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“I still think we’ve got mountains to climb”: Evaluating the grassroots sport participation legacy of the London 2012 Paralympic Games for disabled people in England

This research is the first to comprehensively evaluate and critically appraise the effectiveness of the London 2012 Paralympic Games (LPG) on the grassroots sports participation of disabled people in England. The findings enable future organisers of the Paralympic Games to understand the limitations and scope of the ‘legacy’ the event can have on disabled people’s sport participation. In-depth interviews with senior managers from 30 sport and non-sport organisations revealed the LPG had a short-term impact on sport participation. Most sports organisations and VSCs failed to leverage the LPG and thus failed to capitalise on the demand generated by the LPG. The main benefit of the LPG was the perceived catalytic impact on the development of the disability sport system. 538 voluntary sport clubs (VSCs) completed an online questionnaire about the impact of the LPG on disabled people’s participation at VSCs from sports featured at the LPG. The LPG had minimal impact on mainstream VSCs, but was more successful for VSCs from disability-specific sports. In general, VSCs were constrained by their knowledge of disability and provision of sport for disabled people, as well as resources required for leveraging the LPG. Data from an online questionnaire of 81 non-active disabled people revealed systemic and social constraints to be more prohibitive to sports participation than constraints linked to the LPG. Systemic and social constraints included provision of sport participation, economic factors, organisations offering unsuitable sport participation opportunities, and access to sport participation opportunities. This research found the Paralympic Games to be an ineffective mechanism for directly increasing disabled people’s sport participation. Instead of viewing the Paralympic Games as a catalyst for sport participation, stakeholders should leverage the Paralympic Games’ potential to increase awareness and demand for sport participation. The Paralympic Games should complement, rather than replace, efforts to increase disabled people’s sport participation.

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Abbreviations

ANOVA = Analysis of variance

APC = Australian Paralympic Committee

APS = Active People Survey

APS1 = Active People Survey Wave 1

APS10 = Active People Survey Wave 10

ASA = Amateur Swimming Association

BBC = British Broadcasting Corporation

BBS = British Blind Sport

BOS = Bristol Online Survey

BWB = British Wheelchair Basketball

CMOC = Context-mechanisms-outcome configuration

CP Sport = Cerebral Palsy Sport

CSP = County sport partnership

CYP = Children and young people

DCMS = Department of Culture, Media and Sport

DPO = Disabled people's organisation

DRUK = Disability Rights UK

DSO = Disability Sport Organisation

EAWD = Elite athletes with disabilities

ECB = England and Wales Cricket Board

EFDS = English Federation of Disability Sport

Games = Olympic and Paralympic Games

GB = Great Britain

GLM = General linear model

ICF = International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health

ICIDH = International Classification of Impairments, Disabilities and Handicaps

IOC = International Olympic Committee

IPC = International Paralympic Committee

KMO = Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy

LERI = London East Research Institute

LPG = The London 2012 Paralympic Games
M = Mean
MANOVA = Multivariate analysis of variance
MSE = Mega sport event
NDSO = National Disability Sport Organisations
NGB = National governing bodies of sport
Non-SO = Non-sporting organisation
NSO = National sporting organisation
PCA = Principal components analysis
PE = Physical education
PhD = Doctor of Philosophy degree
RDA = Riding for the Disabled Association
RFL = Rugby Football League
RQ1 = Research question 1
RQ2 = Research question 2
RQ3 = Research question 3
RQs = Research questions
SD = Standard deviation
SPEAR = Centre for Sport, Physical Education & Activity Research
SPSS = Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SSP = School sport partnership
TV = Television
UK = United Kingdom
VI = Visual impairment
VSC = Voluntary sport club
WHO = World Health Organisation
WSP = Whole Sport Plans
YST = Youth Sport Trust

Abstract

This research is the first to comprehensively evaluate and critically appraise the effectiveness of the London 2012 Paralympic Games (LPG) on the grassroots sports participation of disabled people in England. The findings enable future organisers of the Paralympic Games to understand the limitations and scope of the 'legacy' the event can have on disabled people's sport participation. In-depth interviews with senior managers from 30 sport and non-sport organisations revealed the LPG had a short-term impact on sport participation. Most sports organisations and VSCs failed to leverage the LPG and thus failed to capitalise on the demand generated by the LPG. The main benefit of the LPG was the perceived catalytic impact on the development of the disability sport system. 538 voluntary sport clubs (VSCs) completed an online questionnaire about the impact of the LPG on disabled people's participation at VSCs from sports featured at the LPG. The LPG had minimal impact on mainstream VSCs, but was more successful for VSCs from disability-specific sports. In general, VSCs were constrained by their knowledge of disability and provision of sport for disabled people, as well as resources required for leveraging the LPG. Data from an online questionnaire of 81 non-active disabled people revealed systemic and social constraints to be more prohibitive to sports participation than constraints linked to the LPG. Systemic and social constraints included provision of sport participation, economic factors, organisations offering unsuitable sport participation opportunities, and access to sport participation opportunities. This research found the Paralympic Games to be an ineffective mechanism for directly increasing disabled people's sport participation. Instead of viewing the Paralympic Games as a catalyst for sport participation, stakeholders should leverage the Paralympic Games' potential to increase awareness and demand for sport participation. The Paralympic Games should complement, rather than replace, efforts to increase disabled people's sport participation.

Keywords: London 2012 Paralympic Games; Disability; Grassroots sport participation legacy; Mega-event

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background

The London 2012 Paralympic Games (LPG) is considered to be the most successful Paralympic Games of all time, in terms of a sporting spectacle and event organisation (Degun 2012). Successful Great British Paralympians and sell-out crowds ensured the 2012 Paralympic Games in London was a memorable sporting event for the British public. There is little doubt that the event was a triumph, but what about the legacy for the sport participation of disabled people at the grassroots level? Was the London 2012 Paralympic Games an unqualified success in securing a positive grassroots sport participation legacy for disabled people in England? This thesis will assess the impact of the LPG on grassroots sport participation, as well as examine the process involved in the management of the 'legacy'.

The LPG was hosted amid a backdrop of legacy rhetoric, with increased sport participation, in particular, a stated legacy ambition (DCMS 2008). Lord Sebastian Coe, as part of the London 2012 bid team, persuaded the International Olympic Committee (IOC) to choose London as the host for the 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games, largely thanks to the promise of a significant legacy for sport (Gibson 2009). The hosting of the 2012 Games was intended to 'inspire a generation', particularly children and young people, through inspirational sporting performances witnessed at the Olympic and Paralympic Games (DCMS 2008).

It is important to acknowledge that the hosting of the Paralympic Games is currently an obligation for Olympic host organisers (Cashman 2006). Indeed, Darcy and Appleby (2011) argue that the primary motive of the hosts of the Paralympic Games is likely to be the hosting of the Olympic Games. In 2007, the UK government outlined five legacy pledges that the 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games would attempt to deliver, with increased physical activity and participation in sport a key ambition (DCMS 2008). Following criticism of a perceived side-lining of the Paralympic Games and its potential for positive legacy benefits (Weed and Dowse 2009), a specific strategy for the legacy of the LPG was announced in March 2010 by the UK government (DCMS 2010). Three general objectives for the LPG legacy were articulated in the legacy strategy, 'London 2012: A legacy for disabled people'. These were to:

- 1) affect a positive attitudinal change in how disabled people are viewed in society;
- 2) to increase the opportunities for disabled people to participate in sport and to be physically active, and
- 3) to increase the opportunities for disabled people in employment (DCMS 2010).

This research examines the legacy aim of using the LPG to increase the sports participation of disabled people in England. The Coalition government did update Labour's 2010 legacy pledges in April 2011, but increasing the sport participation of disabled people, regardless of life-stage, was kept as a legacy aim (Office for Disability Issues 2011).

1.2 The Paralympic Games and the role of the International Paralympic Committee

The International Paralympic Committee (IPC) is the international federation responsible for Paralympic sport around the world, and in the development of the Paralympic Games and Paralympic sport. The IPC was founded in 1989 and has subsequently been solely responsible for the Paralympic Games since 1992 (Gold and Gold 2007). Before 1988, the Paralympic Games was frequently held in different locations from the Olympic Games (Brittain 2010; Gold and Gold

2007; Legg and Steadward 2011a). With the IOC responsible for the Olympic Games host city bidding process, and with no obligation for Olympic hosts to stage the Paralympic Games, Gold and Gold (2007, pp. 135-136) commented that the ‘...absence of any inclusive philosophy regarding athletes with disability saw a succession of cities effectively refuse to stage the Paralympics.’ The Seoul 1988 Paralympic Games is therefore widely viewed as the origin of the modern Paralympic Games (Legg and Steadward 2011a; Legg and Steadward 2011b). The IPC is very much the junior partner in its partnership with the IOC, as the IPC suffers from limited power and control over the organisation of the Paralympic Games in comparison to the IOC (Gilbert and Legg 2011a; Legg et al. 2015; Purdue 2013). Legg et al. (2015) argue the IPC has ceded control over key aspects of the Paralympic Games to the IOC, such as the broadcast rights, Games management, and marketing of the Games. Furthermore, it is the IOC who choose the host of the Paralympic Games, and the IOC that controls the evaluation of host city credentials (Legg et al. 2015). Legg et al. capture the imbalance in the power and control of the IPC in the IPC-IOC relationship by stating:

Thus, the principal or owner of a set of assets of rights (i.e., the Paralympic Games) has ceded its authority to arguably a more powerful agent (i.e., the IOC) through the means of a term contract for a given number of years at a given price (2015, p. 5).

The lack of control for the IPC in the IPC-IOC relationship prevents the IPC from being able to control the legacy production from Paralympic Games, due to the lack of authority it has in choosing the host city (Gilbert and Legg 2011a). Gilbert and Legg (2011a, p. 240) posit that the IPC does not have a ‘legacy voice’ and that ‘...most Paralympic legacies occur through a form of Olympic to Paralympic osmosis’. The Paralympic Games is viewed as inferior in terms of scale and size compared to the Olympic Games, but this should not be considered a surprise because of the longer history of the Olympic Games (Legg et al. 2015). Despite the imbalance of power, the IPC has been able to advance the Paralympic Games as an event by negotiating improved aspects such as broadcasting and marketing, thanks to its partnership with the IOC, but it still does not control these areas (Legg et al. 2015). The ceding of power by the IPC has led to some stakeholders in the Paralympic Movement expressing concerns that the Paralympic Games is trying to emulate the Olympic Games as an event (Purdue 2013). Indeed, the continued desire of the IPC to increase the entertainment spectacle for non-disabled audiences could result in the marginalisation of athletes with severe impairments that are unable to conform to an ‘athletic-looking’ body ideal or fit the superhuman stereotype (Howe and Silva 2018; Purdue 2013; Purdue and Howe 2013).

