconnected with the positive disposition of these grass-root delivery agents, which is evident in the social layer of CR. The social backgrounds and ideologies that CR allows one to account for, play a major role in how individuals understand and engage with the leveraging process.

Individuals were unsure about their role in the legacy production process, and if individuals were unsure what they were implementing to how to achieve the best outcomes. "It is the idea of taking what happened in the Olympics and making your club develop. You were really left to use your own ideas and try to promote your club to create the Olympic legacy..." (Club 25). This is a possible side effect of NGBs that demonstrates a limited capacity, as illustrated in Table 6. Due to the limited capabilities and resources, distance was felt between the NGB and VSCs. Also, it was unclear to respondents what their role in legacy production was, which led to a more individualised, localised approach. One interviewee noted that "coaches...do it because we love the sport and want to help grow the sport. Without the support of the NGB, how are we meant to do that? This is why we end up...doing our own thing" (Club 23). Others stressed "Communication... what communication!" (Club 22). This awareness of the legacy objective, but limited understanding of their individual role, echoes findings from May, Harris and Collin's (2012) study on VSCs and policy implementation.

This disconnect between the NGB and the VSCs caused problems with the implementation of the WSP legacy strategy, as a lot of the clubs were working on an

individual basis and had their own drives and beliefs that did not align with that of the NGB (artefactual and social layers of CR). This supports Bevir and Rhodes (2006) suggestion of a bottom-up approach to governance through partnerships and networks, which accounts for the individual beliefs of actors. This caused a detachment from the wider leveraging strategies, as many of the interviewees made references to using their own programmes or initiatives, instead of using the NGB programmes (see Table 6). Club 25 highlights:

“There wasn't a great deal of push to help clubs, using the Olympics to sell their clubs. I mean they put stuff on the Facebook and Instagram and Twitter... I just don't think there was much support given to the clubs. You are left to your own devices, you have to use your own initiative really”.

Club 7 highlights that they did use some of the NGB programmes, yet this was also limited, as “we used the [NGB] programme for tasters... We didn't use the others because they didn't advertise it well to us or tell us what it's used for”. This emphasises the need to increase the support and guidance by the NGB to ensure a joint up, national approach to legacy production through leveraging. The negative perceptions of VSCs need to be addressed to ensure that the individuals feel supported and part of the NGB's legacy process. Currently, strategies created via the top-down approach may not be the most efficient and are possibly limiting the long-term effectiveness of leveraging.

One NGB head office staff member (interviewee 26) has identified this issue and started to adapt their strategy for the 2013-2017 WSP, based on feedback from clubs and coaches:

“The clubs... giving the focus and heart of the participation back to the clubs and providing them with the infrastructure and resources to be able to run the participation based programmes. So, the regional managers do an audit of the clubs in their zones and talk to the clubs and find out what their challenges are individually as each club is going to be different. So, segmenting and looking at the different characteristics of the clubs and saying right you have these issues, there are these programmes, these funding streams, these opportunities to deal with those issues”.

The advantages of employing regional managers as part of the NGBs 2013-2017, WSP strategy was illustrated by one respondent:

“Our involvement with [the NGB] was very good over the years and we still have involvement with them. There’s a gentleman who’s based in Manchester who I deal with a lot at [the NGB] ...There’s still a lot of input from the governing body even now, given what we’re doing, the national league push for the club...they are very proactive and very helpful.” (Club 32)

This reinforces the beneficial impact of a more localised approach, to improve communication and engagement between the NGB and VSC. The competitive nature of club engagement was also highlighted, as the focus by the VSCs towards the national league was suggested to be a contributing factor to the engagement. Therefore, the ideal and artefactual level of reality demonstrates that it is important to understand different stakeholder’s perception as to whether legacy exists or not (ideal layer of CR). Then additionally to recognise why they hold these views (artefactual) and what factors they attribute to facilitating or constraining legacy production. The interviewees in our dataset were already involved in one of the non-popular sports and although interviewees reported an overall improvement in the participation within their sport (Appendix 5), it would be interesting to investigate this further and talk to those ‘new participants’ to uncover the factors that led them to join and for how long. At this level of analysis, it is important to gain an understanding of the individuals involved in the legacy production and the characteristics and engagement those stakeholders display. Having this insight into the coaches, their attitudes and opinions can lead to an improvement in governance and organisational advancement within the NGB.

5.8 Importance of Informal Legacy

Interviewees stated that for a legacy to be produced and sustained it is vital to have an open and flexible approach to legacy creation. This is critical for the diversity of coaches and participants involved, but also to account for facilitates that may or

may not be available. One interviewee stated that “We know that the sport is developing if at one point we don't adapt ... it is just counter-productive” (Club 13). We “moved sessions around which is not ideal because we can't get a full-size court and that left the other session to be more foundation, social and open to anyone, that flexibility was needed” (Club 28). Whilst another coach highlighted their club “caters for a lot of different abilities. Some people can only cope with an hour and then they have had enough... Some are competitive and others not” (Club 1).

These are all examples of how coaches are adapting to the difficulties associated with a lack of resources, whilst catering for a variety of groups within those resource constraints. As they are having to become flexible in their approaches to overcome the constraining factors in the legacy production process, such as limited facilities, the duration and ability levels within the sessions. As without that flexibility, legacy production would not be as effective or possible in many cases. A willingness to be flexible and adopt informal approaches where necessary, would be a key recommendation from this study for those looking to leverage a participation increase from an SME. This flexibility within the community sports sector, is critical to ensure legacy production and may highlight a possible development within the leveraging literature, as greater investigation is needed into the techniques of how it occurs (Chalip, 2014). As this need for informal adaptation and flexibility to strategies and initiatives does not fit into the ‘planned’ dimension of leveraging and it highlights a complexity with understanding the difficulty and effectiveness of the leveraging processes.

5.9 Collaborations and Partnerships

Many interviewees highlighted the importance of creating relationships and partnerships with the 49 CSPs and external organisations, as the aim of these mechanisms is to ensure the legacy long-term. One Head Office interviewee states “we have just developed a relationship with two national partners. This makes sure that [the sport] is available and accessible in the summer months”. The coaches highlighted their innovative and collaborative methods:

“I made connections with a school to use their facility. I do a lot of work in primary schools; they can pay with ring-fenced money [school sports premium] this allows me to do stuff with secondary schools and adults, who can’t pay” (Club 13).

These collaborations link to the possible sustainability of legacy, due to the competitive nature of the sports climate, in which sports are all fighting for the same funding stream. This issue was raised repeatedly during the interviews, as individuals felt their sport needed to be working with other “minor sports” with a “joined up approach” (Club 12). This was echoed by the NGB Head Office interviewee who stated that through the Olympic period their NGB was joining together with other NGBs to “share resources and ideas”, to ensure these “smaller NGBs” can survive. This suggests an adaptation by smaller NGBs to enhance their processes and partnerships not only within the sport itself but with other minority sports, to safeguard the legacy long term and ensure sustainability (Table 6). This raises possible issues surrounding VSC and NGB capacity, which supports similar findings by Doherty, Misener and Cuskelly (2013). The NGB interviewees’ ‘social’ disposition allowed these adaptations to occur on a national scale, due to the individuals’ business mindset, perhaps emphasising the importance of correct staff recruitment to ensure effective leveraging.

One of the NGBs re-launched their website to enhance resources, knowledge and preparation in the lead up to the Games. This forward thinking and clever governance from the NGB reinforces the importance of utilising the tangible resources to ensure the legacy is continual and that smaller NGBs could survive. This echoes findings by Taks, Chalip and Green (2015) within the context of non-mega sporting events, who highlight the importance of creating local partnerships and coordinating efforts, as these are vital processes to create desired outcomes.

5.10 Diversity of Coaches

Table 6 highlights the diversity and range of individuals who are involved in these four non-popular NGBs. Firstly, at a national level, one of the NGB senior managers sees the sport from a commercial ‘business’ perspective, with previous

relevant employment (Head Office- Interviewee 8). This senior manager was clear on the vision to professionalise the sport, as their social perspective was business focused. Whereas, other top executives that have played the sport at the elite level and have transferred to the organisational side may have different viewpoints. Through the social' layer - personal ideology, involvement and experience are evident in every aspect of the legacy planning, with one interviewee noting that “my main motivation for working in the sports sector is that it is my biggest passion... I played at a very high level in my youth” (Head Office-Interviewee 2).

Investigating one Interviewee, as a case study, Interviewee 8 stated it was important to be “clever” with the public funding given within the WSP funding, focusing on “strengthening local partnerships” and “expanding the NGB workforce” to create “legacy sustainability”. The emphasis was on modernisation and the use of social media “emails, Facebook...Tweet” and “customers”, gaining an insight into their needs. Modernisation has been investigated within sports policy and governance literature (Houlihan and Green, 2009), with the Cunningham Report (2001) proposing the need for NGBs to modernise. This is critical due to the “competitive climate in the sports sector” which has led to NGB collaboration and partnerships. Interviewee 8, a CEO states they see the “importance of sharing resources” to secure the legacy of the sport. To make this modernisation possible Interviewee 8 identified the importance of recruiting specialised staff to run the organisation as a business, rather than people who just “love” the sport. This could lead to tensions with the club network if not communicated effectively, constraining legacy production. This highlights a core determinant of legacy production: commercial innovation and the professionalisation of the organisations. “NGBs like us are starting to broaden their outlook- so we need trained marketers and people with a broad range of skills to run [like] a business” (Head Office- interviewee 8), this will ensure the effective leveraging of a long-term legacy, rather than a short-term burst of activity.

Furthermore, the identification of the coaches' career position had an impact on certain material factors, as Club 9 states “I know how to get the funding because it is what I do as a day job; it's my job to look for that stream of funding and to tick all the boxes”. However, not all coaches have this mind set or professional advantage, as the coach from Club 14 highlights “I don't know about this funding... I just don't know! [I need] more support and confidence to do it, I am a civil servant I don't know

what a hub club is; I just want to coach the sport”. This illustrates one of the difficulties and limitations of legacy creation, with such a diverse voluntary base, in terms of motivations, knowledge and experience. This reinforces the beneficial use of CR as a method to analyse the multifaceted layers associated with legacy production, organisational governance and the delivery agents involved.

5.11 Results: Impact for Research and Practice

The CR perspective suggests that the process of leveraging takes place on multiple levels of reality, through different stakeholders and groups. This could highlight a way in which CR could be used to better understand the process of leveraging. It provides a framework through the layers of reality, to “flesh out the techniques for leverage” (Chalip, 2014, p.10). Policy makers used VSCs as a critical component in the planned objective to leverage a participation legacy. Research has highlighted the difficulties with this due to the complexity and divergent objectives within these organisations (May, Harris and Collins, 2013).

Data presented in the current study supports this notion and provides evidence to highlight specific factors that influence legacy production. The use of social media being one, as for clubs not currently using social media, it may be less effective for them to start using social media platforms reactively, to enhance participation during SMEs. As most successes were seen within clubs that actively used social media, before the SMEs and frequently updated their websites, highlighting a leveraged strategy (See Appendix 5). NGBs and sports organisations that are looking to produce a legacy should be encouraging clubs to start promotion through social media during the event, if the opportunities were not utilised before the SMEs, to effectively leverage the media attention that the SMEs stimulate.

Furthermore, VSCs and coaches may need to have greater integration as stakeholders and be in consultation with NGBs prior to a SMEs. This is critical to aid legacy production through leveraging, due to the diversity not only with club capacity and characteristics, but also due to the variety of coaches themselves (social layer of reality). This reinforces the suggestion by Weed (2008) that there is a ‘pregnancy period’ pre-SMEs, which is significant for leveraging PA, sport and health legacies. Grix’s (2012) study into image leveraging supported the use of a long-term, pre-event

leveraging strategy, 'pregnancy period', which could be seen as the early stage of a legacy plan. This would allow identification of club characteristics, capacity and willingness to engage in the legacy process itself. The CR perspective highlights that the process of legacy production is not just influenced by the tangible, formal policies, structures and procedures in place, but is dependent upon how individual actors perceive those structures and when they are introduced into the existing operations of sport clubs.

The data highlights that VSCs already manage their activities under considerable resource constraints and additional changes or expectations due to a SMEs are not always desirable. We recommend that policy makers take a longer-term view of their relationship with VSCs. This will ensure that there is not a plethora of change required around SMEs but that a continuous and sustainable relationship is built, which considers the needs of the VSC, as well as, the needs of policy and government. Related to this, data indicates that there is considerable difficulty (due to diversity) in implementing planned legacies, but there is also considerable opportunity for unplanned legacies which may be beneficial to communities and VSC. There needs to be further research into how sport organisations manage innovations and opportunities related to participation and legacy production. VSC membership has remained fairly static since 2007/08, and some sports involved in the participation legacy demonstrate extremely low club membership figures on the APS, e.g. only 2.9% of cyclists are club members (Sport England, 2015). These low club memberships mean some sports NGBs have a limited reach across the national population. Thus, a joint approach may have been more desirable to achieve the sports participation legacy effectively, by utilising local authorities to widen the opportunities for participation. This could have enhanced the sports participation legacy, rather than the predominant reliance by policy makers on having NGBs at the 'heart' of the legacy plans.

5.12 Conclusion

The fundamental aim of CR is explanation. Why do certain events occur or not? The CR framework uses multiple levels of reality and gives order to the many facets of the legacy phenomenon, and suggests an exploratory data analysis method

through which the process of leveraging can be examined. It does this through its focus and unique perspective on structures and agents. To date, this debate has not been explored in the legacy literature and provides a valuable insight into the difficulties in achieving and leveraging legacy outcomes.

Agents produce and reproduce the structures which constrain and enable their action but are not without power to resist pressures from the structures they created. Structures are the ‘relatively enduring institutionalised relationships between social positions and practices located at different levels of analysis that constrain actors’ capacities to “make a difference” (Reed, 1997, p. 25). The critical realist perspective views structures and agents as factors that in combination determine the outcomes of social phenomena. Hence, when investigating the participation outcomes, that formed part of London 2012 legacy plans these cannot be understood or explained fully just by analysing the structures. Agents play a critical role in their evolution, as shown through the complexities of legacy operationalisation.

It is important to acknowledge the complexities of the individuals involved, as well as the social and political context that the legacy is assembled within. This study highlights the possibilities and benefits of using CR to explore concepts surrounding leveraging, by moving past the traditional evaluation of outcomes and starting to look more holistically at the processes of legacy creation.

Chapter 6- Results and Analysis of NGB Employee Survey

6.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the participant sample for the study and details the results from the descriptive analysis and qualitative components of the survey. The purpose of this study was to understand how NGBs aimed to capitalise on an SME to produce a sports participation legacy, as well as, investigating NGB employees' opinions and attitudes towards the London 2012 Games. The research set out to understand their role in the initiatives and strategies implemented. This was achieved through the examination of the participation policy implementation process, from its creation to the delivery within the network of VSCs. Finally, this allowed possible recommendations to emerge, which may aid the way sports organisations create and implement sports policy and participation strategies in the future. These results highlight the attitudes and perceptions of the individuals that were involved within the NGBs, the main delivery agent chosen to support the legacy objectives of London 2012.

6.2 Sample Context and Data Collection

As previously highlighted, a total of 105 responses were received during this research. For the quantitative questions within this survey there were no missing values, as all questions were mandatory. Yet, for some of the qualitative questions and demographic data there were some missing data points. Even though in absolute terms this sample size appears small, there is a limited population size of senior and regional managers that work within NGBs, who met the criteria for this study. The focus was to gain an insight into the opinions and attitudes of the senior and regional managers involved within the 46 funded NGBs, this resulted in 402 possible respondents. Therefore, the response rate of 26% (105 participants) was deemed acceptable for the

empirical analysis. Results obtained were from 37 out of 46⁶ Sport England funded sports resulting in an 83% response rate across the sports targeted. As such, this sample provided a satisfactory response rate from the possible population sample, across both the sports targeted, as well as, the proportion of individuals who completed the survey.