Not all impairment groups have been included in the history of the Paralympic Games. From the 1960 Paralympic Games until the 1972 Paralympic Games, only athletes with spinal cord injuries were eligible to participate in the Paralympic Games (Brittain 2010). It wasn’t until the Paralympic Games in Toronto 1976 that amputee and visually impaired athletes were able to take part in the Paralympic Games (Brittain 2009; Legg and Steadward 2011a). Athletes with cerebral palsy competed for the first time at the Arnhem 1980 Games (Brittain 2010; Legg and Steadward 2011a), whilst athletes with physical impairments that were not previously eligible for inclusion were able to compete at the 1984 Paralympic Games (Brittain 2010). The 1996 Atlanta Paralympic Games was the first Paralympic Games to include athletes with intellectual disabilities (Brittain 2010; Legg and Steadward 2011a). Athletes with intellectual disabilities were excluded from the 2004 and 2008 Paralympic Games, however, due to widespread fraud in the eligibility of intellectually disabled athletes at the Sydney 2000 Paralympic Games (Brittain 2010). This was triggered by the revelation that members of the gold-winning Spanish basketball

team had ineligibly participated (Brittain 2010). The LPG was therefore the first time intellectually disabled athletes were able to compete at the Paralympic Games since the Sydney 2000 Paralympic Games. Deaf athletes were founding members of the IPC, but participate in their own multi-sport event, known as the Deaflympics (Ammons and Eickman 2012).

It is clear the Paralympic Games has struggled for legitimacy as an elite sporting competition since its inception. It is also debateable whether the Paralympic Games is adequately able to raise awareness of disability to a wider audience (Howe and Silva 2018). With this in mind, the next section explores how disability has been understood over the years and whether there is a disability identity.

1.3 What is meant by disability?

Historically, disability was believed to have been caused by pathological deficiencies; people were disabled by their defective bodies (Oliver 1990). The life of a disabled individual was therefore considered to be tragic because of the negative impact disability had on a disabled person's quality of life (French and Swain 2004). French and Swain (2004), however, cite examples of disabled people celebrating their identity, puncturing the belief that all disabled people live a tragic existence (French and Swain 2004). Today, the medicalised viewpoint of disability is largely rejected and considered an outdated representation of disability and disabled people (Shakespeare 2013). The social model of disability was conceived in the 1960s (Lenz 2008) and placed the emphasis of disablement away from the body and squarely in the social domain (Oliver 1990). In the social model, disability is a form of social oppression and people with impairments are disabled by a society that has been formed from a non-disabled perspective (Oliver 1990). The social model is thus a collective effort to remove barriers that exclude disabled people from full participation in society (Oliver 1996). The social model was founded with political activism at the heart of it (Shakespeare 2013) and has been important in advancing disability rights in Britain (Crow 1996; Owens 2015; Shakespeare 2013; Shakespeare and Watson 2001). In addition, it has been argued that the social model has liberated some disabled people because disability is viewed as a social product and not the fault of the individual (Shakespeare and Watson 2001).

The social model is thought to have worked well at politicising disabling barriers and urging their removal, but the social model is let down by its failure to include the personal experience of impairment (Crow 1996; Morris 1991). Positioning disablement as only being social oppression, and ignoring the personal experience of impairment, results in the social model being able to highlight discrimination experienced by disabled people, but not the lived or private experiences of people with impairments (Owens 2015). Impairments can cause an individual pain (Crow 1996; Morris 1992; Shakespeare 2013; Shakespeare and Watson 2001; Williams 1999), and experience of impairment is required for a potential social disadvantage to occur, necessitating the need to not dichotomise impairment and disability (Shakespeare 2013). The dichotomy of impairment and disability is too simplistic and fails to appreciate or capture the complex interaction between impairment and disability (Shakespeare 2013). To try and separate impairment from disability is fraught with difficulty and produces inaccuracy, because it is difficult to know when impairment and disability both begin and end (Shakespeare 2013; Shakespeare and Watson 2001). Having extreme conceptions of disability, as either wholly medical or social, therefore ignores the complexities of disability (Rhodes et al. 2008). A wholly social understanding of disability is flawed because, for people with degenerative conditions, their impairment plays a big part in their disablement (Pinder 1995). Furthermore, representing

disability as only about social oppression ‘...is really only an option, and an erroneous one at that, for those spared the ravages of chronic illness’, therefore the impaired body needs to be included in discussions about disability (Williams 1999, p. 812). Thus, chronic illnesses, such as Juvenile Batten disease, cannot be explained using a social construction of disability because it is very difficult to separate the social impacts of disablement from the impacts of the impairment (Scambler 2005).

Thomas’ (1999) social relational view of disability differs from the social model by introducing two concepts: impairment effects; and psycho-emotional well-being. Impairment effects, as a concept, acknowledges that some forms of activity are restricted because of the presence of an impairment, and that these restrictions would still exist if disabling barriers were to be removed (Thomas 1999). The lived experience of disabled people cannot be understood without an understanding of the interaction between disability (social oppression) and impairment effects (activities restricted by an impairment) (Thomas 1999). Thus, disability can be viewed as being:

...a form of social oppression involving the social imposition of restrictions of activity on people with impairments and the socially engendered undermining of their psycho-emotional well-being. (Thomas 1999, p. 3).

The psycho-emotional well-being of a disabled individual refers to how disabled people think and feel about themselves (Thomas 1999). A person’s impairment and the effects this can have on their life can result in different degrees of psycho-emotional disability (Reeve 2002, 2012). Impairments do not cause disability but can be a factor in the nature of any psycho-emotional disability an individual may experience (Reeve 2002, 2012). Hanisch (2014), in a secondary analysis of data from a national Norwegian survey of teenagers in school settings, found evidence to support impairment being linked to low psycho-emotional well-being, but did not find any significant evidence to support barriers to social participation contributing to low psycho-emotional well-being (Hanisch 2014). Rhodes et al. (2008) argue that a social relational understanding of disability fails to appreciate the fluidity and circumstantial experiences of people with episodic impairments. Categorising disability as being purely social is not sufficient when one person, let alone individuals with different impairments, may experience social oppression at different points in their life, rather than as a constant feature (Rhodes et al. 2008).

The ICF is the WHO’s universal classification of disability and health, which aims to determine what an individual can achieve in their environment and the impairment the individual possesses (WHO 2002). The ICF was designed to be a multi-purpose classification for health-related domains in order to understand changes in an individual’s body and its interaction with the environment (WHO 2002). The ICF focuses on functioning in society rather than disability, because the ICF recognises every human will be disabled to some degree during their life and that disability is not limited to a minority (WHO 2002). There are three levels of human functioning identified by the ICF: impairment; activity limitation; participation restriction. Impairment is concerned with the functioning at the level of the body. Activity limitation is the functioning of the whole person; participation restriction is the result of the lived experience of the interaction between the bodily functions and the person’s ability to operate within their environment. Where there is conflict between the environment and an impairment or activity limitation, then there is a participation restriction (Bickenbach 2012; WHO 2002). The ICF operates at different levels of severity and thus is applicable at all stages in life and to every person (Bickenbach 2012). The ICF does not apply to specific groups of society because good or bad health is relevant to all humans, and can be seen as operating on a continuum, avoiding the binary classification of disabled or non-disabled (Bickenbach 2012). The ICF has been criticised for being a different label for the discredited International Classification of Impairments, Disabilities and Handicaps (ICIDH), and for being based on the medical model of disability (Hurst

2000; Pfeiffer 1998, 2000). Bickenbach (2012) believes, however, that the ICF does not suggest a simple causation of disability, but identifies the different factors that could result in disablement.

A more complete understanding of disability is one that is aware of the relationship between factors related to the individual, the environment, and the context of the individual; therefore, it can be argued that ‘...people are impaired by society *and* by their bodies’ (Shakespeare 2013, p. 77, italics in original). Impairments can be seen to be operating on a continuum and that some impairments are more limiting in the activities an individual can adequately engage in (Shakespeare 2013). An interactional approach to understanding disability is able to account for the different degrees of severity of one’s impairment, as well as societal forces and the disabling impact that they can have on an individual (Shakespeare 2013). Shakespeare (2013) argues impairment should be viewed from a universalism perspective, which is to suggest that impairment can be viewed as being on a continuum, with varying degrees of severity. All of us, at some stage of our lives, will experience limitations through impairment, such as a bad back, for example. It would not be wise to view medical and social explanations of disability as competing with each other (Rhodes et al. 2008). Rather, it would benefit the understanding of disability to hold these views as being complimentary and being able to offer different insights into a complex and multidimensional phenomenon (Rhodes et al. 2008).

Psycho-emotional disablism plays an important role in the formation of a disabled person’s identity, thus it could be argued that ‘disability identity is a function of both disability *and* impairment experiences; it will be constituted differently for each individual and will have both temporal and spatial dimensions’ (Reeve 2002 p. 504, italics in the original). Some disabled people may be happy to embrace the label of ‘disabled’, but there are many disabled people who prefer not to be identified as being disabled in the medical or social sense, and try to negate the role of their impairments in their lives (Shakespeare 2013; Shakespeare and Watson 2001). Research by Watson (2002) suggests disabled people do not use their impairment as a major component in the construction of their self-identity. The participants of Watson’s (2002) study did not reject the reality of their impairment, but their sense of identity and sense of self were not formulated on notions of impairment and disability (Shakespeare 2013; Watson 2002). Watson (2002) asserts that the participants in his research form their sense of self based on their own notions of what they believe themselves to be, not what anyone else tells them they should be. It’s unlikely, therefore, a single disability identity exists because people experience disabling barriers, discrimination, and the effects of their own impairment, differently (Reeve 2002). The term ‘disabled people’ is therefore unlikely to be fully representative of people who have impairments and an individual’s lived experience (Shakespeare 2013; Watson 2002). Instead, the term ‘disabled people’, in the author’s opinion, is more likely to represent a common label for people with an impairment, rather than a socially constructed individual identity.

1.4 Grassroots sport participation for disabled people before the LPG

Having briefly explored the role of the IPC in the production of Paralympic Games legacies, as well as an overview of how disability can be understood, it is important to now address disabled people’s sport participation in England before the LPG. Understanding the grassroots sport environment before the LPG will provide the necessary context required to evaluate the grassroots sport participation from the LPG for disabled people in England.