As outlined in the methods section (Chapter 3), NGB sports development senior or regional managers were identified through their NGB's national webpage. Once identified, participants were sent an email invitation to participate in the online survey, which was hosted by BOS. It is worth noting that within the sector there is a high turnover of staff, thus many individuals may not have been in post pre-London 2012. Even though this is important to note, the problem is unavoidable and is one of the issues that affects long term planning and research within the sector. Furthermore, due to the sampling criteria there are only a limited number of individuals that hold a relevant position within an NGB. In addition, some NGBs were unable to participate due to limited staff capacity and time constraints. These factors were considered by the researcher and the resulting response rate of 26% was deemed to be satisfactory for analysis, considering the particularities of the sample.

6.3 Demographic Data on NGB Participants

Table 7 outlines the participants' characteristics and this data provides an insight into the demographic variables such as gender, age, employment type and length of employment allowing an initial indication of the sample's characteristics and possible trends.

⁶ 5 of these 46 sports were unable to participate, due to multiple reasons such as staff capacity, existing research commitments, time constraints and the number of research requests received.

Table 7- Demographic data on NGB participants

Variable	Categories	Percentage (%)	Frequency
Gender	Male	68.6	105
	Female	31.4	
Age	18-24	3.8	105
	25-34	39	
	35-44	19	
	45-59	33.3	
	60-69	4.8	
Type of Sport	Olympic or Paralympic	67	103
	Non-Olympic or Paralympic	33	
Employment Type	CEO	13.3	99
	National manager	52.4	
	Regional manager	28.6	
Duration in position	0-1 year	33	103
	2-3 years	29.1	
	4-5 years	6.8	
	5+ years	31.1	
Worked for NGB junior position	Yes	36.2	105
	No	63.8	
Sport	badminton	3.8	4
	baseball/softball	2.9	3
	golf	2.9	3
	basketball	1.9	2
	handball	4.8	5
	judo	6.7	7
	rowing	4.8	5
	lacrosse	4.8	5
	table tennis	4.8	5
	netball	5.7	6
	rounders	1.0	1
	exercise, movement + dance	3.8	4
	weight lifting	5.7	6
	rugby League	1.0	1
	volleyball	4.8	5
	orienteering	2.9	3
	shooting	1.0	1
	tennis	1.0	1

	equestrian	2.9	3
	bowls	1.9	2
	archery	2.9	3
	wheelchair rugby	1.0	1
	squash and racketball	1.0	1
	canoeing	1.0	1
	goalball	1.0	1
	water-ski and wakeboarding	1.9	2
	boxing	1.0	1
	cricket	1.9	2
	hockey	1.9	2
	wrestling	1.0	1
	fencing	1.0	1
	athletics	4.8	5
	swimming ASA	5.7	6
	wheelchair basketball	1.0	1
	taekwondo	1.0	1
	cycling	1.0	1
	angling	1.0	1
			(n= 103)

The respondent's employment type was split into three main categories: CEOs, national managers and regional development managers. The decision to include the regional managers was due to the senior manager's highlighting the important knowledge that regional development officers have, as they are closer to implementation process within the VSC. This is especially important in cases where the NGB head office had high levels of staff turnover. Six respondents did not specify their position, reducing the sample to 99 completed data sets. These responses were made up of 13.3% CEOs, 52.4% national managers, 28.6% regional managers and 5.7% missing (6 non-respondents).

The length of time each individual has spent in post, was useful to see how long an individual has been involved with the participation strategies and legacy plans that were created and implemented by each NGB. Staff turnover is quite common with the tourism, sport and voluntary sectors, with multiple causes, including staff progression, funding changes and a lack of skill development, (Corfe, 2014; Sport

NSW, 2016). Yet, within senior roles movement is less likely; as there is ‘limited turnover of high-ranking executives’, meaning that employees’ upward mobility can be slow due to the limited positions available (Wong, 2009, p.3).

The data highlighted that there was variation regarding respondents’ duration in post, similar to what was noted within the literature. Two respondents did not give their duration of employment, resulting in 103 useable data sets. The survey data was collected between February and June 2015, meaning that individuals that were in post pre-or during the London 2012 Games would have had to have been in post for 3+ years. 37% of respondents have been in post for 4+ years, whilst 61% of individuals had only being in post for between 0-3 years, (2% missing data points). Yet, it is worth noting that 36% of these respondents did work for the NGB in a junior position, prior to their current CEO, senior or regional manager role. This could mean they may have been strongly involved in the development and/or implementation of the participation policy strategies and legacy programmes, in a junior position. Other demographic analysis highlighted that respondents’ gender was predominantly male, 69% compared to 31% female participants. Yet, within the sample age appeared to be more diverse. The ages 25-34 (39%), 45-59 (33.3%) and 35-44 (19%) represented the highest values, whilst 18-24 (3.8%) and 60-69 (4.8%) were the least likely employment ages within NGBs.

6.4 Key Elements and Attitudes towards Legacy Production and the Implementation Process

Table 8 - Descriptive Analysis: Medium and IQR and Mean and SD

	Mean	S Dev	Median (Md)	IQR ⁷
We received advice and liaised with other NGBs to decide on what programmes and strategies to implement in order to increase participation	3.82	1.39	4	3,5
I was pleased with the financial support provided by Sport England in the build-up to the Games	4.43	1.53	4	4,6
The clubs were fully aware and understood our participation strategies and programmes	4.49	1.35	5	4,6
I understood the requirements placed on us by Sport England in our responsibility to increase grass-root participation	5.84	1.15	6	6,7
I was pleased with the financial support provided by Sport England after the Games	4.78	1.61	5	4,6
The specific monitoring by Sport England has made our organisation more efficient	4.37	1.70	5	3,6
I felt satisfied with the funding opportunities that hosting the Games brought to our sport	4.62	1.72	5	4,6
Our organisation implemented specific participation programmes/strategies to make the most of the Games	4.73	1.52	5	4,6
I feel the Games provided us with a unique opportunity to show-case our sport	5.86	1.93	7	6,7
I felt satisfied with the level of guidance provided by Sport England in the build-up to the Games	4.28	1.38	4	4,5
Voluntary clubs had the necessary financial resources to successfully implement our programmes and meet participation objectives	3.54	1.47	4	2,5
Implementation of our participation programmes was consistent across our club network	4.12	1.47	4	3,5
I am satisfied with the APS (or your alternative) as an evaluative method from which our funding is decided	3.32	1.78	3	2,5
I felt satisfied with the level of guidance provided by Sport England after the Games	4.48	1.44	4	4,6
We fully engaged clubs with the programmes that were created to increase participation levels	4.50	1.40	4	4,6

⁷ The IQR represents the 25th percentile and the 75th percentile for each scale item

Voluntary clubs had the necessary guidance to successfully implement our programmes and meet participation objectives	4.07	1.46	4	3,5
The APS monitoring and evidence needed by Sport England has improved our research and insight into our participation programmes and client demographics	4.22	1.69	4	3,6
Knowledge transfer from the NGB to the clubs regarding the successes and failures of our participation programmes occurred	4.18	1.39	4	4,5
The nation's expectations surrounding the Olympic objective of increasing participation, provided an opportunity for us to inspire people to take up the sport	6.00	1.31	6	6,7
If we were to host the Games again I would not change our community sports strategy and approach * ⁸	4.55	1.61	5	4,6
We created and planned participation strategies and programmes to ensure we could capitalise on the Games	4.87	1.51	5	4,6
We were happy to share our successes with other NGBs, even with the competitive nature of funding within the English sports system	5.40	1.17	6	4,6
I was pleased that we were hosting the 2012 Olympic Games	6.84	.42	7	7,7
I feel that the Whole Sport Plan, 4-year funding cycles have been beneficial to help us focus and set development targets for our sport	5.38	1.25	6	5,6
I feel we achieved the grass-root participation outcomes that we set out to achieve	4.92	1.59	5	4,6
The communication between our NGB and the voluntary club network requires no improvements	5.26	1.21	5	4,6
The plan to host the London 2012 Games was taken without considering the capability and ability for us (NGBs) to support the participation objective*	4.11	1.62	4	3,6
I was in full support of the London 2012 Olympic Games	6.75	.56	7	7,7

⁸ The three variables with the * were transformed at the point of analysis through SPSS, from the negative wording to more positive wording, ensuring consistency between all scale items.

6.5 Descriptive Statistics

6.6 Attitudes and Objectives towards London 2012

The variables outlined in Table 8 were used to measure the attitudes and opinions of the participants towards the 2012 Games. These questions were created to reflect the lack of current considerations for this area as identified in the literature. Limited research so far has investigated the perceptions of NGBs managers towards hosting SMEs (Frawley, Toohey and Veal, 2013). As mentioned within the literature review the focus previously has been on organisational structure with specific reference to Theodoraki and Henry (1994) and Taylor and O'Sullivan (2009). The review also critiqued research into organisation effectiveness and performance (Bayle and Robinson, 2007; Papadimitriou and Taylor, 2000). The current research reviewed failed to investigate the opinions of these stakeholders in relation to SMEs and how they aimed to leverage an increase in participation. Bloyce and Smith (2009) suggest that sports development research is predominantly prescriptive, describing an ideal world rather than focusing on explaining how sports development and policy exist and are delivered in practice.

Each of the variables or 'likert items' in the survey were measured on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. As highlighted earlier both the median and IQR and mean and SD are presented in the table above, due to the individual Likert items being treated as ordinal variables. Yet, mean and SD are presented also due to the use of EFA and MANOVA in the latter stages of the research. This provides uniformity throughout the results. The scale item that gained the strongest agreement related to the attitudes of participants and their satisfaction and support for the hosting of the 2012 Games. This is important to note, as individuals were pleased that London was hosting the 2012 Games ($M= 6.84$, $SD= 0.42$) and were in full support of the event ($M= 6.75$, $SD= 0.56$). The Standard Deviation (SD) represents the consistency within the results (range 5-7) and this reflects the positive attitudes felt by these managers that were and are instrumental in the planning and delivery of the London 2012 Games and its associated participation legacy. Most respondents felt that the Games provided them with a unique opportunity to showcase their sport ($M= 5.86$, $SD= 1.93$), with 82% of respondents selecting between slightly-

strongly agree (range 5-7). Respondents who highlighted either a neutral or disagreement value (18%) all worked for a non-Olympic or non-Paralympic sport. This could provide an explanation for the varying SD values, due to the differing views that are held by certain participants. This reinforces the limited opportunities that non-Olympic sport employees felt they had, to capitalise on the London 2012 Games.

These views were voiced in the qualitative elements of this survey, as many respondents that worked for a non-Olympic sport were disinterested as it was “not overly relevant to us not being an Olympic Sport in 2012” (respondent 39- national manger). Others echoed this opinion suggesting that as “[our sport] isn’t an Olympic sport... difficult to take advantage” (Respondent 60- regional manager). It is “not specifically relevant to our NGB, but we endeavour to share best practice... and scale up successful projects when they occur” (respondent 46- national manger). This highlights the difficulty for non-Olympic sports to feel part of the legacy production and to capitalise on the opportunities that this mega-event can bring. This issue was further stressed by the CEO of a non-Olympic sport who stated:

“I represent a non-Olympic sport and therefore we were not included in the central planning for the legacy programme. We were consulted with as to how we could assist in our priority areas with the Olympic legacy programme but this was done at a local level and not national co-ordinated apart from internally by us. We held informal conversations with other NGBs but we were not involved in co-ordinated conversations” (Respondent 76).

This illustrates a possible limitation with regards to the centralised involvement provided by the policy making organisations (SE and DCMS) to engage with policy translation and strategy creation bodies, such as the NGBs. This strategy to utilise sports both included and excluded in London 2012 in the legacy production and delivery process resulted in a negative opinion held by the senior managers of non-participating sports. They felt a lack of joint involvement; they felt isolated in many cases, stating legacy production was done locally and ‘internally by us’; rather than collectively by the sports system. This in some cases transitioned to the club network, “as our sport was cut from the Olympics for 2012 so some clubs were not interested in anything Olympic” (Respondent 3- regional manager).

Interestingly, the public expectations surrounding London 2012 and the outlined legacy promise aiming to increase participation was highlighted by the respondents as an opportunity to inspire people to take up their sport ($M= 6.00$, $SD= 1.31$). Similarly, results showing disagreement (7%) were all employees working for a non-Olympic or non-Paralympic NGB. The standards and objectives for how the planned legacy would be achieved by hosting a SME were outlined by SE. This highlighted the central role that NGBs were to play in this legacy production, to increase grass root participation.

Most respondents felt they understood the requirements that were placed on them by SE ($M= 5.84$, $SD= 1.15$). 82% of participants agreed, whilst 16% of participants held a neutral opinion and 2% disagreed. Out of this 18% (neutral 16% and disagreement 2%), 15% of participants that gave these responses were not in post during or pre-London 2012 Games meaning they may have had limited knowledge of the participation requirements that were set by SE. Van Meter and Van Horn (1975) state that effective policy implementation is more achievable when there is agreement between policy makers and implementers of that objective. Yet, as highlighted in Chapter (5) and in previous work by May, Harris and Collins (2012) a disconnect was shown with regards to the knowledge of and acceptance of policy between these groups (NGBs and VSCs).

6.7 Club Engagement and Implementation

The community sports system is a network of organisations, VSC and individuals that all need to understand what is required and expected of them to meet the specific legacy objective of increasing participation. Respondents were split by employment into Olympic and Paralympic and non-Olympic or non-Paralympic sports. This allowed analysis of specific elements relating to the capitalisation and strategy creation around London 2012 and the opinions held by the two groups. Previous research has been undertaken from the perspective of VSCs, investigating the problems and challenges with inter-organisation engagement and communication (Harris, Mori and Collins, 2009; May, Harris and Collins, 2012). However, to date, limited research has examined the associated policy and processes aiming to produce a legacy.

When reflecting on planning and the creation of specific programmes to increase grass-root participation, opinions were fairly consistent. The results showed that employees based within Olympic or Paralympic sports highlighted slight agreement with their ability to plan and create programmes to increase participation ($M= 5.23$, $SD= 1.42$) compared to the non-Olympic and non-Paralympic employees ($M= 4.12$, $SD= 1.46$). Furthermore, implementation of these specific participation programmes and strategies highlighted that employees working for sports that participated in London 2012 presented slight agreement ($M= 5.07$, $SD= 1.46$) compared to the non-Olympic and Paralympic employees ($M= 4.03$, $SD= 1.45$). This could suggest that even though all NGBs had to submit WSPs and were core to SE's policy objectives to increase participation; sports that were not part of the SME held no strong feelings about their role in the capitalisation process regarding programme creation and implementation. This may provide some initial insights into NGB managers' perceptions of SMEs and possible legacy production when they themselves are not directly involved in the event.

This detachment from the 2012 Games that non- mega-event participating NGBs felt was also illustrated in attitudes towards the plan to host the event. When respondents were asked whether the plan to host the Games considered the capacity and ability of NGBs to support the participation objective non-Olympic and non-Paralympic employees highlighted disagreement with the statement ($M= 3.68$, $SD= 1.34$), compared to a neutral value expressed by London 2012 participating NGBs ($M= 4.31$, $SD= 1.70$). These results suggest that no respondents agreed that the ability and capacity of their organisations was considered with regards to the legacy objective of increasing participation. Yet, the sports not participating in the mega-event represented a more negative viewpoint.