Disability sport has been defined by DePauw and Gavron as being:

...sport that has been designed for or is specifically practiced by athletes with disabilities. Disability sports might include sports that were designed for a selected disability group...Disability sport also includes those sports practiced by able-bodied individuals...that have been modified or adapted to include athletes with disabilities..., as well as those that require little or no modification to allow individuals with disabilities to participate (2005, p. 8).

Disability sport therefore encompasses both specific sporting activity for disabled people as well as inclusive sport, which is when disabled people participate in sport alongside non-disabled people.

Disabled people are often more impoverished and socially excluded than non-disabled people, and poverty has been shown to negatively impact on sport and leisure participation (Collins 2004; Collins 2010). Disabled people therefore often participate in sport less than non-disabled people (Collins 2004). In a nationally representative survey of disabled adults' sport participation in England in 2000-2001, disabled adults were found to participate in sport far less frequently than non-disabled adults (Gatward and Burrell 2002). Low income and social disadvantage were found to be more prevalent for disabled people than non-disabled people, enhancing the likelihood of exclusion from sport for disabled adults (Collins 2004, 2010; Gatward and Burrell 2002). Liu (2009), in an analysis of public leisure facilities, discovered that disabled people under the age of sixty were significantly under-represented in their usage of public leisure facilities. Kung and Taylor's (2014) investigation of the sport participation habits of disabled people at public sector facilities in England built upon Liu's (2009) findings. Kung and Taylor (2014) analysed over 150,000 sport participants at 458 sport centres during the time period of 2005 to 2011. Overall, disabled people participated less than non-disabled people but, of the disabled people that did participate, they were more frequent in their participation compared to non-disabled people (Kung and Taylor 2014). The authors argued this was a result of a leisure card scheme operated by public leisure centres, which provided discounted admission for disabled people's use of public leisure facilities (Kung and Taylor 2014). Research conducted by the English Federation of Disability Sport (EFDS) suggested VSCs were the most popular setting for disabled people to participate in sport (Spring 2013). It is important to point out the limitations with this study, however, as the sample was small and unrepresentative. For example, only two per cent of respondents were from the north-east of England, whereas twenty-one per cent were from south-west England (Spring 2013). Moreover, the number of disabled people who completed the survey was substantially unrepresentative of disabled people's national participation rate in sport. Seventy-nine per cent of the sample for Spring's (2013) study considered themselves to be active, whereas Sport England's Active People Survey¹ (APS) data suggested 74.7% of disabled people participated in no sport (Active People Interactive 2017), thus the generalisability of Spring's (2013) findings are weak.

Disabled people are not a homogenous group of people (Watson 2002). Every impairment is different and unique to the individual (Shakespeare 2013). It is necessary, therefore, to be mindful of the different ways in which an individual's impairment might influence their participation in sport. The following impairment types and their sport participation will be discussed: learning difficulties; Deafness; physical impairments; and visual impairments.

1.4.1 The sport participation of people with learning difficulties

Few sporting opportunities for people with learning disabilities existed before the introduction of the Special Olympics (Harada et al. 2012). Individuals were often segregated and educated

¹ The APS was a national sport participation survey managed by Sport England that tracked the participation of people aged 14+ in England. The APS ran from 2005/06 (APS1) until 2015/16 (APS10). The survey was conducted quarterly and the findings reported quarterly and annually.

away from non-disabled people, and the notion of community sport for people with learning difficulties was rare, if not unheard of (Harada et al. 2012). The Special Olympics, an all-abilities sports event for people with learning difficulties (Brittain 2010; Harada et al. 2012), was founded in 1968 in the USA by Eunice Kennedy Shriver. Athletes with learning difficulties who aim to compete at the Paralympic Games are not included in the Special Olympics event (Brittain 2010). The participation rates of people with learning difficulties in England was researched by Robertson and Emerson (2010), who obtained data from a sample of 2,784 people with learning difficulties. The findings suggested forty-one per cent of the respondents had participated in sport or swimming in the past month of when the survey took place, and that ninety-seven per cent had enjoyed their experience (Robertson and Emerson 2010). Robertson and Emerson (2010) argue socio-economic barriers prevent more people with learning difficulties from participating in sport. Robertson and Emerson (2010) point to the fact that a third of the sample suggested they would like to participate in more sport, but were unable to do so because they were either too poor, from deprived neighbourhoods, or felt unsafe participating in sport in their neighbourhood. Robertson and Emerson's (2010) findings about poverty and social exclusion inhibiting sport participation is consistent with the ideas promulgated by Collins (2004, 2010).

To increase the physical activity of intellectually disabled people, Hutzler and Korsensky (2010) suggest designing programmes that build towards mastery, socially inclusive environments, and appropriately trained staff to carry out the programmes. Research carried out in Australia suggests a lack of accessible and affordable opportunities to participate in sport act as a barrier (Darcy and Dowse 2013). This creates a narrow set of options for individuals to choose from and there was often a lack of support in many areas of sport participation (Darcy and Dowse 2013). A lack of understanding of the needs of people with learning difficulties, and negative attitudes from some non-disabled people, were other barriers to participation in sport (Darcy and Dowse 2013). The learning impairment itself can also be a barrier to participation in sport (Darcy and Dowse 2013).

1.4.2 The sport participation of Deaf people

Deaf people do not often identify as being disabled, mainly because the only issue that prevents Deaf people fully participating in society is communication (Ammons and Eickman 2012; Rankin 2012), which is social and external to the body (Ammons and Eickman 2012). Interpreters are needed for Deaf people and the communication difficulties Deaf people experience can make them feel uncomfortable and frustrated (EFDS 2015). The presence of interpreters can alienate Deaf people from social interaction with the rest of a non-Deaf group (Rankin 2012). The Deaflympics is arguably the pinnacle of Deaf sport. The Deaflympics was first hosted in 1924 in Paris and is a specific multi-sport event for Deaf people (Ammons and Eickman 2012). Individuals who only have hearing impairments are not eligible to compete in the Paralympic Games (Ammons and Eickman 2012). For a Deaf person to participate at the Paralympics they would need to have another impairment that meets the eligibility requirements of the IPC. People with hearing impairments are the impairment group with the lowest sport participation rates in England, according to the APS10 (Active People Interactive 2017). There are few studies that exclusively investigate the sport participation of Deaf people. More research is needed to understand how Deaf people participate in sport, what might prevent them from participating, and methods to increase the sport participation of Deaf people.

1.4.3 The sport participation of people with physical impairments

APS10 suggests that people with physical impairments are the second highest impairment group for participating in sport once a week, with 16.1% having done so (Active People Interactive

2017). Individuals who use prosthetics are likely to participate in less sport after amputation compared to pre-amputation (Deans et al. 2012). Deans et al.'s (2012) review of the literature found people who experienced limb loss do not participate in physical activity to a level that will bring about health benefits, whilst a minority are active in exercise and sport. Furthermore, there are more barriers that prevent physical activity and sport than there are motivations to be active or to participate in sport (Deans et al. 2012). This is despite sport and physical activity being advantageous to lower limb amputees (Bragaru et al. 2011). Lower limb amputees' choice of sporting activity is likely to be determined by gender, the energy required to participate in the sport, and the force that is generated on the prosthetic limb (Bragaru et al. 2011). Lower limb amputees were most likely to participate in fishing, golf, swimming, walking, and cycling (Bragaru et al. 2011). The level of participation in sport before acquiring a physical impairment may be a factor in sport participation for people who acquire their physical impairments (Jaarsma et al. 2014). Social interaction is thought to aid individuals who have recently acquired physical impairments, thus Jaarsma et al. (2014) believe it is more beneficial to introduce people with newly acquired physical impairments to team sports rather than individual sports, to foster the social interaction that may take place.

Research by the EFDS (Rankin 2012) suggests physically disabled people are less able to be spontaneous in their sports participation, due to the nature of their impairment and a lack of truly accessible facilities. Participation in sport and physical activity is more inhibited for lower limb amputees than for other leisure pursuits (Gallagher et al. 2011). Upper limb amputees experience barriers to participation in sport and physical activity, but do not seem to face participation restrictions in sport and physical activity to the same degree as lower limb amputees (Gallagher et al. 2011). Swedish physically disabled people were most likely to have their participation in exercise affected by a lack of accessible facilities, and a lack of competent instructors in adapted exercise (Junker and Brogren Carlberg 2011). Termination of exercise for this population group was most likely to be the result of acquiring their impairment (Junker and Brogren Carlberg 2011). Commonly, general health and an individual's impairment act as a barrier to participation in sport for physically disabled people, but the age and type of impairment plays an important role too (Jaarsma et al. 2014). The most common social barriers for physically disabled people are inaccessible facilities, a lack of accessible facilities, and difficulties with transport (Jaarsma et al. 2014). Accessibility was not a key barrier for individuals with spinal cord injuries, however (Stephens, Neil and Smith 2012). This is not to say some individuals with spinal cord injuries do not have difficulties with inaccessibility, but it is not perceived to be as great a barrier as was the case for other physical impairments (Stephens, Neil and Smith 2012). A lack of information about available sporting opportunities, a lack of confidence post-injury, travelling to participate in sport, and cost of participating in sport, were perceived barriers identified by seven spinal cord injured athletes as part of a qualitative investigation (Stephens, Neil and Smith 2012). Mulligan et al.'s (2012) review of the sport participation of disabled people with long-term neurological conditions, concluded that barriers for people with progressive disorders were no different to that of disabled individuals with non-progressive disorders (Mulligan et al. 2012). Thus, Mulligan et al. (2012, p. 247) argue '...there are universal barriers to physical activity participation for individuals with a range of disabling conditions'. Mulligan et al.'s (2012) research concerns physical activity, not sport participation, therefore Mulligan et al.'s (2012) claims about possible universal barriers needs to be situated in the physical activity context only, as this may not be the case for sport participation.

1.4.4 The sport participation of visually impaired people

Only people with hearing impairments participate in sport less frequently than people with visual impairments (Active People Interactive 2017). Just 10.3% of people with visual impairments participated in sport once a week during 2015/16 (Active People Interactive 2017).

Research suggests that the impairment, sight loss or restricted vision, is a strong contributing factor in the low participation rates. For example, Rankin (2012) found that visually impaired participants were most aware of the possible injury they could receive by participating in sport alongside sighted participants. Using Thomas, C's (2004) social relational theory of disability, Macbeth (2009) explored the restrictions to participation in partially-sighted grassroots football players. Macbeth (2009) identified a number of social restrictions and restrictions imposed by the individual's impairment. Traveling to participate in football matches was viewed as a socially imposed restriction because of the way the football league was organised and the necessary requirements of needing considerable travel (Macbeth 2009). The failure of the league administrators to increase awareness of the league and participation opportunities for other visually impaired people is a socially imposed restriction, Macbeth (2009) argues. Competition and classification can be viewed as being both an impairment effect and a socially imposed restriction (Macbeth 2009). The league, by prioritising competition over participation, risked marginalising individuals with more severe impairments as a result of their own impairment and through socially imposed restrictions (Macbeth 2009). Among adults from England above the age of sixty years-old who have acquired sight loss, many of the barriers and facilitators to sport participation are socially situated (Phoenix, Griffin and Smith 2015). Moreover, the themes identified by Phoenix, Griffin and Smith (2015) – transport; lack of information; fear and personal safety; exercise as medicine; and confidence – can be determined to be a facilitator or a barrier to sport participation (Phoenix, Griffin and Smith 2015). Whether the themes identified by Phoenix, Griffin and Smith (2015) are a facilitator or a barrier depends on the circumstances of the individual, but demonstrates how the social domain for visually impaired adults can hinder or aid sport participation.

1.4.5 The effectiveness of sport policy in England

Sport England's decision to invest in national governing bodies of sport (NGBs) and for the NGBs to be the main drivers of grassroots participation has been ineffective, with declining participation in structured organised team sports (Harris, Nichols and Taylor 2017). In contrast, informal and individual sports, often not governed by NGBs, have grown in participation since 2005 (Harris, Nichols and Taylor 2017). Indeed, the organisational structures and networks of NGBs and county sport partnerships (CSPs) does not appear to be conducive for effective policy implementation (Harris and Houlihan 2016a). Moreover, Sport England's top-down approach to policy, whereby funding is provided based on targets being met, has led to inefficient management practices resulting in the privileging of short-term targets at the expense of long-term sustainable growth (Nichols et al. 2016). This is because policy actors such as CSPs and NGBs are reliant on the funding provided by Sport England and act in accordance with the funding conditions, which can be to the detriment of long-term targets for sport participation (Nichols et al. 2016). NGBs and voluntary sports clubs (VSCs) have traditionally suffered from poor communication and distant working relationships (Harris, Mori and Collins 2009; May, Harris and Collins 2013). VSCs, afforded a prominent role in the delivery of sport policy (Harris, Mori and Collins 2009), are often unable or unwilling to implement policy at the grassroots level (Harris, Mori and Collins 2009; May, Harris and Collins 2013). Harris, Mori and Collins (2009) found that most VSC members did not understand government sport policy and did not appreciate the lack of consultation in the formulation of sport policy. Moreover, VSCs possessed a range of different objectives, which were not always synergistic with the goals of policy, and struggled to obtain the necessary resources to enact policy in any case (Harris, Mori and Collins 2009). May, Harris and Collins (2013) identified different clusters of VSCs based on their management practices, categorising VSCs as either informal, semi-formal, or formal. Most of the VSC types lacked awareness of policy directives, with informal VSCs unwilling to implement policy, semi-formal VSCs more willing but often unable to implement policy, and formal VSCs

the only VSC cluster able to implement policy to any meaningful degree (May, Harris and Collins 2013). The failure to understand the different VSC types and roles they play in the grassroots system has contributed to ineffective policy implementation, because most VSCs – informal and semi-informal VSCs – are not in a position to effectively implement policy (May, Harris and Collins 2013). Instead, a segmented approach to policy implementation based on knowledge of VSC clusters would be more efficient and likely yield improved results (May, Harris and Collins 2013).

Youth sport in England witnessed substantial increases in investment and focus from the Labour government during the period of 2002-2010 (Lindsey and Bacon 2016). A number of initiatives to improve the participation of young people in sport were launched during this period, but there was often a lack of measurement of youth participation inherent within these programmes (Lindsey and Bacon 2016). A common practice of youth sport policy during this period was to increase the number of sporting opportunities available to young people, but this approach failed to address underlying social and personal factors that limited the participation of the least and less active young people (Lindsey and Bacon 2016). By increasing the supply of opportunities and not addressing demand, this policy approach only served to cater to young people already enthusiastic towards sport participation, rather than attempting to change the behaviour of young people not normally interested in participating in sport or predisposed to being 'sporty' (Lindsey and Bacon 2016). School sport partnerships (SSPs) were a central mechanism used by the Labour government to increase participation of young people (Phillpots 2013). SSPs were managed and supported by the Youth Sport Trust (YST) and were a national delivery network to improve the standards of sport amongst school-age children (Phillpots 2013). NGBs valued the work of the SSPs in increasing the number of potential participants in their sport, whilst the CSPs, though appreciating the value of the SSPs, doubted the actual impact of the SSPs on youth sport participation (Harris and Houlihan 2016b). Though the SSPs had exceeded targets for engaging children in competitive sport, SSPs were disbanded in favour of a different ideological approach to school sport and physical education (PE) by the Coalition government (Griffiths and Armour 2013; Phillpots 2013). The NGBs and CSPs both felt the removal of the SSPs would likely have a negative impact on the long-term policy and strategy of youth sport (Harris and Houlihan 2016b). The Coalition government favoured a competitive sport offering, a revamped version of the School Games, in order for schoolchildren to sample more competitive sport (Griffiths and Armour 2013; Phillpots 2013). This shift in strategy was further strengthened with the release of the Coalition's new school sport and PE strategy, *Creating a sporting habit for life: a new youth sport strategy* (DCMS 2012) (Griffiths and Armour 2013; Phillpots 2013). Phillpots (2013) argued that the disbandment of the SSPs and the rich seam of evidence and infrastructure it created, was the equivalent of the United Kingdom (UK) government scoring an own-goal for its London 2012 legacy ambitions of increasing the sport participation of young people. This view is supported by Griffiths and Armour (2013), who argued that the SSPs would have been well-placed to facilitate engagement of more young people in sport as a result of London 2012. Furthermore, by removing the SSPs in favour of prioritising competitive sport in the form of the School Games, the Coalition government demonstrated a naïve assumption that mega sport events (MSEs) alone are able to increase the number of young people participating in sport (Griffiths and Armour 2013), despite evidence to the contrary (Weed et al. 2015). Thus, the Coalition government's removal of the SSPs, despite the positive evidence of its effectiveness, lacked the evidence to support the move towards more competitive school sport, despite the government's claims to have made the decision based on the available evidence (Griffiths and Armour 2013).

Disabled children and young people (CYP) often do not get access to the same quality and provision of school sport and PE as is the case for non-disabled CYP (Vickerman 2012). Vickerman (2012) argued that the experiences and input of disabled CYP is often absent from discourses on

school sport and PE provision for young disabled people, and that there needs to be more prominence afforded to the voices of disabled young people (Vickerman 2012). Moreover, teachers often lacked the training and expertise to include disabled young people in mainstream settings, which was compounded by lower confidence from some teachers in providing sport for disabled young people (Vickerman 2012). Progress in the provision of school sport and PE for disabled CYP appears to have been made, with examples of successful legacy projects from the LPG reported by Black et al. (2015). Black et al. (2015) argue that the Department of Education's Disability Project has been successful in building the internal capacity of schools and by instilling knowledge of how to include young disabled people. This has been reflected by increased qualifications and rewards obtained by young disabled people, as well as higher self-belief and attitudes towards sport from young disabled people (Black et al. 2015). Caution must be taken with Black et al.'s (2015) findings, as the authors only reported the positive outcomes of the project and did not focus on negative outcomes, and their research was also supported by the YST (Black et al. 2015). Nevertheless, there does appear to be some evidence to suggest there have been improvements in the provision of school sport and PE for disabled CYP.

1.4.6 The structure of sport participation for disabled people before the LPG

Traditionally, disabled people participated in sport away from non-disabled people, which may have been a product of the medicalised view of disability (Thomas and Smith 2009). During the last fifty years, interest in the concept of mainstreaming has grown (Thomas and Smith 2009). The Minister for Sport's Review Group in 1989 published a report into how governing bodies should implement mainstreaming (Minister for Sport's Review Group 1989). The recommendations suggested actions such as including disabled people in the decision-making and administrative processes of the organisation, and to view the participation of disabled people in sport as an important aim of the organisation (Minister for Sport's Review Group 1989). A mainstreaming organisation, in the view of the Minister for Sport's Review Group, would be one that provided equitable sporting opportunities for disabled people, which included them in the decision-making process and placed the needs of disabled people as a key priority for its organisation (Minister for Sport's Review Group 1989). Mainstreaming lacks an agreed definition, but it can be defined as 'the process of integrating the delivery and organization of all organized sporting opportunities to ensure a more coordinated and inclusive sporting system' (Kitchin and Howe 2014, p. 66). Thus, sport for disabled people is offered alongside that of non-disabled people, and disabled people are provided an equal opportunity to participate with non-disabled people in inclusive environments.

Despite the lack of agreement over the definition of mainstreaming, mainstreaming of sport is often the dominant policy approach to disability sport in Europe (Thomas and Guett 2014), and is the main driver for the management of disability sport in Britain (Thomas and Guett 2014; Thomas and Smith 2009). The creation of the EFDS in 1998 was intended to be the organisation which enacted changes recommended by the Sport Council's (now Sport England) review of disability sport in 1997 (Thomas and Smith 2009). Instead, it has been suggested that the creation of the EFDS enabled Sport England to outsource their involvement in grassroots disability sport to the EFDS, rather than be the organisation driving the mainstreaming agenda (Thomas and Smith 2009). From the early 1990s, the Sports Council became more involved in disability sport provision, with the notion of mainstreaming popular among administrators (Thomas and Smith 2009). NGBs were therefore responsible for providing opportunities for disabled people to participate in sport and to ensure disabled people had access to sporting opportunities (Thomas and Smith 2009). Thomas and Smith (2009) argue that even though it would appear the Sports Council was committed to mainstreaming as its guiding principle for disability sport, there was a lack of commitment and resources among individuals of the Sports Council towards fully enacting the changes that would be needed to bring about mainstreaming.

For example, there was a lack of coordination among the disparate disability sport organisations and they had limited power, thus few advances occurred in terms of policy (Thomas and Smith 2009). Moreover, the disability sport organisations harboured doubts about the effects of mainstreaming on their organisation's remit and ability to cater for their customer's needs (Thomas and Smith 2009). The lack of progress in implementing the mainstreaming agenda in the early 1990s was exacerbated by the lack of enthusiasm for the idea of mainstreaming by NGBs (Thomas and Smith 2009). Despite the mainstreaming concept holding sway amongst the Sports Council in the early 1990s, and being the preferred mechanism for disability sport in the UK, it was in fact the British Sports Association for the Disabled who were one of the main organisations responsible for disability sport provision until the late 1990s (Thomas and Smith 2009).