Participants perceptions towards the process and effectiveness of the participation programmes they implemented to achieve the legacy objective, club engagement and implementation were suggested to be the main issues. Firstly, club engagement issues were met with strong feelings by NGB staff, relating to the attitude of the grass-root implementers (club coaches and volunteers). Many highlighted that clubs have a negative attitude towards NGBs and this was a key cause for the lack of club engagement with the NGB policies and strategies to increase participation. "Not all clubs wanted to engage" (Respondent 20- national manager) and "clubs had a

distrust of the NGB, personalities often come into play in a voluntary run organisation” (Respondent 91- regional manager). Alongside this, two practical issues were identified by the respondents. Firstly, not all clubs are part of the NGB strategy and implementation network. One national manager states “clubs weren’t a major feature of our participation strategy” (Respondent 36). It can “depend on the county targets” whether clubs are engaged (Respondent 31- regional manager) and this was reinforced by respondents, who noted that even though clubs were part of the strategy, this did not align with certain coaches objectives for the club. For Example:

“Participation increases in 14-25 does not meet the interest or needs of all of our clubs. Many clubs wish and feel it is necessary to focus on participation at the 9-14 age bracket to then retain participants at 16+” (Respondent 43- national manager).

The statement above echoes the findings from Harris, Mori and Collins’ (2009) research, which highlighted issues with the top-down policy processes such as a lack of consensus and involvement felt with the policy itself. This reinforces the need to strengthen inter-organisational communication between the NGB and VSCs, so clubs feel more supported and engaged. Secondly, it was also suggested that some coaches are not qualified, as one regional manager highlights their “clubs are run typically by working class people, builders etc. I think a lot of them didn’t understand certain terms and what is being asked of them” (Respondent 28- regional manager). One individual felt that within their club structure, not all coaches held the appropriate qualification. For example: “don’t all have level 2 coaches and as most of our programmes dictate a level 2 must be involved in delivery, then some clubs will never be able to support our programme delivery” (Respondent 23- regional manager). This illustrates two practical issues that could be improved, by firstly up skilling volunteers to ensure they have an appropriate skill level for the programmes that are created by the NGB. Secondly, by creating a database and subsequent strategy that targets VSCs based on their capabilities and characteristics, this would allow the club network to be used to its full capacity.

Similarly, to club engagement issues, concerns with the implementation process itself were raised. Negative views of coaches were again mentioned, but this time focused on their needs and beliefs linking to the social layer of reality in CR. For

example: “many clubs are very set in their ways regarding how they operate and therefore do not appreciate change or take the time to understand the reasoning for change” (Respondent 27- regional manager).

Furthermore, one CEO stated that “some club personnel did not agree it was a necessity to modernise the coaching programme” (Respondent 82). This caused an issue for the policy creators, as it caused difficulties with the implementation of NGB strategies and programmes at the VSC level. NGB staff were able to engage with clubs, but the ‘disposition of the grass root implementers’ was not aligned with the views of the policy makers and strategy formation organisations, an identified challenge when working within a diverse sports sector (May, Harris, and Collins, 2013; Taylor, Barrett and Nichols, 2009). This links with many frustrations highlighted by the VSCs in Chapter 5, in which poor communication and assistance, alongside other historical attitudes affected the likelihood of effective implementation. The other two implementation issues were more practical issues relating to resources, which will be discussed in more detail in the next section.

6.8 Resources

The main resource mentioned throughout this research and was highlighted within the literature was financial provision, to support the need for local resources and facilitates within for grass-root sport delivery system (Garrett, 2004; Nicholson, Hoye and Houlihan, 2010; Taks et al., 2013). No strong feelings were shown by the respondents with regards to the funding opportunities that hosting the Games brought their sport ($M= 4.62$, $SD= 1.72$). For the majority of the questions, resources were split into two main groups, ‘financial’ resources and ‘guidance’. These were looked at both pre-and post the Games. One issue that is worth noting is that not all respondents were in post pre-London 2012, thus many individuals selected the ‘neutral’ (scale value 4) scale point, as they may have not been aware of the resources available pre-Olympics and Paralympics.

Similar results were seen regarding the resources provided to NGBs by SE pre-and post the mega event. Satisfaction with financial support provided by SE pre-Games ($M= 4.43$, $SD= 1.53$) and post Games ($M= 4.78$, $SD= 1.61$), highlighted agreement and a small increase between the pre-and post-values. Similarly, for

satisfaction with the guidance achieved pre-Games ($M= 4.28$, $SD= 1.38$) to post Games ($M= 4.48$, $SD= 1.44$), and demonstrated a slight increase. This may suggest that minor improvements were made or felt by the NGB staff when thinking about financial support and guidance provided by SE. This is positive as these organisations are instrumental in the delivery of the participation legacy and its development and sustainability post Games. Yet, the results highlight no strong feelings by the respondents regarding agreement or disagreement. As stated earlier this could relate to the duration in post meaning that some participants had insufficient knowledge.

The provision of resources between the NGB and the club network were investigated, to understand whether they provided the delivery agencies (VSCs) with sufficient resources. Questions were holistic to get an overall view, rather than within a pre-and post-context. It was clear that respondents felt that voluntary clubs did not have the necessary financial resources to successfully implement the NGBs' programmes and the participation objectives ($M= 3.54$, $SD= 1.47$). This could suggest a possible reason for implementation issues within the club network. Participants offered a 'neither agree nor disagree' value ($M= 4.07$, $SD= 1.46$) to the question of whether VSC guidance aided their ability to implement the programme. Yet, qualitative data from the survey highlighted some of the issues with the guidance process which sheds some light on the possible reasons for this neutral value.

Respondents felt that implementation and club engagement were affected by VSC coaches and volunteers' negative views about the NGB. Two other issues raised by the respondents illustrate the reasons why the process of programme implementation was difficult. Firstly, it was not possible to engage with all clubs for practical reasons, as capacity of the NGB itself is a major limitation. Secondly, the NGBs' restricted resources meant that they did not have the capability to implement the programmes on a national scale. For example, there was a "lack of funding - we could not cover all clubs - we were working with a shoestring budget and had to work where local authorities provided local funding" (Respondent 99- regional manager). The CEO of one Olympic sport explained that because of "the resources of a small NGB... [we] tend to gravitate towards easy wins" (Respondent 87). "The clubs we worked with were engaged but we were not able to scale this up across the network" (Respondent 50- national manager). Yet, results suggested that when and where NGBs

were able to put in the resources, engagement and acceptance by the club was evident. One respondent captured the resource concern, stating that:

“Individuals’ motivations and what they want, some are extremely interested and others are not bothered. Also, resources- it is impossible for us to assist and help every club in the region so there is a tiering system and you visit clubs based on need, so some clubs may get missed or not feel supported- it is tough” (Respondent 28- regional manager).

However, it was suggested that it was critical for the NGB to focus on the target of those 'easy wins'. This meant for smaller, less developed clubs their level of isolation from the NGBs increased. This caused a negative cycle of processes between the NGB and VSC that is hard to amend, due to the current target driven system, fuelled by the Sport England funding system. As one national manager states:

“I’ve no doubt that Clubs with Clubmark status received most attention from full time staff, doubtless due to time constraints and a need to concentrate on clubs which had the most 'going for them' to obtain the best results. Therefore, smaller/less organised clubs would receive much less time and support” (Respondent 103).

Furthermore, it was the characteristics of the VSCs itself that limited or ensured the engagement and implementation of specific strategies; as due to the size of the club and the number of volunteer’s certain programmes will not be feasible to them to deliver. “Clubs are run by volunteers of varying quality and with varied amounts of time available. Those clubs with the best leadership got really engaged with implementation” (Respondent 80- national manager). The “capacity at some clubs” limits the possibly to implement (Respondent 60-CEO), as “again because of the reliance on volunteers - sports clubs themselves have limitations on just how much they can increase participation” (Respondent 65- national manager).

This highlights a future recommendation, that as well as investigating consumers and customers, that they are looking to attract to the sport, it is critical to develop a better understanding of the club network and each VSC’s characteristics. Respondents emphasised the importance of planning, since resources from the NGBs

can then be targeted into the appropriate areas. This would ensure extra resources focused on up skilling volunteers or re-building relationships with clubs for future policy implementation; “club and volunteer development is key” (Respondent 10- regional manager). One individual reinforced this need for club development and suggested a hands-on solution:

“Actually go into the local clubs and help assist with sessions, building a relationship with the clubs will help build trust between the NGB and the local clubs. Better communication means a stronger working club to help survive in the long term” (Respondent 29- regional manager).

This idea of improving the relationships between the NGB and the VSCs were referred to frequently when participants were asked about communication and the issues with implementation of the legacy policy. One respondent echoed the views of many, stating that one must ensure:

“Effective communication between NGBs, clubs, commercial delivery partners and volunteers. Pre-empt demand for sporting activity and ensure you are able to implement projects that can cope with demand prior to the Olympics not just reactively” (Respondent 27- national manager).

6.9 Communication

An overarching component that is evident and plays a role in all the themes mentioned above is communication. Organisational communication is vital to ensure clubs are fully aware of the objectives and strategies that the NGB is looking to implement through the top down policy delivery system that exists within the UK. The respondents noted the importance of communication between the NGB and the club network and when asked about whether improvements were needed between the NGB and clubs, many individuals felt this was needed ($M= 5.26$, $SD= 1.21$). This again reinforces the need to improve communication across the network. Some felt their communication as an organisation was effective, which lead to a clear understanding by the clubs of the NGBs strategy; it “was explicit and was achievable by all parties” (Respondent 6- national manager). Others illustrated how they were

overcoming this issue and highlighted their detailed support and communication lines via a regional system:

“We worked with our county associations to write delivery plans linked to our Whole Sport Plan, for their areas and put responsibilities into their hands. We helped them come in line with [our sports] governance guidelines to ensure their ways of working are fair/quality/transparent” (Respondent 25- regional manager).

Yet, one of the key issues limiting the effective improvement of communication nationally, for some sports was the limited resources available (staff, time and finances). This led to the difficulties with policy implementation and legacy creation within the diverse sports system, as there were vastly different amounts of resources and income at the disposal of certain NGBs. One respondent states:

“We have moved a long way in the past few years, and the communication between both parties has improved significantly. However, as a smaller NGB without local or regional staff the links we make are limited and can be overly time consuming. We are seen as Big Brother dictating what should happen, and too few clubs respond unless they want funding” (Respondent 49- national manager).

The capacity of the workforce is also limited within larger NGBs, as the CEO of one sports stated that “we have 850 clubs; through [a] programme we have developed good engagement with about 250 clubs” (Respondent 83). Another said that “even with a large full time support staff there will always be issues of communications between HQ and a membership of 100K plus” (Respondent 103- national manager). This highlight one of the fundamental issues with England’s current top-down policy implementation process, even when there is sufficient investment in NGB staff. The number of staff compared to the number of clubs that require support and engagement is currently unmatched, possibly leading to problems with NGB strategy delivery.

6.10 Knowledge Transfer Within and Outside NGBs

Knowledge transfer is vital to ensure the sharing of good and bad practice. Firstly, this allows replication of the positive and provides advice to avoid the unsuccessful strategies and processes. Looking at the pattern of knowledge transfer between NGBs, pre-and post the 2012 Games there is a clear difference of attitude. Pre-London 2012, respondents were asked if they received, liaised or obtained advice from other NGBs to decide on what strategies and programme to implement to increase participation; the answers showed slight disagreement ($M= 3.82, SD= 1.39$). Yet, after this SMEs, respondents indicated slight agreement ($M= 5.40, SD= 1.17$), regarding to them sharing their successes on increasing grass-root participation with other NGBs. This may suggest that post Games respondents were more willing to communicate with other sports to build on the successes gained during the London 2012 Games.

These opinions were echoed through the qualitative method of the survey, which provides an insight into the reasons why this knowledge transfer between NGBs did or did not occur. Some (4%) individuals stated that knowledge transfer and collaboration should and has occurred formally through NGB forums organised through SE. "There is no reason why best practice (or common sense) is not shared". SE encourages this through, "Sports Hall groups, playing field groups etc." (Respondents 63- national manager). One participant highlights the competitive nature of the funding system as a limiting factor, which will be discussed in detail later. Yet they also acknowledge the benefit that collaboration could have if supported by SE, as:

"I feel that knowledge sharing between NGBs needs to be led and facilitated by Sport England/UK. NGBs have little/no incentive to share success with other NGBs due to, as mentioned, the competitive nature of funding, particularly if they already have successful participation strategies in place" (Respondent 77-national manager).

On the other hand, others indicated it occurs on an informal basis through friends and known colleagues within other NGBs, especially within smaller NGBs. For example: "Being a smaller NGB we are always consulting with other NGBs about their programmes to form our own, it is generally quite an open process" (Respondent

33- regional manager). This was echoed by another regional manager who stated that “as a relatively small sport we do try hard to be active in general interactions with SE and other NGBs, to ensure our sports, have a place at the table and that we are celebrating our successes” (Respondent 44). Yet, the majority reinforced the view illustrated in the quantitative data that knowledge transfer did not occur between NGBs, especially pre-2012 due to the competitive nature of the sports funding system: “The nature of funding... makes it exceptionally difficult to encourage collaboration between NGBs” (Respondent 26- regional manager). One participant suggested that “Sport England needs to significantly change the way it distributes investment to encourage collaboration at an early stage of each planning cycle” (Respondent 62- national manager). Currently, within the sports system NGBs “are competitors for new participants” (Respondent 49- national manager).

Yet, respondent 49 also suggested that “with careful planning further work for collaboration can and should work. At various levels of NGBs there should be opportunities to bring people together and share ideas”. This reinforces the underlying issues with the competitive funding system itself, which is resulting in isolated working between organisations within the same sports network that are trying to increase the overall participation levels. This competitive funding system was raised in the previous chapter, and due to the lower funding that non-popular (smaller) NGBs receive the importance of collaborations was noted and were utilised more.

The use of knowledge transfer within the NGB organisation itself, from the NGB to the VSC was met with a neutral viewpoint ($M= 4.18$, $SD= 1.39$). Similarly, to the competitive theme noted between NGBs, this is also prevalent at a club level, resulting in a lack of collaborative working within individual sports. This can affect the sports holistic development and participation rates within the sport, if VSCs are not working together. This is a concern for NGBs that have limited resources, as they are unable to assist all the clubs. However, this outlined the choice to target “easy wins” (Respondent 87- CEO), as highlighted earlier by NGB staff, meaning that some clubs are left without any support. Thus, the VSC drive and motives, due to the funding system’s focus is to be the most successful club, as this ensures they receive the support and can sustain their club financially. One individual states:

“Clubs are in 'competition' with each other to be the best and biggest. It is hard to get members to see the wider picture of why sharing practice is a good thing and can help

others and whilst still being a leading club in that area” (Respondent 32- national manager).

Additionally, “clubs are territorial and insular and do not like to share best practice or general information. There are worried they will lose members in doing so” (Respondent 37- regional manager).

6.11 Monitoring and Evaluation

The APS results and the WSPs were produced by each NGB to outline, monitor and evaluate their success in meeting the participation objectives. Respondents’ opinions regarding the APS and their satisfaction levels with the survey as an evaluative method, through which their funding is partly decided was negative ($M= 3.32$, $SD= 1.78$). Interestingly, when looking at the individual positions that respondents held within their NGB, the disagreement was heightened the further away from the policy creation and the closer to implementation the employees were. CEOs held a neutral view ($M= 4.14$, $SD= 1.92$), whilst the national managers ($M= 3.19$, $SD= 1.89$) and regional managers ($M= 2.87$, $SD= 1.50$) held differing levels of disagreement. These results could suggest that individual’s further away from the CEO and the core funding decisions have reduced knowledge and acceptance with this method of evaluation.