Research carried out by Thomas and Guett (2014, p. 404) revealed mainstreaming was the prominent policy directive of most European countries for disability sport, but that the provision of disability sport was ultimately 'fragmented, complex and cumbersome'. The structure of grassroots sport for disabled people in Britain, despite political support for mainstreaming, remained largely the same as in its inception; distinct and segregated from mainstream sport (Thomas and Smith 2009). The difficulty experienced in achieving mainstreaming involves a number of reasons, but it has been suggested that the failure of the national disability sport organisations (NDSOs) to lessen their responsibility for providing sport for disabled people, and the majority of NGBs lacking the commitment and desire to seriously offer participation opportunities for disabled people amongst their core activities, are principle among them (Thomas and Smith 2009; Thomas, N. B. 2004). Research conducted by Thomas, N. B. (2004) suggested the EFDS had been unsuccessful in being able to simplify the complex structure of disability sport in Britain. Kitchin and Howe (2014), in their analysis of mainstreaming of cricket in England and Wales, concluded that the England and Wales Cricket Board's (ECB) actions were largely to ward off possible sanctions from Sport England, and '...the process of integration was mainly structural and superficial' (Kitchin and Howe 2014, p. 75). Furthermore, though the APS targets were fulfilled, the ECB focused narrowly on individuals who might have benefited their elite cricket squads, rather than the general disabled population. It could be argued, therefore, that the grassroots sport policy of key mainstream actors such as NGBs and CSPs exhibited traces of ableism. Ableism describes the discrimination against disabled people that occurs because of a privileging and prioritisation of non-disabled perspectives and definitions of what is 'normal', which is judged commensurate with non-disabled experiences (Brittain and Beacom 2016; Wolbring 2012). Despite the often-claimed desire to provide disability sport through mainstreaming, mainstreaming was largely rhetoric rather than action before the LPG.

Prior to the LPG, a number of organisations were involved in the delivery of sport for disabled people in England. It is difficult to be certain, but the involvement of Sport England in grassroots sport for disabled people seemed to have been mainly as a funding body, primarily to the EFDS, with the EFDS the main organisation advocating sport participation opportunities, and for mainstream organisations to include disabled people (Thomas and Smith 2009). Though mainstreaming was the stated ambition, it would appear the NDSOs were the main providers of sport before the LPG (Thomas and Smith 2009). Five NDSOs received funding from Sport England totalling £1.1 million for the period of 2011-2014, whilst the EFDS received £1.5 million for the period of July 2011 to March 2013 (Sport England 2011). The five NDSOs to receive funding from Sport England were WheelPower, British Blind Sport (BBS), Cerebral Palsy Sport (CP Sport), Dwarf Sports Association UK, and UK Deaf Sport (Sport England 2011). A total of £2 million had been available to the eight NDSOs in 2010 (Sport England 2010), but the British Amputee and Les Autre Sports Association, Special Olympics Great Britain, and Mencap Sport, did not receive funding from Sport England (Sport England 2011). Two national organisations represented learning disability, Special Olympics Great Britain, and Mencap Sport, and formed The English

Learning Disability Alliance in 2011 (Activity Alliance n.d.a). The structure and development of the NDSOs differed markedly, with some founded within the last ten to fifteen years, and others existing since the 1970s and 1980s (Table 1).

Table 1: An overview of the interviewed NDSOs.

<u>NDSO</u>	<u>Year founded</u>	<u>Impairment focus</u>	<u>Funding received from Sport England</u>
British Blind Sport	1976	Visual	2011 – 2014: £290,204 2014 – 2017: £296,636
Cerebral Palsy Sport	1968	Cerebral Palsy	2011 – 2014: £183,409 2014 – 2017: £265,882
Dwarf Sports Association UK	1993	Dwarfism and restricted growth	2011 – 2014: £193,615 2014 – 2017: £217,532
LimbPower	2009	Amputees	2014 – 2017: £210,437
Special Olympics Great Britain	1978	Learning	2014 – 2017: £401,153 (this figure is for the English Learning Disability Sports Alliance, which includes Mencap Sport)
UK Deaf Sport	2003	Deafness and hard of hearing	2011 – 2014: £281,974 2014 – 2017: £365,872
WheelPower	1948	Spinal cord injury	2011 – 2014: £196,279 2014 – 2017: £238,063

Source: This table was created using information from the NDSO interviews and Thomas and Smith (2009). Sport England funding was retrieved from the EFDS (2014b); Sport England (2011).

The EFDS was the umbrella organisation advocating sport participation opportunities for disabled people, but the organisation was only set-up in 1998 and had difficulty exerting power over key providers of mainstream sport (Thomas and Smith 2009). Eleven of the forty-six NGBs had plans for increasing participation of disabled people in their 2009-2013 Whole Sport Plans (WSPs) (Sport England 2013a). The eleven NGBs included Paralympic-specific NGBs such as British Wheelchair Basketball, thus the number of mainstream NGBs receiving funding and being measured on disability participation was probably a single digit number. It was the NDSOs, without funding from Sport England until July 2011, who were often the main providers of sport for disabled people in their respective impairment groups. Provision of sport for disabled people by local authorities was variable and dependent on the resources and expertise of the individual local authority (Thomas and Smith 2009).

1.5 Research questions

This research will evaluate the grassroots sport participation legacy of the LPG for disabled people in England. This will include assessing the impact of the LPG on the grassroots sport participation of disabled people in England. The mechanisms behind the outcomes of the LPG sport participation legacy will be evaluated to understand how and why the impact of the LPG on sport participation occurred. Finally, recommendations will be provided, based on the LPG grassroots sport participation legacy, of how a sport participation legacy from the hosting of the Paralympic Games can be achieved. Thus, the aim of this thesis is the following:

To evaluate whether the London 2012 Paralympic Games was successful in increasing the grassroots sport participation of disabled people in England, in what circumstances, for whom, and why?

Three research questions (RQs) were formulated to address the aim of this research:

- RQ1: What impact did the London 2012 Paralympic Games have on the grassroots sport participation of disabled people in England?
- RQ2: Why did the London 2012 Paralympic Games succeed or fail to increase the grassroots sport participation of disabled people in England?
- RQ3: How might future hosts of the Paralympic Games create a positive grassroots sport participation legacy for disabled people?

RQ1 is discussed in chapters 4 and 5, whilst RQ2 is answered in chapters 4, 5, and 6. RQ3 is addressed in chapter 7.

The outcomes of this research will address a shortfall in the current understanding of Paralympic legacy research; the utility of the Paralympic Games to increase the sport participation of disabled people. There is currently a lack of empirical knowledge as to the legacies that can be derived from the hosting of a Paralympic Games for disabled people (Misener et al. 2013; Pappous and Brown 2018). This research will help redress the imbalance in current understanding of sport participation legacies from the summer Paralympic Games. Investment in hosting mega-events necessitates less funding being available for other interventions intended to increase the sport participation of disabled people. The hosting of the Paralympic Games therefore produces opportunity costs; public funding is diverted from other activities to finance the hosting of (MSEs) (Preuss 2009). It is therefore important to understand whether the Paralympic Games is an effective way of increasing the sport participation of disabled people, as significant sums of public money are spent on MSEs, which might have otherwise been allocated for different sport participation interventions (Preuss 2009). The final cost of hosting the 2012 games was reported to be £8.77bn, nearly four times the original budget set in 2005 (BBC Sport 2013a). This research will increase our understanding as to whether the cost of hosting the summer Olympic and Paralympic Games (Games) can be justified in terms of the benefits it can provide to sport participation or not. Finally, the 2012 Games were the first summer Olympic and Paralympic Games to actively attempt to increase grassroots sport participation (Weed 2013). Before the 2012 Games, previous hosts had not put sport participation legacy at the heart of the bid to stage the Games as London did. Claims are often made about the inspirational power of MSEs, but these claims are often lacking evidence to support them (Weed et al. 2015). Thus, this research will add to the evidence base regarding our understanding and knowledge of Paralympic legacy.

1.6 Summary of chapters

Chapter 2 is a literature review that specifically focuses on sport participation legacies from MSEs. A definition of a MSE is provided, followed by a discussion of how MSE legacies have been conceptualised by scholars. The evidence for increased grassroots sport participation as a result of hosting a MSE is reviewed. Most of the available sport participation legacy evidence is sourced from the Olympic Games in the literature. A brief discussion of policy analysis theories is then presented. The final part of the chapter is centred specifically on legacies from the summer Paralympic Games. The current knowledge and evidence for sport participation legacies from the summer Paralympic Games is discussed.

The purpose of chapter 3 is to present the methodology of the research. The researcher's ontological and epistemological approach to the research is explored. The method used to frame

the research, realist evaluation, is defined and explained. The research design is presented and the procedures for the 3 studies expounded. Ethical issues that were pertinent to the research are described. This is followed by a review of the limitations associated with this research and how the researcher attempted to mitigate these weaknesses.

Chapter 4 is the longest and most in-depth chapter of the thesis. RQ1 and RQ2 of the research are addressed to a significant degree. This is achieved predominantly by using the rich data collected from the 30 interviews conducted with senior managers from a variety of sport and non-sport organisations. Evidence from specific NGBs and the Active People Survey are also used to help answer RQ1. This chapter ends with a review of the main context-mechanism-outcome configurations that were produced from the study, informing the design of study 2.

The experiences of VSCs from sports included at the LPG is the focus of chapter 5. An online questionnaire was administered to clubs from sports at the LPG and the findings enable a detailed understanding of the impact of the LPG on disabled people's sport participation to emerge. In addition, the main constraints the clubs experienced in attempting to leverage the LPG for increased sport participation are explained. The main context-mechanism-outcome configurations produced from this study are then provided.

The constraints to participating in more sport for non-active disabled people is the focus of chapter 6. The intention of this chapter is to obtain an indication of the main barriers preventing disabled people, who are not active, from increasing their current level of sport participation, and the role the LPG played in these barriers. The findings enable a greater understanding of the reach and scope of the LPG to emerge.

The concluding chapter is designed to bring the research to a close and to answer all of the research questions of the thesis. A review of the main findings of the 3 studies is provided. Recommendations for best practice for future hosts in how to attempt to create a positive grassroots sport participation legacy from the Paralympic Games is explored, followed by the final context-mechanism-outcome configurations for the LPG sport participation legacy. A self-appraisal is conducted of the researcher's experience and development during this research. Refined theory of using the summer Paralympic Games to increase the grassroots sport participation of disabled people is presented. The thesis concludes with some closing remarks regarding the utility of using the LPG to increase the sport participation of disabled people in England.