No positive views towards the APS were given by any respondents and reasons for this were highlighted within the qualitative results. Individuals felt unhappy with these methods by which the APS is conducted primarily through landline phone call and the sample sizes etc. The CEO of one NGB stated that they were “not sure it has [had a positive impact]” (respondent 89-national manager). This was echoed by another respondent who suggested “I am not confident this method of gaining information gives a true picture of our sport, so I do not think it has had a positive impact” (respondent 24- CEO). Respondent 66 stated that, “the demographics it portrays is not covering all the aspects of our sport as it relates purely to activity and not to all the other aspects involved in our sport that also require physical activity” (national manager).

Furthermore, the pressure to work with specific age groups, such as 14/16+ and to work towards short term targets was noted as a concern: “As a participation team, we are reactive to APS (rather than proactive) and as a result have just had funding cut. It’s a short-sighted cycle to become part of” (Respondent 52- regional manager). This was reinforced by the CEO of one NGB who suggested that:

“It can be a distraction, chasing APS targets is not always the right approach for an NGB that needs to be building sustainable growth, not short term quick wins to meet targets. But it has challenged us to think about certain aspects of the sport in a new way” (respondent 45).

The participation criteria focusing around the 14/16+ age range caused problems for some NGBs, as “there is too much of a focus on 14+ participation in the sport” (respondent 25- regional manager). The “pressures to work with 14/16+ age group... perhaps is not the best for our sport” (respondent 18- regional manager). The positive influence that the APS can have on the development of their NGBs and their individual insight and research teams was also recognised. Four main themes arose when respondents were asked about the beneficial aspects of the APS. Firstly, unsurprising due to the attitudes discovered above, some individuals (23%) felt that there was no positive impact or any positive impact was hard to discern. This could link to their position within the NGB being closer to the policy implementation or the length of time they held their position. Few respondents (4%) noted the identifiable positives that the APS results provided them with an increase in funding, due to their participation figures. One respondent noted that “it has raised the profile of our sport [...] our participation is perhaps higher than previously thought by SE and our figures have been increasing, which encourages SE to look more favourably at supporting our sport” (respondent 11- CEO). This view was echoed by respondent 86, a regional manager who states “It has given our sport more funding because it has confirmed our sport has increased participation. But through our manual data tracking and increase in affiliated members we were aware of this”.

Yet, many respondents (40%) identified the positives of having a legacy focused strategy, which this evaluation method provided. It is the “focus on ensuring numbers are consistently growing” (respondent 29-CEO). Others provided more specific detail: “our KPIs are broken down into specific areas such as HE/FE, local

delivery, events, teachers etc. so this enables us to focus where our work will be to increase participation” (respondent 85- regional manager). This suggests an improvement in organisational processes and ensures the NGBs had direction and focus on the legacy objective. A further organisational improvement noted by many respondents (34%) was because of the APS and SE evaluation systems, which aided the development of NGBs individual insight and monitoring teams. One respondent stated that it gave them “a greater understanding of who plays the sport and in what numbers - a better feel for who our customers are and what they require” (respondent 32-CEO). This was reinforced by another individual who stated that:

“It has made our research and insight so strong. We have a great team and we are trying to find the data to go back to SE and say hang on our data shows something different. It has strengthened us, because we have had to get that research, so now our data is much better and advanced. We improved as an organisation as we were challenged. But we signed up to the APS so I guess we can't complain” (respondent 91-national manager).

Improvement of NGBs research and insight teams illustrate the governance improvements made by these organisations through the evidence requirement of this evaluation method (APS). This emphasises the positive impact that such a large-scale survey and strong monitoring by the funding organisation (Sport England) can have in terms of strengthening and improving the governance and processes within sports organisations. NGBs are strengthening their own insight into their customers and collating evidence to illustrate to SE their achievements in line with the legacy and policy objective. The positive impact of the monitoring and evaluation was heightened through the agreement felt by the respondents of the benefits that the WSP provided them as an organisation, to focus and set development targets for their sport ($M= 5.38$, $SD= 1.25$). Non-Olympic and Paralympic sports highlighted how the specific monitoring through methods such as the APS, by SE have made their organisation more efficient ($M= 5.06$, $SD= 1.58$). However, Olympic and Paralympic sports demonstrated no strong feelings ($M= 4.04$, $SD= 1.70$), regarding the monitoring methods and whether this made their organisation more efficient.

6.12 Achievements and Improvements to Legacy Strategy

Reflecting on the London 2012 Games and the progress and outcomes that the NGBs have made to date, non- Olympic and non- Paralympic sports displayed slight agreement when asked if they feel they achieved the grass-root participation outcomes they set out to achieve ($M= 5.35$, $SD= 1.56$). However, NGBs that participated in the Games held a neutral viewpoint ($M= 4.70$, $SD= 1.59$). This achievement felt by the non-participating NGBs, could also be reflective of the satisfaction that non-Olympic and non-Paralympic sports felt towards the funding they received post London 2012 ($M= 5.03$, $SD= 1.27$), over participating sports ($M= 4.68$, $SD= 1.77$), who held a neutral viewpoint. Additionally, NGB respondents identified that for them to effectively produce and sustain a legacy and the process of policy implementation itself, many changes need to be made. These changes relate to improvement in planning and club preparation surrounding SMEs, increasing the use/role of media, localised participation programme development, alongside other points raised earlier such as more resources and the importance of research and insight.

6.13 Planning and Club Engagement

Improved planning and club engagement was a critical change NGBs should make for the future to ensure legacy production, as NGBs and the volunteer club network need to “be ready! Staff in place, structures in place” (Respondent 70-national manager). As one national manager stated if you “fail to prepare, prepare to fail” (respondent 99). This was reinforced by another national manager who suggests you must “be prepared for an influx of interest and have the suitable processes in place to deal with this interest across all your networks” (Respondent 11). 32% noted the need to ensure stronger long term planning and club engagement as “greater engagement with our regional and local clubs and bodies is imperative to ensure sustainable benefits. I think this opportunity was largely missed post-2012” (respondent 77-national manager). Individuals that were in agreement with the hosting of London 2012, highlighted their doubts regarding its impact independently and reinforced the importance of its incorporation into a long-term strategy and development plan. You must:

“(1) Research - understand what sustainable development really means (2) Decide what is best for your sport (3) Stick to the plan (4) Only use the Olympics as a "boost" and not as the centre point of your long plan (5) Do NOT chase the money that may be available (6) Be very realistic in the potential long term benefits of an Olympic Games” (Respondent 76- national manager).

Insight was also mentioned as critical to the success and development of some sports, to align with the monitoring and evaluation process. A CEO stated:

“Our community sports strategy is based on strong insight and evidence gathered over the last 10 years. As an organisation, we recognised at an early stage that NGBs needed to become consumer focused and this needed to be reflected in our participation programme. We also needed to consider our capacity for growth and ensure that increases in participation numbers could be sustained and managed. The consistency of the community strategy is business critical to our NGB and whilst we will make the most of specific opportunities the core strategy will be adhered to into the foreseeable future” (Respondent 76- CEO).

6.14 Importance and Use of Media

The importance and impact of media has been mentioned in the previous chapter and interestingly when individuals were asked to give some advice to their Brazilian counterparts for Rio 2016, based on their experiences from London 2012, many highlighted media as an important consideration. As one national manager felt “it’s about increasing opportunities and using the Olympics as a shop window” (respondent 61). Another highlighted the importance of using the events media opportunities even if your sport is not part of the event. “Given that [our sport] is not in the 2016 Olympics, I suppose we might suggest trying to find a way to jump on the back of the increased interest in sport during that period in order to promote participation in your particular sport” (respondent 44- national manager).

Others gave practical examples of how to use the media to full advantage by utilising the athletes that competed. “Have the individual NGBs really promote any successes by their competitors in the media, as our NGB failed to do this and so didn't

capitalize on the medals won” (respondent 26- regional manager). That said, the usefulness of this approach is limited to the sports that competed in the Olympic or Paralympic Games. Another respondent stated you should “contract all of your home athletes into promotional work post Games targeting grass roots participation. Don't have a sport legacy policy post Olympics but a sport/health/crime/education legacy policy” (64- national manager). This echoes the importance and use of media that was highlighted by VSCs in Chapter 5, illustrating the opportunities and prospects that hosting a SMEs can bring to the sports development sector.

6.15 Localised Participation Programme Development

An additional theme emerged when the respondents were asked to reflect on practices within their NGB, as well as, what they would change if London hosted the Olympics again. A focus towards localised participation programmes was suggested, as one respondent stated that you need to “consult with communities, find out what would make a difference on the ground, plan specific campaigns and initiatives that have a higher chance of working and use the profile of the Games to really push them” (respondent 93- regional manager). This approach was seen as a more sustainable, long term strategy to produce legacy, as it allows the focus to be given to the individual communities, since:

“Whilst a country wide approach might make sense, a localised approach for the host city might be more achievable and realistic. Ignore the doubters, the Olympic and Paralympic effect was magnificent and was always going to spread to the majority of the population for a home nation. Inspire a generation was more 'Inspire for a few weeks' but working with the clubs and coaches that want to change, improve, develop and grow is far better than trying to work with everyone” (respondent 49- national manager).

This allows the local communities to take control and feel involved in the legacy production, which was identified in both Chapter 5 and by survey respondents as one of the main issues with club engagement and communication due to the VSCs negative feelings towards their opportunities for engagement and involvement. A CEO

stated that “the equation is fairly simple: Create local opportunities + volunteers/staff to drive + local and national promotion of the opportunities/benefits = increased participation” (respondent 60). Partnerships within the local communities were also mentioned as critical to gain an insight into the demographics of the area, which ensured a realistic production of possible legacy production. One participant advised to “keep it local. Work local patches with vigour. Gain support of local agencies. Sport England is ... usually paraded under the banner of 'metrics' or 'insight' which leave little imprint on the sporting landscape” (respondent 99- national manager). This illustrates a clear recommendation for future SME hosts, when looking to develop a participation legacy. Utilise the local communities and VSCs, and provide them with the opportunities and resources to drive the national objective. As they have the structures, insight and knowledge and consensus will be heightened, if they are involved and have ownership in the legacy strategy.

6.16 Conclusion

This chapter outlined and illustrated the results and findings from the descriptive statistics and qualitative results from the online survey. Interesting findings emerged relating to the importance of communication, focus on targets, due to the competitive nature of the funding system and challenges surroundings club engagement. The benefits of media were stressed as a key consideration for future SMEs hosts, to ensure they utilise it effectively. Furthermore, NGB managers provided interesting insights into the benefits that the monitoring and evaluation methods had on their organisations, which links strongly to the modernisation and governance improvements of NGBs. The following Chapter 7, provides the results for the subsequent statistics undertaken with the survey results. FA and MANOVA results are presented and results explained in line with the research’s aims and hypotheses.

Chapter 7- Inferential Statistics Results- Factor Analysis and MANOVA

7.1 Introduction

The aim of this investigation was to understand the elements that formulate SMEs legacy production and implementation. The previous chapter allowed an initial understanding to develop surrounding NGB employee's opinions and attitudes towards the London 2012 Games and their role in the participation legacy. Through an examination of the process of implementing participation policy, from its creation through to its delivery within VSC. This would allow possible recommendations to emerge to aid the way sports organisations create and implement sports policy and strategies in the future.

This chapter will outline the participant sample for the study and provides the results from the descriptive analysis and qualitative components of the survey. These results highlight the attitudes and perceptions of the individuals that were involved within the NGBs, the main delivery agent chosen to support the legacy objectives of London 2012. This chapter provides detail on the results gained from the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Multivariate Analysis Of Variance (MANOVA) test that were undertaken. These results highlight the key components that were involved in the legacy creation and implementation of the SMEs participation strategy.

7.2 Factor Analysis

Factor Analysis (FA) was undertaken to investigate the elements that are involved in legacy production and the implementation process. Pallant (2013) states this analysis is a form of data reduction and it is not designed to test hypotheses. Yet, rather it is a method that allows a large group of variables to be clustered into components, by investigating the intercorrelations of variables (Pallant, 2013). This ensures that the questions asked, that were based from the literature and themes that emerged from study 1, such as funding, Active People Survey (APS) and club implementation, are relatable to the construct the researcher intends to measure (Field, 2009). Prior to FA, two Likert items were removed, 'I was pleased that we were

hosting the 2012 Olympic Games' and 'I was in full support of the London 2012 Olympic Games'. This was due to the fact the items were basic questions relating to individual attitudes and opinion about the event generically, rather than specific elements of legacy production. Due to the compulsory nature of the Likert items questions, all of the 105 completed data sets were useable for factor analysis. 24 items were analysed by Principal Component Analysis (PCA). Originally 26 items were included in the factor analysis, yet due to issues outlined later in this chapter they were subsequently removed. Oblique rotation (direct oblimin) was used and all 105 data samples were used to undertake the factor analysis, as all data sets were complete. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure verified the sampling adequacy for the factor analysis to be undertaken (.734). Furthermore, Bartlett's test of sphericity research statistical significance ($p < .000$), which supports the factorability of the correlation matrix.

Regarding the extractions of factors, guidelines were adhered to that were outlined previously in (Chapter 4). This meant that to be extracted a variable had to have an eigenvalue value over 1, the factor had to be interpretable and there could not be any 'cross loadings'. If any cross loadings occurred, they had to be investigated and possibility removed. Additionally, the factor loading had to be a value of .512 or higher and finally there had to be a minimum of 3 factors within the component. Due, to the correlated nature of the factors (theoretical grounds) and the objective to achieve optimal results oblique rotation (direct oblimin) was used (Osborne and Costello, 2009; Field, 2013). Initially, 8 factors were extracted, due to their eigenvalues being greater than 1. Yet, two of the components only had two items loaded on to them, meaning they are unstable components and these were then removed. Then the % of total variance and the visual examination of the scree plot was undertaken, this allowed the researcher to understand how many meaningful factors could be interpreted from the data set (Osborne and Costello, 2009).

The plot highlighted a change in the curves direction, after the fourth factor, along with the largest % of total variance being explained by the four factors. Hence, a four-factor solution was deemed most appropriate. After the four-factor solution was decided upon the following Likert items were removed as loadings were below .512:

- I feel we achieved the grass-root participation outcomes that we set out to achieve
- If we were to host the Games again I would not change our community sports strategy and approach
- I feel that the Whole Sport Plan, 4-year funding cycles have been beneficial to help us focus and set development targets for our sport
- We received advice and liaised with other NGBs to decide on what programmes and strategies to implement in order to increase participation
- The plan to host the London 2012 Games was taken without considering the capability and ability for us (NGBs) to support the participation objective

Subsequently, PCA was re-run and the final analysis resulted in a four-factor solution. These four factors combined accounted for 51.5 % of the variance across the whole data set. Specifically, factor 1 explained 25.2% of the total variance, whilst factor 2 contributed 10.6%, factor 3 explained 8.7% of the variance and finally factor 4 illustrated 7% of the variance. The results of the final PCA are presented in Table 9, alongside the total variance explained by each factor and commonality values. Then Table 10 illustrates the descriptive statistics and reliability estimates associated with each of the factors.

Table 9- Factor Analysis of items using Direct Oblimin Rotation, assessing NGB employee perceptions towards the 2012 Games (n =105).