Chapter 2: Literature review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter will explore the current understanding amongst scholars of sporting mega-events and attempts to increase grassroots sport participation. A sporting mega-event is first defined and understood before exploring how legacy has been conceptualised by scholars. The evidence for increased sport participation from sporting mega-events is then explored in detail. The chapter concludes by specifically focusing on the current understanding of Paralympic Games legacy and what evidence exists for increased sport participation following the hosting of the summer Paralympic Games.

2.2 What is a mega sport event?

Mega-events are ‘...short-term events of fixed duration’ (Hiller 1998, p. 47), which have long-term consequences for the host city (Roche 1994). Mega-events saddle a host city with long-term debt and offer limited cost effectiveness (Mitchell and Stewart 2015), but a mega-event, if successful, might be able to produce favourable impressions and perceptions of the host city (Roche 1994). The international character of an event and the global media coverage it can generate are important determinants as to whether an event can be considered to be a mega-event (Horne 2007; Mills and Rosentraub 2013; Roche 2000). Indeed, Horne (2007, p. 82) argues ‘...an unmediated mega-event would be a contradiction in terms.’ In terms of a MSE, Müller (2015) has provided the most comprehensive definition of an MSE in the literature to date. Müller synthesised various definitions of MSEs from the sport and leisure literature (Gold and Gold 2011; Hiller 2000; Horne 2007; Jago and Shaw 1998; Mills and Rosentraub 2013; Ritchie 1984; Ritchie and Yangzhou 1987; Roche 1994; Roche 2000) in order to produce a consolidated definition of an MSE. In doing so, Müller (2015) identified four key dimensions: visitor attractiveness; mediated reach; cost; and transformative impact. An MSE is thus defined as:

Mega-events are ambulatory occasions of a fixed duration that attract

- (1) a large number of visitors
- (2) have a large mediated reach
- (3) come with large costs, and
- (4) have large impacts on the built environment and the population (Müller 2015, p. 8).

Müller (2015) built upon Roche’s (2000) categorisation of events to develop a scoring system for objectively determining the size of sport and leisure events. Nine recent large events (2010 Expo; 2012 Summer and Winter Olympic Games; 2010 Federation Internationale de Football Association Football World Cup; 2012 Union of European Football Associations European Football Championships; 2010 Asian Games; 2010 Commonwealth Games; 2011 Pan American Games; and the 2013 Universiade) were used for the classification matrix (Müller 2015). Three different size of MSE was identified by Müller (2015): major; mega; and giga. Major events are large events but are not sufficiently big enough to be thought of as mega-events. Mega-events are events that are large on at least three of the dimensions and are the most common sizes of the events sampled. Giga-events are exceptionally large events and are rare occurrences, with only the 2012 Summer Olympic Games classified as a giga-event (Müller 2015).

Horne (2007) noted four types of knowns regarding MSEs: known knowns, known unknowns, unknown unknowns, and the unknown knowns. Known knowns are legacies left behind from an

MSE, which can be positive or negative for the host. Known unknowns are things the organisers are aware they do not know, perhaps because of a lack of knowledge about what may occur. Unknown unknowns are a result of a lack of information or inability to predict what may occur from an MSE. Unknown knowns are things the organisers do not remember or do not believe they know (Horne 2007). Horne (2007) suggests there are a number of unknown knowns that require significant critical attention to remove some of the shroud of uncertainty that accompany aspects of MSEs. Doubts about the nature of the jobs created as a result of MSEs and their utility for the economy and the population, the freedom of expression limited by the Olympic marketing and sponsorship rules, and the attitudes and beliefs of the population about the impact of mega-events, are some of the unknown knowns identified by Horne (2007). Horne (2007) believes it is important to pay more attention to the unknown knowns in order to investigate the claims often made about the potential benefits that arise from MSEs. For example, hosting an MSE is often claimed to be beneficial to grassroots sport participation, but the evidence does not suggest such claims can be made with confidence (Grix et al. 2017).

2.3 Defining legacy?

Mangan (2008) believes the definition of legacy as 'a tangible or intangible thing handed down by a predecessor; a long-lasting effect of an event or process; the act of bequeathing', provided by the New Shorter Oxford English Dictionary (p. 3674 cited by Mangan 2008), is appropriate for understanding the basics of Olympic legacy. Legacy has also been thought of as something left behind for the future as a result of hosting the Games (Homma and Masumoto 2013). These aforementioned definitions of legacy have been viewed to be insufficient for two main reasons. First, an event remnant is not property that can be specifically bestowed to someone; second, some legacies may be unintended to be left behind, such as disused sport facilities, for example (Preuss 2007). It is thus necessary to have a more holistic view of legacy to fully appreciate the various nuances inherent in legacy from mega-events such as the Olympic Games. A more rounded view of legacy was taken by the Department of Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS) (DCMS 2008) in a legacy planning document for the London 2012 Games by stressing legacy was about the imprint left by the Games, but that this could occur before, during, and after the Games. Though the DCMS (2008) does provide more time related dimensions to legacy, the definition still lacks precision. Legacy does not just cover the physical 'leftovers' from the Games, but also produces emotional imprints, provides memories and stories that are told by those who experienced the Games, and anniversaries held to commemorate the hosting of the Games (Cashman 2002). Legacy is not always positive and can result in unforeseen consequences (Cashman 2002; Cashman 2006; Preuss 2007; Thornley 2012), thus there is considerable variability existent in legacy. Preuss (2007) believes five aspects of legacy need to be considered and understood to provide a wide-ranging definition of legacy. The five areas Preuss (2007) identified are: the degree of planned or unplanned structure; the degree of positive or negative structure, which may differ depending on the viewpoint of the stakeholder in question because the same legacy can be both positive and negative to different stakeholders; the degree of tangible or intangible structure; the duration and time of a changed structure; and the space affected by the changed structure. Preuss incorporated the aforementioned five areas of legacy to propose the following definition:

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 (2007, p. 211).

Despite Preuss' (2007) attempts to provide clarity regarding its meaning, legacy is a contested concept susceptible to being misinterpreted due to its ambiguous character (Cashman 2006; Gammon 2015; Girginov and Hills 2008; Grix et al. 2017; Thornley 2012). It has been described

as being ‘...an elusive, problematic and even dangerous word’ (Cashman 2002, p. 33) because of the difficulty scholars have had in defining the concept. Cashman (2002) notes that the concept has two different meanings in English; an individual bequest or, more generally, something that is left over from an event. There is no accurate equivalent in other languages, however, and it has been suggested that the difficulty in coming to a uniform understanding of the term is difficult in Europe, but even more challenging for languages outside of Europe (Cashman 2002). The lack of common definition and misuse of legacy has devalued the meaning of the concept (Gammon 2015; Grix et al. 2017). Legacy claims made a year after the hosting of an MSE are outcomes, not legacy, as legacy implies a longer-term outlook than a one-year assessment (Gammon 2015). In his critique of legacy, Gammon (2015), outlined four principal reasons for why long-term legacy ambitions should be viewed with caution. First, the lack of agreed definition makes measurement of legacy and comparisons difficult. Second, the long-term nature of legacy means that there can be political interference in the legacy ambitions because of the possibility of different governments being in power. Third, enthusiasm for an MSE wanes after the event, which can result in less public funding for legacy aspirations. Finally, it is possible that some legacy intentions involve the hosting of future MSE, which then makes it difficult to understand the effectiveness of an MSE if their success is a result of previous MSEs (Gammon 2015). Gammon (2015) argues that different terms might be needed for different time assessments of an MSE. Short-term assessments could be considered to be impacts, medium-term assessments as outcomes, and longer-term assessments as longer-term initiatives or aspirations (Gammon 2015). To reclaim legacy from its present misuse and ambiguity, it is important for a consensus to be generated between relevant organisations and industries as to the use and application of legacy (Gammon 2015). Failure to reach a common consensus will mean that legacy continues to be in the ‘pantheon of abused, maligned misquoted and misunderstood concepts in popular discourse and sport studies alike’ (Grix et al. 2017, p. 204).

For the purposes of this research, Preuss’ (2007) definition of legacy will be used. The definition by Preuss (2007) lacks precision in terms of the duration of the legacy after the event, but Preuss (2007) argued that it was not possible to be exact regarding the duration of legacy because legacies can last for an undetermined amount of time. Preuss’ (2007) definition focuses more on the post-event legacies and does not seem to focus as much on the pre-event legacies that may be possible. Nevertheless, this definition is adequate for a further discussion of legacy to take place.

2.3.1 History and evolution of the legacy concept

Legacy was absent from bid documents made before the Melbourne 1956 Olympic Games, with hosts primarily concerned with staging a successful event first and foremost (McIntosh 2002). In addition, Cashman (2002) noted that before the 1980s, Olympic legacy was used in a broad sense, lacking specific focus, and this continued during the 1980s and 1990s. The concept of legacy benefits for hosts of the Olympic Games can be traced back to the 1980s (Leopkey and Parent 2012a; Tomlinson 2014), when, on the eve of the 1984 Los Angeles Olympic Games, Frank King, chairman of the organising committee for the Calgary 1988 Winter Olympics, discussed leaving a legacy of fully funded and paid for Olympic facilities (Tomlinson 2014). Legacy was thought to have been a means of justifying the expensive nature of hosting the Games at a time when the Olympic Movement was experiencing a crisis following difficulties in previously hosted Olympic Games (Leopkey and Parent 2012b; Tomlinson 2014). The promise of potential benefits was a way of increasing the number of bidders for the Olympic Games, as the number of candidates willing to host the event had dwindled significantly in the late 1970s and early 1980s (Leopkey and Parent 2012b). It was in the early 1990s, for the 2000 and 2002 Olympic Games, when benefits resulting from the hosting of the Games were discussed (Leopkey and Parent 2012a). By 2003, the year of bids for the 2010 Games, potential hosts of the Olympic Games

were required to answer a specific question about the impact and legacy the Games would have (Leopkey and Parent 2012a). For the 2012, 2014, and 2016 Games, prospective hosts were required to address the concept of legacy from the hosting of the Games in a specific section of their candidature files (Leopkey and Parent 2012a), highlighting the growing importance of legacy for the IOC.