Item	Factors				Communality
	1	2	3	4	
1. Objectives, Standards and Resources					
I was pleased with the financial support provided by Sport England in the build-up to the Games	.811				.633
I felt satisfied with the level of guidance provided by Sport England in the build-up to the Games	.725				.561
I was pleased with the financial support provided by Sport England after the Games	.717				.633
I felt satisfied with the level of guidance provided by Sport England after the Games	.681				.679
We were happy to share our successes with other NGBs, even with the competitive nature of funding within the English sports system	.612				.375
I felt satisfied with the funding opportunities that hosting the Games brought to our sport	.583				.504
I understood the requirements placed on us by Sport England in our responsibility to increase grass-root participation	.548				.362
2. Event Capitalisation and Opportunities					
I feel the Games provided us with a unique opportunity to showcase our sport		.874			.753
The nation's expectations surrounding the Olympic objective of increasing participation, provided an opportunity for us to inspire people to take up the sport		.803			.657
Our organisation implemented specific participation programmes/strategies to make the most of the Games		.584			.607
We created and planned participation strategies and programmes to ensure we could capitalise on the Games		.573			.666
3. Monitoring and Evaluation					
The specific monitoring by Sport England has made our organisation more efficient			.906		.839
The APS monitoring and evidence needed by Sport England has improved our research and insight into our participation programmes and client demographics			.817		.653
I am satisfied with the APS (or your alternative) as an evaluative method from which our funding is decided			.765		.602
4. Club Engagement and Implementation					
The communication between our NGB and the voluntary club network requires no improvements				.696	.474
Voluntary clubs had the necessary financial resources to successfully implement our programmes and meet participation objectives				.693	.533
Implementation of our participation programmes was consistent across our club network				.645	.455

Voluntary clubs had the necessary guidance to successfully implement our programmes and meet participation objectives	.622	.653		
The clubs were fully aware and understood our participation strategies and programmes	.614	.455		
Knowledge transfer from the NGB to the clubs regarding the successes and failures of our participation programmes occurred	.605	.427		
We fully engaged clubs with the programmes that were created to increase participation levels	.595	.446		
Eigenvalue	6.54	2.75	2.27	1.83
Variance Explained (%)	25.2	10.6	8.7	7.0

Table 10- Descriptive Statistics for Factors generated through PCA

Factor	M	SD	Cronbach Alpha (α)
1- Objectives, Standards and Resources	4.8313	1.03316	.841
2- Opportunities for Capitalisation	5.3643	1.22819	.790
3- Monitoring and Evaluation	5.9714	1.46550	.808
4- Club Engagement and Implementation	3.9497	.92899	.789

7.3 Factor Interpretation

The first factor is comprised of seven variables. The content of the items that loaded to factor 1 relates to resources both financial and guidance and support that was provided by Sport England pre-and post the London 2012 Games. Furthermore, loaded items link to understanding the requirements set by Sport England and the process of sharing knowledge and advice with other NGBs pre-and post-mega-event. Thus, the first factor was labelled ‘Objectives, Standards and Resources’.

Factor 2 was formed through the loadings of four items. The factor reflects the concept of legacy, through the items that the variable is comprised of. Ideas around opportunities and capitalisation on the Games were the focal point. This factor reflects the unique opportunity the London 2012 provided for organisations to showcase their sport and the level of national awareness surrounding the participation legacy. The acknowledgement that hosting such an event can provide unique opportunities for the

sporting organisations involved to capitalise on London 2012. This led to the creation and implementation of specific participation programmes and strategies which aimed to utilise the SMEs profile effectively. Hence, the second factor was labelled ‘Event Capitalisation and Opportunities’.

Factor 3, was constructed of three items and reflected the evaluation and assessment process adopted by Sport England to monitor NGBs. This factor reflects the type of evaluation required by Sport England such as the APS and looked at how this affected the internal processes and governance within the organisations themselves. This factor highlighted that the requirements and monitoring by SE made the organisation more efficient and strengthened the NGB’s research and insight teams. The objective was to enhance the evidence based provided to SE, alongside the APS results. Therefore, the third factor was labelled ‘Monitoring and Evaluation’.

Factor 4 consisted of four items and the loaded variables linked to the relationship between the NGB and the VSC. This predominately focused around the area of implementation, firstly, with regards to the guidance and financial support that the voluntary clubs needed to enable them to implement the participation programmes. Yet, also the awareness, understanding and engagement with the national club network itself and the consistency of legacy programme implementation nationally. Critically, communication was the highest loading variable on this factor and this component allows and sustains club engagement. Therefore, factor four was named ‘Club Engagement and Implementation’.

7.4 Factor Descriptives: Mean and Standard Deviation

Likert scales (the 4 factors highlighted above) were analysed through an interval measurement scale. Thus, the recommended descriptive statistics included the Mean for central tendency and Standard Deviation (SD) for variability (Boone and Boone, 2012). The descriptive statistics (Mean and SD) for each of the 4 factors were calculated in SPSS. A summary of these results, alongside the internal reliability Cronbach Alpha (α) values are presented in Table 10. The first factor ‘Objectives, Standards and Resources’ ($M= 4.83$, $SD= 1.03$) highlights the neutral view was held by the participants, when they were asked questions around resources, standards and objectives. Factor Two ‘Opportunities for Capitalisation’ ($M= 5.36$, $SD= 1.23$), shows

slight agreement was felt by the respondents when reflecting on capitalisation opportunities around the SMEs. The third factor 'Monitoring and Evaluation' ($M=5.97$, $SD=1.47$), follows a similar pattern to the previous factor, with slightly stronger agreement regarding evaluation and monitoring. The final factor 'Club Engagement and Implementation' ($M=3.95$, $SD=.93$) showed a neutral to slight disagreement, felt by respondents.

7.5 Reliability Analysis

Internal consistency of each component was investigated by using Cronbach's Reliability Alpha. As highlighted in Chapter 3 this is used as a reliability measure and can be quantified by correlating the items scores. For a sample of data using Cronbach's Reliability Alpha (Spicer, 2005). Brown (2011) states that the reliability of Likert scales should be checked using Cronbach Alpha. Ideally, an alpha of .7 illustrates the minimum value accepted for internal consistency (Pallant, 2013; Spicer, 2005). The value can be sensitive to the number of items in the component, thus with small components (that have under ten factors) it is common to have low Cronbach scores of around .5 (Pallant, 2013). Thus, it may be more appropriate to report the mean inter-item correlation for the item, if this is the case (Pallant, 2013). The extracted factors for this investigation demonstrated Cronbach Alpha scores of between .769-.841, suggesting acceptable internal reliability. Individually, Factor 1 'objectives, standards and resources' demonstrated an alpha of .841. Factor 2 'club engagement and implementation' had an alpha value of .769, whilst Factor 3 'Legacy-opportunities for capitalisation' displayed an alpha value of .780. Finally, factor 4 'monitoring and evaluation' had an alpha value of .806.

7.6 Independent and Dependent Variables

Alongside the variable measurement, variables can be identified as either independent or dependent variables. Independent variables are the presumed cause of what is being researched. As whether the sport is an Olympic and Paralympic or Non-Olympic and Paralympic sport could cause the attitudinal view, as to whether an individual is pleased and in full support of hosting the London 2012 Games or not. Dependent variables are measured through adaptations in behaviour or attitudes and

can be explained by the independent variable (Gratton and Jones, 2004). Thus, for the current study the independent categorical variables used are from the socio-demographic data section of the survey. Categories used were: type of sport (Olympic or non-Olympic), funding level (increased or decreased), sport size (participation: small [under 49,999 participants], medium [50,000-299,999 participants or large [300,000+ participants]) and employment type (CEO, senior or regional manager). The dependent variables used were formed from the EFA, which is outlined later in this chapter. Four dependent variables were created from the EFA, 'objectives, standards and resources', 'opportunities for capitalisation', 'monitoring and evaluation' and 'club engagement and implementation'. They were collated from the different themes focused on within the survey and provide an insight into the components that are needed to produce a legacy through the policy implementation process.

7.7 Further Data Analysis

The four main factors that are present in legacy production and policy implementation surrounding London 2012 have been determined through PCA (Table 11). The next stage was to investigate the variance between the independent categorical variables and the four factors (dependent variables). This will be discussed below in detail through the statistical method MANOVA which was used to undertake the analysis.

7.8 MANOVA

Four one way MANOVAs were conducted to test the independent categories highlighted below and variance between those and the four dependent variables (factors: objectives, capitalisation, evaluation and club implementation):

- Sport type (Olympic and non-Olympic sports)
- Employment type (CEO, senior or regional manager)
- Sport size (participation: small, medium or large)
- Funding level (increased, decreased⁹)

⁹ The third category in which funding 'stayed the same' was removed due to a small sample n=4, hence the results would not be meaningful.

Each of the MANOVAs conducted will now be discussed individually, with regards to the findings and any significant values that emerged through the analysis.

7.9 Sport Type (Olympic and non-Olympic sports)

Table 11- Descriptive (M, SD) and significance values of legacy production factors by sport type.

Factors	Olympic (N=69)	Non-Olympic (N=34)	Sig (between subjects)
1- Objectives, Standards and Resources	4.81 (1.08)	4.89 (.96)	.726
2- Opportunities for Capitalisation	5.86 (.77)	4.33 (1.37)	.000*
3- Monitoring and Evaluation	3.73 (1.42)	4.42 (1.51)	.026**
4- Club Engagement and Implementation	3.83 (1.02)	4.19 (.70)	.068

* $p < .01$, ** $p < .05$

A one-way between groups multivariate analysis of variance was performed to investigate the sport type differences in legacy production factors. The four dependent variables were used: objectives, capitalisation, evaluation and club implementation. The independent variable was sport type, which was split into Olympic and non-Olympic sports. As outlined above all preliminary assumption testing was undertaken and all assumptions were met, apart from homogeneity of variance, as the Box's M Sig. value was .000, thus violating the assumption. Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variance, indicated the breach in assumption, was the case for one of the dependent variables ('Opportunities for Capitalisation' .000), hence a more conservative alpha value of .01 was set.

There was a statistically significant difference between Olympic and non-Olympic sports on the combined dependent variables when using Pillai's Trace, $F(4, 98) = 20.45$, $p < .05$. When the results of the dependent variables were considered separately, two reached statistical significance. Opportunities for Capitalisation, $F(1, 101) = 52.44$, $p < .01$ and Monitoring and Evaluation, $F(1, 101) = 5.13$, $p < .05$. This

means the hypothesis can be accepted, as there is a significant difference between Olympic and non-Olympic sports and the way NGB managers perceive legacy production, with regards to the capitalisation opportunities and monitoring and evaluation processes.

7.10 Employment Type (CEO, senior or regional manager)

Table 12- Descriptive (M, SD) and significant values of legacy production factors by employment type.

Factors	CEO (N=14)	National Manager (N=55)	Regional Officer (N=30)	Sig (between subjects)
1- Objectives, Standards and Resources	5.05 (.87)	4.99 (1.02)	4.50 (1.01)	.074
2- Opportunities for capitalisation	5.21 (1.45)	5.57 (1.13)	4.94 (1.31)	.078
3- Monitoring and Evaluation	4.50 (1.45)	3.92 (1.55)	3.72 (1.39)	.272
4- Club engagement and implementation	3.68 (.859)	4.04 (.980)	3.95 (.870)	.445

A one-way between groups multivariate analysis of variance was performed to investigate the employment type differences in legacy production factors. The four dependent variables were used: objectives, capitalisation, evaluation and club implementation. The independent variable was employment type, which was split into CEO, senior or regional manager. As outlined above all preliminary assumption testing was undertaken and all assumptions were met. There was no statistical significant difference between the employment types on the combined dependent variables when using Pillai's Trace, $F(8, 188) = 1.76, p > .05$. Hence, due to no statistically significance differences being present, post hoc tests were not undertaken.

Nevertheless, an inspection of the mean scores shown in Table 12 indicated that for three of the dependent variables, the CEO's and national managers reported higher levels of agreement than the regional managers. This supports the model proposed by Van Meter and Van Horn (1975) and the community sports system within England. As the factors 'Objectives, Standards and Resources', 'Opportunities for Capitalisation' and 'Monitoring and Evaluation', all form a core part of the policy formation and creation stage, meaning individuals closer to this process may have a better understanding. Whereas, for 'Club Engagement and Implementation', the national managers (M= 4.04, SD= .980) and regional managers (M= 3.95, SD= .870), may have a superior understanding of this process compared to the CEO's (M= 3.68, SD= .859), as they are closer to the implementation process. These results meant the null hypothesis was accepted, as there is no significant difference between employment levels (CEO, senior or regional manager) and the way NGB managers perceive legacy production.

7.11 Sport Size (participation: small, medium or large)

Table 13- Descriptive (M, SD) and significance values of legacy production factors by sport size.

Factors	Small (N=41)	Medium (N=35)	Large (N=27)	Sig (between subjects)
1- Objectives, Standards and Resources	4.87 (1.08)	4.82 (1.03)	4.80 (1.04)	.958
2- Opportunities for capitalisation	5.36 (1.35)	5.19 (1.17)	5.56 (1.15)	.522
3- Monitoring and Evaluation	4.18 (1.60)	3.84 (1.26)	3.80 (1.57)	.478
4- Club engagement and implementation	4.07 (1.01)	3.88 (.88)	3.85 (.913)	.568

A one-way between groups multivariate analysis of variance was performed to investigate the Sport size differences in legacy production factors. The four dependent variables were used: objectives, capitalisation, evaluation and club implementation.

The independent variable was sport size, and participation numbers were split into small, medium or large. As outlined above all preliminary assumption testing was undertaken and all assumptions were met. There was no statistical significant difference between the sport size on the combined dependent variables when using Pillai's Trace, $F(8, 196) = .489, p > .05$. Hence, due to no statistically significance differences being present, post hoc tests were not undertaken. An inspection however of the mean scores shown in Table 13 indicated that for 'Objectives, Standards and Resources', the agreement levels were extremely similar and highlighted a neutral viewpoint, across small ($M= 4.87, SD= 1.08$), medium ($M= 4.82, SD= 1.03$) and large ($M= 4.80, SD= 1.04$) sports. All agreed with regards to the 'Opportunities for Capitalisation', small ($M= 5.36, SD= 1.35$), medium ($M= 5.19, SD= 1.17$) and large ($M= 5.56, SD= 1.15$).

Then for 'Monitoring and Evaluation', small ($M= 4.18, SD= 1.60$), medium ($M= 3.84, SD= 1.26$) and large ($M= 3.80, SD= 1.57$) and 'Club Engagement and Implementation', small ($M= 4.07, SD= 1.01$), medium ($M= 3.88, SD= .88$) and large ($M= 3.85, SD= .913$). This highlights that whilst the small sports held a neutral viewpoint, medium and large sports were both in slight disagreement. Thus, the null hypothesis was accepted, as there was no significant difference in the way NGB managers from differing size sports (participation: small, medium, large) perceive legacy production.

7.12 Funding Level (increased or decreased)

Table 14- Descriptive (M, SD) and significance values of legacy production factors by funding level.

Factors	Increased (N=66)	Decreased (N=33)	Sig (between subjects)
1- Objectives, Standards and Resources	4.84 (1.10)	4.73 (.95)	.602
2- Opportunities for capitalisation	5.20 (1.39)	5.70 (.79)	.057
3- Monitoring and Evaluation	4.16 (1.39)	3.36 (1.44)	.010*
4- Club engagement and implementation	3.93 (.99)	3.90 (.841)	.863

* $p < .05$

A one-way between groups multivariate analysis of variance was performed to investigate the funding level differences in legacy production factors. The four dependent variables were used: objectives, capitalisation, evaluation and club implementation. The independent variable was funding level, which was split into funding increase or funding decrease. As outlined above all preliminary assumption testing was undertaken and all assumptions were met. There was a statistically significant difference between sports which had a funding increase or decrease, on the combined dependent variables when using Pillai's Trace, $F(4, 94) = 3.00, p < .05$. When the results of the dependent variables were considered separately, one reached statistical significance. Monitoring and Evaluation, $F(1, 97) = 6.99, p < .05$. Yet, it is also worth noting that another dependent variable was close to displaying a statistical significance, Opportunities for capitalisation, $F(1, 97) = 3.71, p = .057$. This could suggest that with a larger participant sample, the capitalisation opportunities may also be affected by whether an NGB has had an increase or decrease in funding. This means that H_4 'There will be a significant difference in the way NGB managers perceive legacy production depending on their sports funding level (increased or decreased)' was accepted, as there is a significant difference in the way NGB managers perceive legacy production depending on their sports funding level, with regards to the monitoring and evaluation processes.

7.13 Conclusion

This chapter outlined and illustrate the results and findings from the EFA and subsequent MANOVAs. Four main factors emerged from the EFA, which revolved around standards, opportunities for capitalisation, monitoring and club engagement. These elements form part of the legacy production and implementation process. Additionally, a statistically significant difference was found within two of the MANOVAs that were conducted. Firstly, between Olympic and non-Olympic sports, two of the dependent factors 'Opportunities for Capitalisation' and 'Monitoring and Evaluation' reached statistical significance. This indicates that there is an important difference between sports types and the way they perceive capitalisation opportunities and evaluation procedures.

Furthermore, a statistically significant difference was found between sports which experienced a funding increase or decrease. The factor 'Monitoring and

Evaluation' displayed a significant difference, indicating that depending on whether an NGB had their funding increased or decreased NGB managers' perception of evaluation within legacy production is affected. The following Chapter 8 focuses on the discussion of the main studies that formed this thesis and discusses the findings in relation to the aims and hypotheses of this research project.

Chapter 8 – Discussion and Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

The purpose of this investigation was to provide the much-needed empirical understanding of key stakeholders, such as NGBs and VSCs and the role they play in the legacy production process. Specifically, it aimed to illustrate NGBs perspectives on SMEs and the impact this had on their leveraging strategies and the policy implementation process. This is an area that has received limited attention within the academic discourse and has been highlighted as a beneficial area to gain a richer understanding of NGB attitudes towards SMEs (Frawley, Toohey and Veal, 2013). The chapter concludes the thesis and summarises the findings associated to the research questions outlined in the first chapter. The study's main objective and RQ are outlined below:

Main Objective: To analyse the impact that the London 2012 Olympic Games had on community sport within the UK, by investigating what role NGBs played in leveraging a participation legacy.

RQ1: How do NGBs perceive SMEs and what impact did their perceptions have on the leveraging and implementation strategies in order to achieve the legacy objective of increased sports participation?

RQ2: What are the key components involved in legacy production for a sport participation objective, utilising the policy implementation process?

RQ3: What were VSCs attitudes towards the implementation and what legacy creation processes were undertaken by VSCs, across the four minority sports?

RQ4: How can the findings from the selected NGBs and VSCs inform the way sports organisations create and implement sports event policy and strategies in the future?

The first and second part of the chapter will build upon the results from two studies highlighted in chapters 5, 6 and 7. Key findings, similarities, differences were addressed through the multi-case design selected to undertake the investigation across the four non-popular sports. Analysis was predominately undertaken with VSCs, alongside the exploratory online survey with NGB senior managers. Together these two studies provide pertinent and interesting findings, into the policy implementation process within the context of SMEs. The third part of this chapter outlines the recommendations for future research and practical suggestions for sports organisations looking to capitalise on SMEs. Then finally a reflection is given on the research process itself within closing remarks.

8.2 Empirical Findings Study 1

The objective of study 1 was to investigate how SMEs legacy was produced and implemented within VSCs of four non-popular sports. For these sports the SMEs provided a unique opportunity, which allowed them to compete on an international platform, through the automatic host-nation qualification status. This provided an interesting opportunity to research the impact this had for the sports involved and how they planned to capitalise on the SME to produce a participation legacy. The complexities and challenges of using VSCs for national policy implementation has been investigated both within the UK context and internationally, with findings highlighting conflicting objectives and attitudes between these organisations (Cuskelly, Taylor, Hoye and Darcy, 2006; Harris, Mori, and Collins, 2009; May, Harris and Collins, 2013; Skille 2008; Taylor and Barrett, 2009). This study utilised the same guiding theoretical perspective, as the studies above but within the context of SMEs.

CR was used as a guiding tool to enhance analysis of legacy production and legacy was separated into the four layers of reality. The segmentation allowed an in-depth picture to emerge of legacy's creation and the multifaceted nature of the grass root delivery agents involved. The sports participation legacy was implemented, using strategies and Whole Sport Plans (WSPs) within individual NGBs, which aligns with the 'material' layer of CR. This implementation was undertaken via a top down approach; as highlighted by previous theoretical and empirical studies (Van Meter and

Van Horn, 1975; May, Harris, and Collins, 2013; Skille, 2008). This resulted in a lack of consultation with clubs and by not allowing them to engage in the development of legacy plans, the VSCs were unable to illustrate their capacity, engagement or disposition with regards to legacy production. This limited club engagement, through the top down legacy production process highlighted a constraining factor of legacy creation which needs to be addressed. Local involvement and ensuring the empowerment of VSCs is vital to aid legacy production and general sports delivery, as highlighted previously (Girginov and Hills, 2008). Yet, this research highlighted that currently with the way the sports system is structured, VSCs feel a lack of involvement in the production process, which affected the implementation and delivery of the legacy strategy by the grass root implementers. This will be discussed in more detail in the next section and the findings from section 8.2-8.7, answer RQ3. As this illustrates VSCs within the four minority sports attitudes towards implementation and the legacy creation processes that were used, with areas such as competition, capacity and the role of VSCs as key stakeholders being highlighted.

8.3 VSCs- Key Stakeholders

Due to this lack of consideration and involvement, the club delivery resulted in a more fragmented, localised approach, as there was a lack of guidance nationally from the NGBs. This resulted in club coaches being unsure on the role that they played, within the legacy production process. Interestingly, within the 'Ideal' layer of CR, which involves the interpretations of whether legacy exists, all respondents accepted they had a role to play in legacy production. This is critical, as all believed in the legacy itself, within the diverse 'social' elements displayed within the fourth layer of reality, but this acceptance was not used to its full potential.

The results highlighted that VSC consultation prior to a SMEs is essential to aid legacy production, due to disparity in club capacity and between the coaches themselves, within the social layer of reality. This reinforces the suggestion by Weed (2008; 2015) of the 'pregnancy period' prior to SMEs, which is significant for leveraging PA, sport and health legacies. Findings by Grix (2012) into image leveraging, reinforced the use of a long-term, pre-event leveraging strategy, 'pregnancy period', within the early stage of a legacy plan. Thus, consultation would

provide a better understanding of the processes and capacity within each club and the abilities of the coaches themselves. The CR perspective emphasised that the process of legacy production is not just influenced by the procedures and formal policies in place, but is also reliant on how individual actors perceive those structures when they are implemented into VSCs existing practices (Byers, Hayday and Pappous, under review).

8.4 Partnerships

To ensure long term legacy creation within sports organisations, interviewees stressed the need and importance of partnerships. Especially for these non-popular sports organisations (Judo, Volleyball, Fencing and Handball) creating relationships with the 49 County Sport Partnerships (CSPs) and external organisations, was stressed as essential for sustainability. Taks, et al., (2014) researched a medium sized international sports event and they stated the importance of new and existing partnerships; further study reinforced this even within the context of non-mega sport events (Taks, et al., 2015) the benefits of creating local partnerships and coordinating efforts, were seen as vital to achieve desired outcomes.

Partnerships also counteract another issue surrounding organised participation as VSC membership has remained static since 2007/08, with some sports demonstrating extremely low club membership figures through the APS, for example only 2.9% of cyclists are club members (Sport England, 2015). These limited memberships within the club network, mean some sports have a reduced influence across the national population. Downward, Dawson and Dejonghe (2009) strengthened this tension within sports policy, due the high proportion of informal participation that occurs outside of VSCs. Therefore, by enhancing partnerships and joint working with external organisations and local authorities this widens the opportunities for participation. This is a consideration for future SMEs hosts looking to increase national participation levels, by broadening the delivery agent's exposure. This could enhance the sports participation legacy, rather than the predominant reliance by policy makers of having NGBs at the 'heart' of the legacy plans.

8.5 Capacity

The use and importance of partnerships with other organisations, is associated to the limited staff and resource capacity within smaller NGBs, meaning by joining together to share resources, the issues surrounding VSC and NGB capacity are eradicated. This supports findings by Doherty, Misener, and Cuskelly (2013) who investigated club capacity and illustrated the importance of human resources to enhance capacity, and other numerous dimensions such as finances, infrastructure, planning and external relationships. The features within each dimension provide direction for practitioners on resource allocation. Girginov and Hills (2008) echoed these capacity issues for developing NGBs, as capacity is stretched with the dual pressure of providing elite tournaments, as well as expanding their club network. Also during and post a SME, there is a spike in interest with requires boost in capacity, which for some clubs may be impractical or unrealistic, thus effect effecting legacy production.

8.6 Competition

Collaboration with other organisations formed through competitiveness (Table 2), as a NGB Head Office interviewee stated that during the Olympics their NGB joint together with other NGBs to ensure “smaller NGBs” can survive. This suggests that smaller NGBs are adapting to enhance partnerships to safeguard long term legacy. Girginov and Hills (2008) noted when constructing legacy and sustaining sports development, competition is created both internally and externally between legacy actors for access to the limited resources. Partnerships are suggested in this research to provide numerous opportunities and outlets for legacy creation which would be beyond the scope of these organisations individually and is proposed as a future strategy objective.

8.7 Importance of Media

VSCs illustrated the importance of media in legacy creation, as it raised awareness and national interest in these non-popular sports, who had the unique opportunity to compete on the international stage. Clubs could capitalise on this raised

interest using social media to promote events within their VSCs. Yet, for clubs that were not already using social media this was ineffective due to late and unsuccessful implementation. This reinforces the need to embed social media into existing VSC management processes to fully capitalise on the opportunities that a SMEs, such as the Olympic and Paralympic Games brings to non-popular sports. NGBs involved in strategy formation need to be proactive in encouraging VSC engagement with social media as part of a long term leveraging strategy. This will limit the pressures on VSCs in the build up to and during a SME, as these practices will be part of the club's processes, enhancing the possibility of legacy creation.

Overall the results suggest that VSCs manage their activities under substantial resource constraints and additional expectations placed on these delivery agents due to a SMEs are not always desirable. Policy makers need to enhance and develop their relationships with VSCs and ensure they have a comprehensive directory of the club's characteristics and their engagement with legacy production, this will ensure the most effective use of their VSC networks.

This will limit the amount of adaptations and change expected of VSCs involved in a SMEs strategy, as a long term, supported relationship is in place. This will consider the requirements of the government and policy, whilst accounting for the variation and needs of the VSCs themselves. Furthermore, the data indicates that due to the diversity and challenges of implementing planned legacy, there is sustainable opportunity for informal, unplanned legacies, which may prove more practical and beneficial to the needs of VSCs and participants (Byers, Hayday and Pappous, under review).

8.8 Empirical Findings Study 2

The results from the multi-layered, mixed methods survey were spilt into two chapters, due to the extensive, in depth results that were accumulated. The descriptive results provided beneficial insights into the perceptions of NGB senior managers with detailed qualitative data to add explanation to the descriptive results. This provides unique insights into this stakeholder group, as investigation into their attitudes towards SMEs and legacy creation has not been examined previously (Frawley, Toohey and Veal, 2013). The inferential statistics were undertaken to allow the researcher to reach

conclusions that extend beyond the immediate description of the data itself (Social Research Methods, 2016). By undertaking exploratory factor analysis, it was possible to group similar variables into groups, reducing the data set; this process allowed the key elements that formulate SMEs legacy production and implementation to be discovered.

Chapter 6 highlighted the descriptive statistics from the BOS online survey and the results shed light on the attitudes and perceptions of the NGB senior management, who were the main delivery agent chosen to support the legacy objectives of the London 2012 Games. Key areas were addressed especially surrounding the challenges with club communication and engagement. These are common issues highlighted within the policy implementation literature and enforce the difficulties with using this group of individuals as delivery agents. The challenges were illustrated through the social layer of reality, which highlighted the diverse nature and variety of coaches and volunteers working within the sector. This heightens the challenge of successful legacy creation due to the diversity in abilities, attitudes and perspectives across the club network.

Furthermore, NGB managers provided thought-provoking insights into the evaluation and monitoring methods and the advantageous impact this had on their organisations. The WSPs and strategic focus provided the NGBs with direction. The commitment to the APS evaluation method also provided a governance improvement to the organisations research and insight teams, as they strengthened their research to support and defend the changes within the sports participation landscape. Through Chapter 6 and the qualitative element of the BOS online survey, many interesting findings emerged, which provided insight into the perceptions of NGBs and how individuals perceived SMEs (RQ1). By gaining an understanding of the opinions held, it was also possible to investigate how these perceptions impact NGB employees leveraging and implementation strategies within their organisations, to achieve the legacy objectives.

Chapter 7 explored the relationships between variables within the BOS online survey in more depth to discover latent elements that were involved in legacy creation. Four main factors emerged from the EFA, and these components: standards, opportunities for capitalisation, monitoring and club engagement, theorise the key

features of legacy production and implementation. A statistically significant difference was seen within two of the MANOVAs that were conducted on this data. Within Olympic and non-Olympic sports, two of the dependent factors ‘Opportunities for Capitalisation’ and ‘Monitoring and Evaluation’ displayed statistical significance. This suggests that the sport type, whether part of this SMEs or not, has a significant impact on the way NGBs perceive evaluation procedures and recognise the capitalisation opportunities they have available to them.

Moreover, a statistically significant difference was seen in relation to WSP funding cycles and the increase or decrease of funding available to NGBs. ‘Monitoring and Evaluation’, a factor of legacy creation, discovered through the FA displayed a significant difference, demonstrating that the NGB manager’s perception of evaluation surrounding legacy production is affected, dependent on whether their sport experienced funding increase or decrease. Research question two was answered through the four factors that merged from the EFA, as these highlight the key components that are involved in the legacy production and implementation process related to sports participation.

8.9 Recommendations for Future Research

Reflecting on the results produced from this thesis, some possible avenues for future research have been proposed:

1: This study was conducted through a critical realist perspective, which allowed the multiple layers of reality to be investigated and provided a more detailed understanding of legacy production. CR provided a tool through which legacy could be analysed beyond the typologies and broad categorisations that are currently used (Byers, Hayday and Pappous, under review). The use of CR as a tool to investigate legacy creation needs to be the framework of future research across other SMEs and other legacy types, as to date this research only provided analysis of the ‘sports participation’ legacy.

2: This research was the first to analyse the attitudes of key stakeholders (NGB managers) within the context of the legacy production and implementation. Further analysis of this stakeholder group and the valuable role they play within the sports

development sector would allow a stronger body of literature to emerge surrounding legacy production and the role of managers within National sports organisations. This would be interesting to explore across different cultural and funding contexts.

3: The multi-layered survey developed within this thesis provides a useful tool that can be utilised in future studies. Although in this study the survey was exploratory in nature, the internal reliability of the components were tested using Cronbach's Alpha. The four components form part of the legacy production and implementation process and the reliability of the Likert scales was shown. This ensures the survey can be adapted and used for future SMEs to investigate other sports organisations and the perceptions of key stakeholders about the SMEs legacy process.

4: It would be beneficial to research more than four non-popular sports to gain a wider picture of the legacy production processes undertaken by a wide array of NGBs. Additionally, it would be interesting to investigate a wider plethora of legacy types, as only 'sport participation' was under investigation during this research.

8.10 Recommendations for Practice

The results produced from this thesis, due to the empirical, participant focused nature of this research have led to recommendations for practitioners and SMEs hosting organisations:

1: VSCs should be incorporated fully into the planning and preparation stages of SMEs, as well as for smaller national events, as key stakeholders. This will limit some of the challenges experienced and outlined when using VSCs as policy implementers.

2: Research into the characteristics of VSCs is needed to ensure that NGBs have a clearer picture of the club's capabilities, needs and requirements and the reason for this is twofold. First, to ensure they were able to place their resources more strategically to the VSCs that are able and willing to assess with the legacy, thus making the implementation more effective. Second, this will enhance the relationship and understanding between NGBs and VSCs, as by having a clear dialogue and existing relationship between these two organisations, adaptations and changes will not be as hard to initiate.