Leopkey and Parent (2012a), in their documentation of the evolution of legacy from the early 1980s until 2012, identified a number of different legacy themes: cultural legacies; economic legacies; environmental legacies; image of the host city legacies; informational or educational legacies; legacies of nostalgia; Olympic Movement legacies; infrastructural legacies; political legacies; psychological legacies; social legacies; sporting legacies; legacies concerning sustainability; and urban legacies. Their content analysis discovered both intangible and tangible legacies, but prospective hosts paid more attention to the tangible legacies of the Games (Leopkey and Parent 2012a). Leopkey and Parent (2012a) argue that London 2012's bid has shifted the thinking behind legacy from mainly being thought of as occurring post-Games, to the notion that legacy can be embedded from the initial bid, in the planning stages, and in the implementation of the Games too. Leopkey and Parent (2012a, p. 937) posit that this change in outlook to legacy '...is one of the most significant evolutionary adaptation in the governance of legacy within the modern Olympic Games'.

2.3.2 Features of legacy

For hosts of MSEs, it is often the allure of the anticipated benefits from the hosting of the event that encourages a bid to be made (Tomlinson 2014). According to Horne (2017), MSE legacies can be either selective or universal. Selective legacies benefit only specific groups or individuals, whilst universal legacies can be enjoyed by all (Horne 2017). Horne (2017, p. 8, italics in original) argues that most MSEs '...largely generate *tangible legacies* that are *selective* and *intangible legacies* that are *universal*'. Thus, currently, MSEs fail to live up to the legacy promises that are often promulgated by hosts, as they fail to benefit the population, instead serving the interests of a privileged few (Horne 2017). Indeed, some previous hosts have experienced negative outcomes from staging MSEs (Leopkey and Parent 2012a). The evidence for the transformational potential of the Olympic Games for the host city is therefore not conclusive, with Tomlinson (2014, p. 151) suggesting '...the harsh realities contradict the legacy hopes and aspirations'. Nevertheless, Tomlinson (2014) believes the promise of benefits accrued from hosting an MSE will continue to motivate bidders.

Preuss (2015) argues there are six main aspects of legacy that should be considered: time; new initiatives; value; tangibility; space; and intention. Legacies are thought to be able to outlast the event and the resultant impacts, taking place before the event but mainly from changes wrought by the event (Preuss 2015). Legacy is not just a by-product of an Olympic Games, however, but can be prospective too (Girginov 2012). Moreover, legacies from the Olympic Games are not fixed, but are instead fluid and constantly changing; the effects from the Games can occur some years after the hosting of the event (Cashman 2006). Preuss (2015) posits that new opportunities arise from the initial impacts caused by the event, which then develop their own characteristics as the environment of a legacy changes. Legacies can be viewed positively or negatively to various stakeholders, which can sometimes be the same legacy outcome (Preuss 2015). For example, an infrastructural legacy may be viewed positively by one stakeholder for the changes it has made and negatively by another stakeholder for the negative impact it has had. Girginov and Hills (2008) found that sustainable sports development by NGBs was affected by the inconsistent interpretations of legacy held by different stakeholders (Girginov and Hills 2008). The timing of legacy evaluations can also influence the interpretation of the success or failure of a legacy (Cashman 2006). Cashman (2006) provides the example of the Sydney 2000 Olympic

Games and the view of the Games being more positive by Australians during the 2003 Rugby World Cup hosted in Australia and during the 2004 Athens Olympic Games (Cashman 2006). Legacies can be tangible or intangible (Horne 2017; Preuss 2015) and can be either material or non-material in its tangibility (Preuss 2015). Legacy is usually confined to the host city, but it is possible for some of the effects to be extended beyond the host destination (Preuss 2015). Legacy can be individual and local in character or it can be international and global (Preuss 2015). Not all legacies are intentional; they can be unintentional too (Preuss 2015).

There are different types of legacies that can occur at various stages of the hosting of the Olympic Games. Preuss (2015, p. 13) describes legacies occurring before the hosting of the MSE as the 'pregnancy effect'. 'Latent legacies', however, are legacies that may be dormant and then are activated in the future (Preuss 2015, p. 14). For example, the knowledge and skills acquired from bidding for an MSE may be a legacy but may not be activated for a period of time until the host bids for the next MSE (Preuss 2015). Preuss (2015, p. 14) provides the example of a brownfield site being redeveloped as being a 'retro legacy' because the infrastructure may have been required but is developed at a faster rate than if the hosting of the event had not occurred. Despite legacies being of an undefined timespan (Preuss 2007), legacies diminish in power as time passes (Preuss 2015).

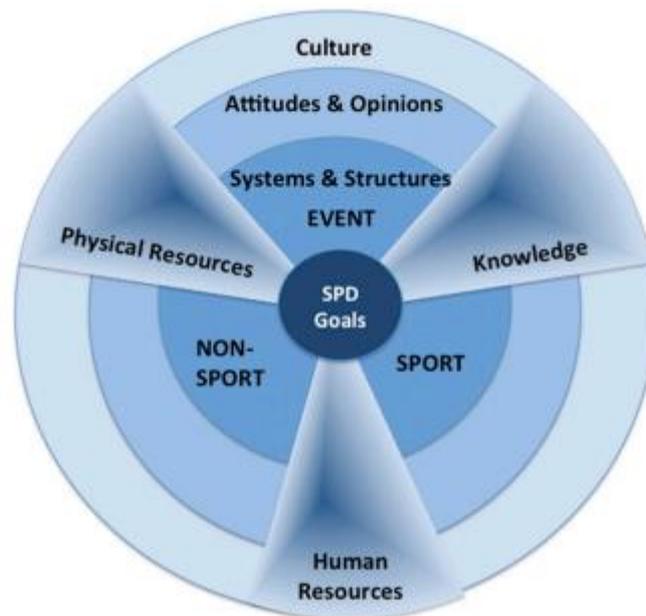
2.4 Leveraging legacies

An optimal way of utilising resources to effectively achieve legacy goals is for hosts to leverage the hosting of the Games to supplement and enhance other initiatives (Weed et al. 2015). Leveraging implies a strategic and tactical focus for reaping benefits for sport participation from hosting an MSE (Chalip 2006, 2017). Thus, leveraging – '...a forward thinking, strategic approach where both the impacts and the ways to achieve them are planned in advance of an event' (Smith 2014, p. 18) – implies an understanding about how a mega-event may be used to improve and enhance what can be gained from hosting the event (Chalip 2006, 2017). Leveraging is separate from event impacts because impacts from events are automatic, whereas leveraged outcomes are from other initiatives which have been linked to the event to provide enhanced benefits (Chalip, 2006; Smith 2014). Smith (2014) believes two different leveraging programmes exist: event-led and event-themed leveraging. Event-led leveraging aims to extend the impacts that would be expected ordinarily from the event. Event-themed leveraging is concerned with achieving other priorities that capitalise on the opportunity offered by the event. The event is used to entice and interest people for other outcomes that may be exploited from hosting the event (Smith 2014). Smith (2014) is of the opinion that leveraging ordinarily is initiated after key decisions of an event have already been made. Instead, Smith (2014) advocates incorporating leveraging into the bidding process to inform the design of the project and to provide optimal opportunity to achieve strategic objectives.

Chalip et al. (2017) created a model (Figure 1) to capture the processes that are involved in leveraging an MSE. The model is composed of three features: context, resources, and organisations (Chalip et al. 2017). At the hub of the model is the aim of increasing sport participation, thus everything within the model is centred on increasing sport participation from the hosting of a sports event. The context is arranged in concentric circles and is the backdrop to leveraging efforts; leveraging is influenced and reliant on contextual conditions being conducive. The concentric circles are arranged in hierarchical order, with culture forming the outer layer, attitudes and opinions being influenced by culture, and the structures and systems of each organisation the final layer of context. The resources needed to facilitate leveraging traverse the different layers of context and organisations. The resources all require finance to enable the conditions for leveraging, but financial resources alone are not sufficient. The three categories of resources that are required for leveraging are physical resources, human

resources, and knowledge-based resources. Three organisations are thought to have a role in leveraging: sport organisations, event organisers, and non-sport organisations. The three organisations transcend the layers of context and resources, possessing different skills and abilities needed for successful sport participation leverage. In order for leveraging to be successful, it is paramount that the three organisations are united regarding the objectives of sport participation from the sports event. Leveraging is not thought to be possible without the successful cooperation of the three organisations, and the working towards a shared strategic vision (Chalip et al. 2017).

Figure 1. Chalip et al.'s (2017, p. 261) sport event leveraging model.



Strategic planning of legacy can often occur after the MSE has been hosted. Bramwell (1997) discussed three approaches to strategic planning: classical, processual, and systemic. Classical planning refers to engaging in strategic planning from the beginning, with a plan enacted from the outset (Bramwell 1997). Classical planning can be argued to be closely related to the leveraging concept discussed in the literature. Processual planning occurs as a result of learning and pragmatic considerations and is emergent in character (Bramwell 1997). Finally, systemic planning holds the view that planning is embedded within social systems and decisions are made as a result of political interaction (Bramwell 1997; Nakamura and Suzuki 2017). Bramwell (1997) discovered that the strategic planning of the 1991 World Student Games largely utilised the processual approach, mainly as a result of a greater understanding and commitment as a result of hosting the Games. Similarly, Nakamura and Suzuki (2017) found that processual planning after the 1998 Nagano Winter Olympic Games enabled the city to be able to recover from initial problems resulting from the Nagano Games. The findings from Bramwell (1997) and Nakamura and Suzuki (2017) demonstrate the utility of the processual strategic planning approach for MSE hosts and emphasise that leveraging pre-event is not the only method that can result in legacy benefits for the host.

Rogerson (2016) described how organisers of the 2014 Glasgow Commonwealth Games were able to increase sport participation and physical activity levels of Glasgow residents through leveraging initiatives. This was achieved by opening and making available to VSCs and the public

the venues that were to be used during the Games. This helped to build on the increasing interest in the Games by highlighting the connection of the venues to the Games (Rogerson 2016). The venues were associated with the local community as a result of the usage and visibility of the stadiums before the Games. This meant that there was a heightened sense of community attachment to the venues, helping to increase sport participation and physical activity (Rogerson 2016). It is possible that, by building a pre-event legacy, pre-Games participation levels may be sustained after the Games, but the danger for Glasgow, as if with many MSEs, is whether the investment and resources will be available to sustain legacy efforts after the conclusion of the Games (Rogerson 2016). Dickson (2017) detailed how the 2011 Rugby World Cup organisers were able to successfully leverage the event. The appointment of directors to an organising committee, the founding of a specific structure through which leveraging could be achieved, and a central point through which the activities of the government were coordinated, enabled the successful leveraging (Dickson 2017). At the heart of the leveraging initiatives was the strategic use of partnership to facilitate leveraging (Dickson 2017). Leveraging of MSEs can also influence the internal operations of organisations. Girginov, Peshin and Belousov (2017) discovered that UK and Russian NGBs were able to improve the organisational capacity of the organisations through the hosting of the 2012 London Olympic Games and 2014 Sochi Olympics, respectively. Improved staff qualifications and organisational learning and performance management systems were enhanced as a result of leveraging the hosting of the 2012 and 2014 Olympics, respectively (Girginov, Peshin and Belousov 2017).