3: Partnerships and collaborative working should be encouraged both at the national NGB level, as well as, locally through VSCs. By enhancing partnerships within or between sports and external partner's opportunities for sustainable and resource sharing increases the chance of successful long term legacy creation.

4: Relating to partnerships and the benefits of these mentioned above, consideration needs to be given to the sports councils funding type, through which funding is provided for grass root participation. As study 1 highlighted the competitive nature of the current funding system within England is causing rivalry between and within NGBs, instead of a joint strategy working towards a wider participation objective. Hence, the English sports council (SE) needs to provide clearer benefits or promotion towards collaborative working, which have shown above to enhance the sustainability of legacies in the long-term.

5: Media is highlighted as integral to legacy creation and social media and club website were utilised by clubs to ensure they could capitalise on the SMEs. Yet, issues were found when social media was not embedded into the clubs existing processes, hence a recommendation to NGBs would be to encourage the incorporation of technologies into a long-term development plan for the VSCs. Perhaps by providing free IT and social media training courses to their club network. This will limit the additional work and skill development needed around the SMEs itself.

6: Finally, and importantly the research has illustrated the need to consider informal, unplanned legacies, by ensuring coaches are flexible in their approach to adapt to resource or ability limitations, within the SMEs legacy creation process. This is due to the diverse nature and challenges shown when agents implemented the planned legacy objectives. Organisations should be prepared to encourage and allow flexibility and informal development of their initiatives to heighten club engagement and effectiveness of implementation itself.

These recommendations for practice help to highlight and suggest ways in which sporting organisations could improve the implementation and creation of policy surrounding SMEs in the future (RQ4) to ensure it is suitable, obtainable and accepted by the VSCs.

8.11 Reflection

These observations relate to my experiences and the challenges that I faced as a researcher during the process. They illustrate the professional development and learning that has been achieved during the duration of this thesis and suggest ways in which methodological and theoretical underpinnings were formulated. Working on this research for the last three years has highlighted the difficulties and complexities within the sports policy and SMEs literature. The task of trying to merge and investigate these two discourses, which up until this point have been separate, was a challenge. There were many points in which as an inexperienced researcher, with limited experience of the academic discourse I wanted to rush into decisions and study plans without full consideration of the theoretical underpinnings. Yet, the individuals within the sports development sector allowed me to develop my ideas alongside insights from the real-world setting, which for me was critical to develop a useful and beneficial piece of research.

Relating to methodological practices and challenges experienced throughout this project, a lot has been learnt, especially for me as a researcher. The benefit of doing a mixed methods project, was to provide the 'why' to support the 'what', however the collaboration of these methods was difficult at times to manage. Sample size is another challenge, that as a researcher I was conscious of, as the objective is to obtain the most robust results possible. The sample secured for study 1, of four non-popular sports was suitable, due to the case study nature of this thesis, which can be built on the future. I feel that the VSC sample itself across the four non-popular sports could have been more extensive, both in terms of location and quantity. In a future study, it would be beneficial to gain a wider geographical sample and larger number of individual club interviews, as although there was a range of interviewees, this could be strengthened. Yet, within the current thesis, this was not possible due to club availability, as well as, limited financial and travel resources availability to me as a researcher.

8.12 Closing Remarks

In reflection, the main purpose of this research was to investigate the role that NGBs played in leveraging and creating a participation legacy. This brought to light

some unexpected insights into the community sport system, across NGBs, as well as other delivery agents such as CSPs. This research has provided a clearer understanding into the specific attitudes of key stakeholders, which up to this point has been missing within the academic discourse. This can be built upon within future studies to better understand the role that these valuable agents play within legacy creation.

Discourse on VSCs has been more extensive, yet this current research provided valuable findings relating to the significance of these stakeholders within the context of legacy production. Primarily, NGBs need to ensure they engage clubs in the SMEs planning stages and develop a clearer understanding of their club characteristics. Furthermore, encouragement should be placed on building partnerships at both a national and local level. NGBs need to permit flexibility for informal legacies to emerge and they need to support VSC stakeholders that may need upskilling in areas such as IT and social media. These practical recommendations will enhance the legacy creation process, ensuring that SMEs are utilised effectively. This research highlighted encouraging perspectives relating to the importance of partnerships and the benefits of social media as a leveraging strategy. Yet, similarly to generic policy implementation, issues surrounding communication, VSC engagement and attitudes were noted.

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Appendices

Appendix 1- Participant Information Sheet-Study 1



Participant Information Sheet- Study 1

Grass-root participation programmes and the legacy objective of getting more people participating. ‘Best Practises’ of National Governing Bodies in England.

The University of Kent, School of Sport & Exercise Sciences approved this research study.

Emily Hayday, PhD Student within the School of Sport and Exercise Sciences

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You are invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide if you would like to participate in the research, it is important that you are aware what the research consists of and also why this research is being carried out. Please take your time to read the following information and feel free to email the researcher if there is anything that is unclear or if you would like more detailed information.

What is the purpose of the study?

We are interested in creating a framework of constructs that best outline and describe the key characteristics required when implementing a grass root programme. The focus groups/interview will cover key themes that have been developed from the literature and previous studies, these themes seem to hold prevalence within participation programmes, additionally these themes are going to be used as prompts to fuel discussion between yourself and the other focus groups participants, regarding best practises and for you to draw on your own personal experiences and expertise. Minimal research has been conducted on this topic area, thus we would like to publish our findings within a research journal and whilst also providing the findings to the professional community. This research study and its findings shall also contribute towards my PhD project.

Why have I been chosen?

We are interested in understanding the implementation process surrounding participation legacies and are aiming to construct an inventory of ‘best practises’ for future grass-root participation programmes. You have been chosen due to your expertise and experience within the sports development and management field and your opinion will ensure a diverse range of opinions and expertise are considered.

Do I have to take part?

No, there is not an obligation for you to participate in the research. It is up to you to decide whether or not you would like to take part. If you agree to participate, then you will be required to complete a consent form, but you are free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason and this will not affect your rights.

What do I have to do?

You will be invited to attend a focus group (which is group interview) with other individuals that have expertise within the field. You will also be given this PIS and asked to sign a consent form. I (Emily Hayday) will lead the focus group and I will ask questions to the group as a whole and encourage participation from all interviewees. The questions will link to key characteristics and aspects of grass-root participation programme, as well as key strengths and weaknesses of programmes that you have identified, from either personal or past experiences.

The duration of the focus groups will be approximately one hour. Nevertheless, can you allow one and a half hours for your involvement, in case discussions are extended. The focus groups will include between two and ten subjects and will be undertaken in a safe and quiet location, at a suitable location and time for all participants. The sessions will be recorded using an audio tape recorder to allow transcription and analysis of the discussions at a later date.

Will my participation in the research be kept confidential?

Yes, it will. Each subject will be allocated a pseudonym for the purposes of the duration of the study and any subsequent publications. This will ensure that no one will be able to identify who you are. For the report that I will write, any direct quotes will remain anonymous and any quotes that may affect this and disclose your identity will not be used, without your consent.

All data will be stored in accordance with the University of Kent guidelines, as well as, in line with the Data Protection Act (1998). Any electronic data will be stored within a password-protected computer file. Hard data shall be stored in a locked filing cabinet within the University of Kent premises. All materials from this research (word processed transcripts, audio recordings and files, and consent forms) shall be kept for a three year period and then be destroyed in accordance with the University of Kent guidelines. My supervisor is the only individual apart from myself that has access to the data. If any data is requested by the research journal or review panel, all documentation will have been anonymised.

Are there any benefits or risks involved in the research?

The risks involved within this study are minimal as the questions that I will ask focus on your grass root participation programmes and their key components and so this topic area is not anticipated to cause any discomfort or distress. No questions will be

asked on sensitive or delicate topics. Nevertheless, if you do not want to answer any specific questions, then you will not be expected too. The participation of this research is on a voluntary basis and the focus group will offer you the opportunity to participate in a research study. Additionally, provide you with the opportunity to meet and discuss your expertise, thoughts and experiences with individuals who share involvement in the same sector and discipline as yourself.

Researchers Contact Details

If you have any questions, then please contact me: by email (eh321@kent.ac.uk) or telephone (07800 924897). Alternatively, you can contact my supervisor, Dr Sakis Pappous, by email (A.Pappous@kent.ac.uk).

If you would like to be provided with information about the findings of the study, please provide me with your contact details and I will happily provide you with a written copy of the group findings in due course.

Thank you for considering this research and I hope to hear from you soon regarding participation in the project.

Appendix 2- Consent Form Study 1

CONSENT FORM

Title of project: Grass-root participation programmes, evaluating the implementation process and 'Best Practises' of National Governing Bodies in England.

Name of investigator: Emily Hayday

Participant Identification Number for this project:

Please initial box

1. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time. Emily Hayday can be contacted by telephone (07800 924897) or email (eh321@kent.ac.uk).

2. I have read and understood the information contained on the accompanying Participant Information Sheet and I have had the opportunity to consider the material and to ask any questions.

3. I am aware that this interview is audio recorded for the purpose of analysing and transcribing the discussion content and I am happy to proceed.

4. I understand that my responses will be anonymised before analysis and that I will be given a pseudonym and any identifying information will be removed. I give permission for members of the research team (researcher and supervisor) to have access to my anonymised responses.

5. I am aware that the researcher intends to publish the results and that anonymised direct quotes will be included in the publication and materials may be shown to a research panel if needed in the process of publication.

6. I agree to participate in the research project.

_____	_____	_____
Name of participant	Date	Signature
_____	_____	_____
Name of person taking consent (if different from lead researcher)	Date	Signature
_____	_____	_____
Lead researcher	Date	Signature

Copies: When completed: 1 for participant; 1 for researcher site file; 1 (original) to be kept in main fi

Email address for any further communication related to the research:

Appendix 3- Interview Script/Questions for Minority VSCs

This study focuses on London 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games and investigates the processes surrounding the sports participation legacy.

They will be semi-structured nature, to allow for key areas to be addressed, whilst still allowing individuals to elaborate on their own personal experiences and viewpoints.

- 1) Hello, could you please provide me with a bit of background about yourself (age, interests, job role, values and beliefs surrounding sport).
- 2) How long you have you been involved in [the sport] and what your main motivation for being a coach?
- 3) Could you provide be with some information on your club, its size, when did it start, nationality and number of participants?
- 4) When you think about the term 'legacy' (either generally or in relation to London 2012, what does this mean to you?
- 5) Have you always held this belief?
- 6) When thinking about Mega-Events Olympic and Paralympic Games and Commonwealth Games for example, what is your opinion of them?
- 7) Do you see them as empowering or as a disadvantage in regards to the grass-root participation agenda?
- 8) Reflecting on the plan to host the London 2012 Games, in your opinion do you think the Government considered the capability and ability for NGBs and clubs like yourselves to support the participation objective?
- 9) If yes did you feel prepared and if not how do you think this could be improved?
- 10) What impact do you think that hosting the London 2012 games had on your sports profile and public awareness? (Media coverage, raised awareness, elite idols).
- 11) Did you notice any patterns or trends within the participation levels pre and post Olympics?
(With whom did you notice these change-new beginners, returning participations, children or adults? specific numbers of the participant change-was this sustained)
- 12) How did you promote [our sport] to capitalise on the games, through marketing or advertising? Was this successful- could it be improved?
- 13) Did you use or engage with social media? (pre games, details, its impact)
- 14) Overall as a NGB and joint VSC, what was your main strategy to achieve the Olympic legacy objective of increasing grass-root participation?

- 15) Do you feel that you successfully achieved this and do you think it was achieved and will continue within your sport?
- 16) If not what do you think could be done now to encourage more people into your sport and club?
- 17) Did you speak to other clubs to get advice on what programmes and strategies were available and what to implement to achieve an increase in participation?
- 18) Yes- what and from who? And if no why did you not do this?
- 19) Could you provide me with some detail on the programmes you used? Such as 'satellite clubs', [change to be related in each sports WSP] and the 'retain and return'– their successes/limitations, club engagement, success rate of the programme?
- 20) Did you notice any issues or problems with the programmes that you implemented? (I.e. with club engagement, lack of resources, funding issues, communication?)
- 21) Were you actively engaged in using and promoting specific national programmes to promote and facilitate participation in your sport? (such as Sportivate or Gold Challenge)
- 22) What was your engagement with these programmes? (Were there any problems regarding volunteer time, amount of paper work, volunteer responsibility, understanding and support in the application process etc.).
- 23) Did you use any funding, if so how did you find the application process?
- 24) Sport England is the main body that funds your NGB. Their main objective is to increase participation through NGBs and their clubs network. What do you know about them?
- 25) What is your opinion of this and the way in which you are monitored?
- 26) What is your reliance on Sport England?
- 27) The target age group is 14-25 for Sport England which obviously sometimes isn't realistic as a lot of older individuals are involved and if they are between 16 and 20 a lot of clubs have highlighted it's very difficult to them involved. Some individuals have mentioned that they can't meet criteria of the funding. What is your experience with funding bids and proposals?
- 28) What is the communication like between you and the NGB and what impact does this have?
- 29) Has this changed since the Olympics? (Have you seen any improvement or decline)

- 30) What was the support and guidance like from you as an NGB to your club network? (regarding specific programmes, funding opportunities, your role within the participation objective and changes in funding)
- 31) In your opinion what would you change within your clubs strategy or approach, if we had the opportunity to host the Olympics in the UK again?
- 32) Finally, reflecting on the London 2012 Olympics what was your biggest success (relating to grass-root participation)?
- 33) Conversely, what is something that you learnt from the experience of the London 2012 Olympics that you have since improved as an organisation as a result of the Games?

Thank you very much for your time

Appendix 4- List of possible club's interviews for four non-popular sports

Table 15- Table displaying the number of head office and clubs interviewed including regions.

Sport	No. of Head Office Interviews	Total Number of Clubs¹⁰ (England)	Total Number of clubs interviewed	Regions	Website
Handball	1	67	8	4-SE 1-Central 2-NE 1-SW	http://www.englishhandball.com/club-finder/
Judo	4	552	5	3-London 1-Central 1-SW	http://www.britishjudo.org.uk/find-a-club
Volleyball	1	269	6	2-SE 1-NE 1-NW 1-Central 1-SW	https://www.volleyballengland.org/club_finder
Fencing	1	271	6	2- SE 1-NE 1-NW 1-London 1-SW	http://www.britishfencing.com/clubs/

¹⁰ From the club finder website community clubs were targeted (excluding university clubs)

Appendix 5- Interviewee Characteristics Study 1

Table 16- A table highlighting the key characteristics of the interviewees and their VSCs.

	Subject No.	Gender	Age	Coaching	Playing	Social media	Age of club	Job	Location	Participation rates	Extra info
Fencing											
1	F1	Male	50+	20+	40+	Already used- increase amount positive effect	20+	IT- FT	South West	Increase 10+ sustained (ave. 30)	
2	F2	Male	28	NGB	20	-	-	NGB	London	-	Played at elite level
3	F3	Male	65+	30+	54+	Not good with social media	25+	Coach- private school, uni and community club and works NGB Was employee of LOCOG for three months	South East	Club Increase 2 or 3+ (ave. 25) University taster post 2012: 200 people, 50 sustained	Limited interest in recreational more competitive- not interested in beginner programmes
4	F4	Female	65+	10+	25+	No social media- go into schools, youth clubs, scouts, cubs, brownies, newspaper	12	Retired- ex teacher	North East	Did increase- 5 people now returned (ave. Hub 10 Satellite 17)	Set club up when it closed coach and sectary
5	F5	Male	46	25	30	No social media- school based and focus on own Hub set up.	5	History teacher	South East	No change pre & post (60 school & 40 community)	Community club linked to private school
6	F6	Male	40+	6+	11	Already involved Facebook 100+ followers- however already involved in fencing	65+	Freelance Graphic designer	London	+6-10 adults un-sustained + 20-25 Juniors sustained	Started taster days and beginner's courses- new for them
7	F7	Male	35	15	20+	Facebook site however this is not actively pushed- limited with technology	5	FT fencing coach and sells elite fencing equipment	North West	Juniors- started 2011 (ave. 12) Adults- started 2013 (Olympic driven) (ave. 10/12) All sustained	British Fencing website- raised participation as people contacted that club, due to Olympics.

Handball											
8	H1	Male	40+	0	0	Loves social media – highlights its importance amongst young demographic of coaches	-	CEO	North West	-	NGB- business mind-set never played handball- from sports development sector
9	H2	Male	30+	1	2	Yes, worked well added Handball to and established Facebook page and website, encouraged participation within our existing network.	2	Sports development officer	South East	Started 2012 (Olympics-driven) (ave 20-30 people) + 3 satellite clubs (5, 15, 20) sustained	Passion for getting kids active-strong growth plans. Used sport to meet other council targets
10	H3	Male	67	3	3	Yes, uses social media	2	PT sports dev officer- joint role between CSP, NGB and university	South East	Started early 2013 (Olympic driven) was 55 retained 35-40	Ex-fire fighter interested in many sports
11/12	H4/5	Male	21/45+	5/3	6/2	No- not keen in FB	3	FT coach Civil Servant	South East	Started 2012 (Olympics driven) (ave 20-25)	Older coach has taken over- not involved in field
13	H6	Male	28	15+	20	Yes – already existed	2	Coach- school and PT dev officer for SW	South West	Started 2013 (Olympic driven) ave 60	Foreign French- know how to find pots of money
14	H7	Male	48+	20	35+	Yes- already using added posts to drive interest	15	FT job- involved NGB comp officer	Central	Increase (88 enquiries instead of 2)- 4 players now in first team (ave 70)	Involved in many aspects of handball-positive participation changes
15	H8	Male	24	1	3	No social media	2	Full time student	North East	Increase Started 40 people (Ave 15-20)	took over the club when old coach left
16	H9	Female	27	20+	14+	Used social media to start club	3	Ex PE teacher- now full time coach	North East	Started 2012 (Olympics driven) Started 20 people progressed to 50 ave.	Foreign- Norway, keen to start up club
Judo											
17	J1	Male	27	5	-	No encouragement to clubs to use social media	-	NGB regional development officer	London	-	Legacy worked in London-successful 4-year intervention

											and investment-post Olympics that did not continue 4 years
18	J2	Male	49	2	-	No encouragement to clubs to use social media	-	NGB regional development officer	Central	-	Many schemes aimed at new members and post Olympics role underused.
19	J3	Female	29	-	-	We are still too slow; we were not prepared with promotional materials for clubs	-	Membership manager	Central	-	Needed to engage clubs more-get them involved. Also, use research to find out what is needed. 5 years BJA
20	J4	Male	31	-	-	-	-	Service manager	London	-	Working BJA 4 years-interest in SD. Feels did not capitalise on the games lack of publicity and strategic planning.
21	J5	Male	49	26	20	No social media-promotion via flyers and	45	Coach and other full time job	London	Increase- extra promotion around 2012 (Ave 70-80)	Daughter on elite squad- runs community club in epicentre of London 2012. 5 coaches at club. Limited funding application as club successful to date.
22	J6	Male	-	35	30	No social media or much promotional advertising	8	Full time coach- ex school teacher	London	No impact (ave 40-60 members/2 clubs)	Community and university club. Experienced club coach- and knowledge of funding systems
23	J7	Male	45	30	20	Yes – already existed	10	Coaches 15+ hours per week in community + FT in high performance Judo environment- University	Central	Small increase as extra interest – not sustained (ave 60-70).	Very knowledgeable about sports development system
24	J8	Female	55	45	35	Yes, to engage with youth- already established through non-profit organisation, added club to it	5-8 (two clubs)	Coach and sport charity worker- used to work for BJA	London	Increase and sustained (ave 30 people)	
25	J9	Male	46	38	22	Yes, uses social media- already using	8	Full time teacher private school and coach	South West	Existing school club. Increase-	School and community club

						or school added when expanded to community				branched in community (Ave 80-90)	
Volleyball											
26	V1	Male	50	20	-	Use social media to increase public increase and engage with clubs	-	NGB participation manager	-	-	Great ideas to reconnect with the clubs great forward thinking ideas
27	V2	Male	50	40	32	No use of social media	10	Full time job non sport related + coach	South East	No change (ave 30)	
28	V3	Male	48	30	10	Yes- proactively uses social media	8	Full time job non sport related + coach	South East	Increase & sustained (extra training night) (ave 30-40)	
29	V4	Male	46	39	30	Yes- already had and expanded to capitalise on Olympics	20	Full time coach- close relationship with the NGB	Central	No change (ave 90)	
30	V5	Female	57	46	20	Yes- Twitter and Facebook- built on Olympics	10	Part time lecturer and coach (Partly disabled)	North East	Minimal interest-not sustained (ave 40-50)	
31	V6	Female	51	35	20	Yes-face book for own academy	14	Runs own academy for kids and PT NGB regional officer	South West	Workshops in schools important Olympics 10+ (ave 150-200)	Community Academy- linked to schools
32	V7	Male	46	20	26	Yes- relaunched in 2012. Facebook, Twitter and Website all connected	15+	Environmental consultancy-engineer	North West	Ave 40 adults Junior club set up 2012 increase 4-24- sustained	Link to rugby club in Sports Hub- Olympic driven development into youth

Participant Information Sheet- Study 2

Investigating the perceptions and attitudes of National Governing Body (NGB) staff towards the London 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games.

The University of Kent, School of Sport & Exercise Sciences approved this research study.

Emily Hayday, PhD Student within the School of Sport and Exercise Sciences

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You are invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide if you would like to participate in the research, it is important that you are aware what the research consists of and also why this research is being carried out. Please take your time to read the following information and feel free to email the researcher if there is anything that is unclear or if you would like more detailed information.

What is the purpose of the study?

We are focusing on the London 2012 Olympics and Paralympic Games and more specifically on the legacy objective of increasing grass-root sports participation. As part of the head office team for an NGB, I am interested in your opinions and attitudes both current and past towards the London 2012 Games and the impact that you think this mega-event had if any on your sport. This will allow us to develop a clearer understanding of the underlying processes involved with the English sport system, rather than just the impacts and outcomes of such a mega-event. This research will provide an enhanced understanding of community sport delivery within NGBs, as well as organisational structure and procedures, in the context of the London 2012 Olympic Games. Minimal research has been conducted on this topic area, thus we would like to publish our findings within a research journal whilst also providing the findings to the professional community. This research study and its findings shall also contribute towards my PhD project.

Why have I been chosen?

You have been chosen due to your position within the NGBs. I am looking to use your expertise and experience within the community sport field and to investigate your opinions surrounding the London 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games.

Do I have to take part?

No, there is not an obligation for you to participate in the research. It is up to you to decide whether or not you would like to take part. If you agree to participate, then you will be required to complete a consent form, but you are free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason and this will not affect your rights.

What do I have to do?

You will be invited to complete an online survey, which should take no longer than 25 minutes and you will also be given this PIS and asked on the survey to give your consent. The survey addresses topics relating to the grass root participation programmes, the NGB's itself, knowledge transfer and communication and experiences with the voluntary clubs to gain a detailed understanding of your attitudes and perceptions towards London 2012. Additionally, if you decide to participate in the research there is a possibility that you may be emailed by one of the research team after you have completed the survey, if there is further clarity needed, relating to your responses.

Will my participation in the research be kept confidential?

Yes, it will. Each subject will be allocated a pseudonym for the purposes of the duration of the study and any subsequent publications. This will ensure that no one will be able to identify who you are. For the report that I will write, any direct quotes will remain anonymous and any quotes that may affect this and disclose your identity will not be used, without your consent.

All data will be stored in accordance with the University of Kent guidelines, as well as, in line with the Data Protection Act (1998). Any electronic data will be stored within a password-protected computer file. Hard data shall be stored in a locked filing cabinet within the University of Kent premises. All materials from this research (word processed transcripts, audio recordings and files, and consent forms) shall be kept for a three-year period and then be destroyed in accordance with the University of Kent guidelines. My supervisor is the only individual apart from myself that has access to the data. If any data is requested by the research journal or review panel, all documentation will have been anonymised.

Are there any benefits or risks involved in the research?

The risks involved within this study are minimal as the questions that I will ask focus on your NGB and participation programmes, thus it is not anticipated to cause any discomfort or distress. No questions will be asked on sensitive or delicate topics. Nevertheless, if you do not want to answer any specific questions, then you will not be expected to. Also the participation of this research is on a voluntary basis and you

do not have to participate. As you are the organisations on the front line delivering the grass root participation to the nation, the findings provide valuable and advantageous insights into the strengths and challenges that all NGBs face within the English sports system. This will allow you, future mega-event hosts and policy makers to have a greater understanding of the multi-faceted nature of how you implement and aim to achieve such an objective, and provide some suggestions for future practice.

Researchers Contact Details

If you have any questions, then please contact me: by email (eh321@kent.ac.uk) or telephone (07800 924897). Alternatively, you can contact my supervisor, Dr Sakis Pappous, by email (A.Pappous@kent.ac.uk).

If you would like to be provided with information about the findings of the study, please provide me with your contact details and I will happily provide you with a written copy of the findings in due course.

Thank you for considering this research and I hope to hear from you soon regarding participation in the project.

Appendix 7- Draft Template of BOS Online Survey

National Governing Bodies (NGBs) role in the creation and delivery of the participation legacy objective

Data Protection

Your involvement in this questionnaire is voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any point. Please answer the questions as **honestly as possible**. All data collected for this questionnaire will be held securely and will be anonymised. This demographic data will be **held confidently**, in accordance to the Data Protection Act 1998 and will not be passed on to third party members. Additionally, your **responses will not be connected to your organisation**. All questions are **mandatory** unless stated otherwise.

Please note- I am asking you to think about **your opinions** both **pre and post the hosting of the Olympic Games**. I understand that you may not have been involved with your current NGB before London 2012, so please answer all questions to your maximum capabilities.

1 If you are happy to participate please select yes and complete the following questions.

Yes, I give my informed consent

No, I am unwilling to participate

Instructions for completion

The majority of questions are answered via an agreement scale-**please tick the box that you feel is most relevant**. Some questions require a **longer qualitative answer to provide explanation**.

'Slightly Agree', 'Agree' and 'Strongly Agree' all relate to your **level of agreement**.

'Slightly Disagree', 'Disagree' and 'Strongly Disagree' relate to your **level of disagreement**.

2	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree/ Nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I was pleased that we were hosting the 2012 Olympic Games							
The Games provided us with a unique opportunity to show-case our sport							
I was in full support of the London 2012 Olympic Games							
The nation's expectations surrounding the Olympic objective of increasing participation, provided an opportunity for us to inspire people to take up the sport							
The plan to host was taken without considering the capability and ability for us (NGBs) to support the participation objective							
3 We received advice and liaised with other NGBs to decide on what programmes and strategies to implement in order to increase participation							

4 Regarding the statement above please discuss your experiences and communication with other NGBs and why you did or did not receive advice from them?

5	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree/ Nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

I felt satisfied with the funding opportunities that hosting the Games brought to our sport							
I understood the requirements placed on us by Sport England in our responsibility to increase grass-root participation							
We created and planned participation strategies and programmes to ensure we could capitalise on the Games							
Our organisation implemented specific participation programmes/strategies to make the most of the Games							
I was pleased with the financial support provided by Sport England in the build-up to the Games							
I felt satisfied with the level of guidance provided by Sport England in the build-up to the Games							
6	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree/ Nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I was pleased with the financial support provided by Sport England after the Games							
I felt satisfied with the level of guidance provided by Sport England after the Games							
Voluntary clubs had the necessary financial resources to successfully implement our programmes and meet participation objectives							
Voluntary clubs had the necessary guidance to successfully implement our programmes and meet participation objectives							

7	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree/ Nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The communication between our NGB and voluntary club network requires no improvements							

Knowledge transfer from the NGB to the clubs regarding the successes and failures of our participation programmes occurred							
--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

8 Why do you think this knowledge transfer did or didn't occur between **your NGB and voluntary clubs**?

9	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree/ Nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
We were happy to share our successes and advice with other NGBs, even with the competitive nature of funding within the English sports system							

10 If you are in disagreement and were not happy to share information about your successes, what could change to encourage collaboration?

11	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree/ Nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The clubs were fully aware and understood our participation strategies and programmes							
Implementation of our participation programmes was consistent across our club network							
We fully engaged clubs with the programmes that were created to increase participation levels							

12 If you feel implementation was not consistent across your club network, why do you think it varied?

13 If you feel clubs were not fully engaged, why do you think this occurred?

14 Please state below what Sport England use to evaluate your performance and provide you with funding (Active People Survey [APS] or your alternative)

15	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree/ Nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am satisfied with the APS (or your alternative) as an evaluative method from which our funding is decided.							
The APS monitoring and evidence needed by Sport England has improved our research and insight into our participation programmes and client demographics							
The specific monitoring by Sport England has made our organisation more efficient							
I feel that the Whole Sport Plan, 4-year funding cycles have been beneficial to help us focus and set development targets for our sport							
I feel we achieved the grass-root participation outcomes that we set out to achieve within our NGB							
If we were to host the Games again I would not change our community sports strategy and approach							

16 Why would or wouldn't you make changes to your community sport strategy?

17 What positive impact do you think the APS (or your evaluative method) has had on the development of your sport in England?

17. a What negative impact do you think the APS (or your evaluative method) has had on the development of your sport in England?

18 If you could give advice to your Brazilian counterpart on grass-root participation strategies and programmes prior to them hosting the 2016 Olympic and Paralympic Games what would you suggest?

19 If there are any other points you would like to include regarding the sports participation legacy objective and the role of NGBs it would be greatly appreciated

Demographic Data

20 Gender

Male

Female

20. a Age

18-24

25-34

35-44

45-59

60-69

70+

21 Which NGB are you currently working for?

.....

22 Job Title

.....

23. a How long have you held this position

.....

23. b Have you previously worked for this NGB in a junior position

Yes

No

23. c If yes, what was your position?

.....

24 Email address:

.....

Appendix 8- Responses to BOS survey

Table 17- Displays the responses received from the BOS online survey across the 46 funded NGBs

Sport	Phase 1	Phase 2	Total
Angling		1	1
Archery		3	3
Athletics		5	5
Badminton	1	3	4
Baseball/Softball	2	1	3
Basketball	1	1	2
Boccia			
Bowls		2	2
Boxing		1	1
Canoeing		1	1
Cricket		2	2
Cycling		1	1
Equestrian	1	2	3
Fencing		1	1
Football			
Goalball		1	1
Golf	2	1	3
Gymnastics			
Handball	2	3	5
Hockey		2	2
Judo	6	1	7
Lacrosse	2	3	5
Modern Pentathlon			
Mountaineering			
Movement & Dance	1	3	4
Netball	6		6
Orienteering	1	2	3
Rounders	1		1
Rowing	4	1	5
Rugby League	1		1
Rugby Union			
Sailing			
Shooting	1		1
Snowsport			
Squash		1	1

Swimming		6	6
Table Tennis	3	2	5
Taekwondo		1	1
Tennis	1		1
Triathlon			
Volleyball	4	1	5
Water Skiing		2	2
Weightlifting	3	3	6
Wheelchair Basketball		1	1
Wheelchair Rugby		1	1
Wrestling		1	1
Not disclosed		2	2
Total	43	62	105