Leveraging is not without difficulties. Taks et al. (2018) found that local sport clubs were prevented from leveraging the International Children's Games in Windsor, Canada, for three main reasons: an assumption that the event would provide new participants; lack of cooperation with event organisers; and inadequate internal resources to facilitate leveraging. Future event organisers need to communicate to sport clubs the message that participation benefits can only be gained if initiatives are enacted to produce the outcomes; the benefits will not occur by themselves (Taks et al. 2018). Separate structures are required for event organisation and leverage, as one organisation is unlikely to be able to perform both sufficiently (Taks et al. 2018). Moreover, it is important to build the necessary internal capacity of sports clubs, such as staff recruitment and training, before the event takes place, and before leveraging initiatives are employed, if leveraging is to be able to be implemented successfully (Taks et al. 2018). Bell and Gallimore (2015) argued that the external environment, the economy, and changes to the public sector all had a role in inhibiting the effectiveness of leveraging the London 2012 legacy in the north west of England. Lovett and Bloyce (2017) found that organisations relied too much on the demonstration effect in increasing sport participation from the 2012 Games, with the cuts to local government hampering the delivery of sport in Birmingham. Brittain (2016) postulated that cuts to benefits and negative media coverage of disabled people, as well as the wider budget cuts to local government, inhibited the social potential of the LPG. Hayday, Pappous and Koutrou (2017) contended that a number of factors limited the leveraging potential of the 2012 Olympics. This included poor communication between the NGBs and VSCs, lack of NGB resources to support VSCs' leveraging, and a mistrust between NGBs in knowledge sharing due to funding implications associated with APS targets. Macrae's (2017) findings into the leveraging of the 2014 Commonwealth Games echoed the conclusions of Hayday, Pappous and Koutrou (2017). Macrae (2017) recommended that future MSE organisers aiming to increase sport participation needed to ensure investment in, and the organisational capacity of, VSCs is developed before the hosting of the MSE. The budget made available for leveraging by organisers of mega-events is often much smaller, comparatively, to the budget allocated for the event, which may suggest some organisers do not prioritise the potential benefits from the event as strategically as possible (Smith 2014). The question of who is responsible for leveraging from an event is an important one to consider, as well as being aware of the right networks and partnerships to

exploit (Smith 2014). Failure to address these factors can potentially prevent the strategic leveraging of outcomes from a mega-event (Smith 2014).

Commentators have discussed the need for leveraging to be a part of the fabric of mega-event legacy activation (Coalter 2004; Gold and Gold 2009; Shipway 2007; Weed et al. 2009). Weed et al. (2009) discovered, in their systematic review of the evidence for developing a physical activity and health legacy from the London 2012 Games, that simply hosting the Games was not enough to achieve the desired outcomes. Instead, Weed et al. (2009) suggested legacy planning needed to be incorporated into wider initiatives around the Games. Similarly, Shipway (2007, p. 123) believed the Games should be viewed as ‘...the icing on the cake to assist with current government sport, physical activity and health strategies, but not the cake itself.’ To use the Games on its own for increasing participation would be misguided; other initiatives aimed at increasing sport participation should be harnessed as part of a wider strategy for grassroots sport participation (Coalter 2004; Misener et al. 2015). Bretherton, Piggin and Bodet (2016) found that the London 2012 sport participation legacy was inhibited by inconsistency in how sport and physical activity was constructed in public discourse, an overreliance on intangible concepts, such as inspiration, and a mistaken belief that the Games would lead to increased sport participation on its own. Bretherton, Piggin and Bodet (2016) concluded that external environmental factors need to be considered when planning legacies, and that there needs to be leveraging of the MSE in the run-up to the event, rather than relying on the event alone to increase sport participation.

2.5. Evaluation of MSE legacies

Evaluating legacies from mega-events is not easy. It is important to be able to distinguish between changes that can be attributed to the hosting of the event, from changes that would have occurred regardless of hosting of the event (Preuss 2015; Scott 2014; Thornley 2012; Weed 2013). Additionality, the sum of changes brought about by an event versus changes that would have occurred regardless, clouds the task of evaluating legacies from MSEs (Henry 2016). Henry (2016) believes the assessments of London 2012 failed to properly account for additionality. The assessment of the legacy of an event can change depending on the viewpoint of the stakeholder evaluating legacy (Preuss 2015) and when the assessment is carried out (Cashman 2006). Seeking different stakeholder views would provide a balanced assessment and being aware of the different stakeholder perspectives on legacy can help one in accurately assessing the value of legacy (Preuss 2015). Preuss (2015, p. 17) terms the mistaken identification of event legacies as ‘placebo legacy’ and being able to identify the real legacies of the event from the ‘placebo legacy’ identified by members of the host city, is important in the accurate evaluation of event legacy (Leopkey and Parent 2012a; Preuss 2015). Changes in the context in which the legacy of a mega-event has been constructed can impact on the measurement of legacy and the results that are monitored (Henry 2016; Scott 2014). For example, London 2012 was secured by a Labour government in 2005, but from 2010 there was a change in government to the Coalition government, who altered the number of legacy priorities from the 2012 Olympic Games from six to four (Henry 2016; Scott 2014). The disbandment of the organising committees for the Olympic Games shortly after the Olympic Games has ended does not aid the evaluation process (Mangan 2008), as key stakeholders and knowledge involved in the formulation of legacy could be lost or inaccurately measured after the event. A challenge with legacy evaluation is being able to meaningfully aggregate different sources of data from the range of programmes and evaluations of projects that go into legacy initiatives (Scott 2014). Due to the sheer number of different programmes and organisations involved, the consistency and comparability of the data would be dubious to try and pool all the data together (Scott 2014). Scott (2014) notes there has been a ‘...tendency...to focus on statistical outcomes and participation data to evaluate achievement and aggregate data across an extensive field’ (Scott 2014, p. 14). Girginov and Hills

(2008, p. 2103) argue that legacy evaluation cannot be fully evaluated by an 'input-output system' only, but that 'equal attention needs to be paid to the process of legacy construction'.

Preuss (2007) does not endorse the benchmarking of previous mega-events as an effective method of measuring mega-event legacies. Each mega-event is unique and a complex entity with its own contextual knowledge and motivations for hosting the event, resulting in comparisons of legacies from different MSEs being fraught with difficulty (Preuss 2007). Even if the same mega-event is hosted in the same host city, using the prior mega-event as a benchmark for the current mega-event legacy is best avoided (Preuss 2007). This is because the environment and infrastructure may have developed since the previous hosting of the event (Preuss 2007). For example, London hosted the Olympic Games in 1948, and then hosted the Games in 2012, but the environment and infrastructure were very different in 2012 compared to 1948. The motives for hosting the event would be different too, even if the same event is held in the same host-city. Furthermore, legacies are unique to the specific edition of the mega-event and to the host city, and are time and spatially dependent, thus each mega-event will be different (Preuss 2007). Benchmarking the legacy of the same mega-event, but held in different cities, is not recommended because the host cities are likely to be hosting the mega-event for different priorities and have different resources available (Preuss 2007). For example, the priorities of the London 2012 Games were different to that of the Beijing 2008 Games, as were the resources available to each city, thus comparing the legacy of London 2012 to Beijing 2008 would be of limited utility.

Evaluating mega-event legacies via a top-down approach, whereby macro-economic factors of the host city are used to evaluate the legacy post-event, is not the optimal approach (Preuss 2007), because legacies do not just occur after the event, but can be prospective too (Girginov 2012). Furthermore, macro-economic data offers an incomplete picture of legacy and does not capture the nuances and different elements that make up legacy (Preuss 2007). The bottom-up approach to measuring legacy, however, is considered to be a better approach as it measures the soft and hard structural changes caused by the hosting of a mega-event (Preuss 2007). Although the bottom-up approach is desired, it is difficult to capture the net effect of legacy. This is because an overall judgement of legacy is subjective and dependent on the stakeholder conducting the assessment, and tracking changes over time is difficult and resource-intensive (Preuss 2007).

Legacy discussions often begin by focusing on outcomes, but this fails to appreciate how and why outcomes occur (Chalip 2017). Girginov and Hills (2009) suggest a social constructivist method to the measurement of sports development legacies, rather than outcome orientated approaches, as outcome evaluations fail to provide an understanding of the meaning and understanding of how legacy was achieved. By adopting a social constructivist approach, one is able to build-up a detailed understanding of the processes and mechanisms that construct and shape the legacy discourse (Girginov and Hills 2009). Homma and Masumoto (2013) built upon Girginov and Hill's (2009) social constructivist approach to sport development legacy by suggesting a 'culture complex' model to assess sport participation legacies from the Olympic Games. In the culture complex model, sport policy is considered the essential trait which interrelates with other traits (Homma and Masumoto 2013). The other traits in the model are: people's behaviour (termed participation); people's attitudes (termed motivation); and social system (termed education) (Homma and Masumoto 2013). Homma and Masumoto (2013) propose that when one is assessing sport policy one looks at the relationships between these three traits and sport policy. By analysing the interrelatedness of the three traits to sport policy it may be possible to understand the leverages that exist which can create sustainable sport legacies (Homma and Masumoto 2013). The interrelation between participation, motivation, and social system with sport policy should be conducted over a long time, from the time of bidding for the Games until ten years after the Games have ended, in order to capture the long-

term nature of legacy (Homma and Masumoto 2013). The theoretical approach adopted by Homma and Masumoto (2013) presents possible solutions to the problems experienced with the current MSE legacy approaches. A constructivist approach to sport legacy could reveal the processes and mechanisms involved in achieving a sustainable sports legacy, because of the focus that it places on the review of sport policy and its interaction with participation, motivation, and education (Homma and Masumoto 2013). Homma and Masumoto's (2013) theoretical approach is limited to the context of sports legacy and to the Olympic Games and has yet to be tested in practice (Homma and Masumoto 2013), thus it is unclear at this stage how the theory would work in practice. The approach advocated by Homma and Masumoto (2013) is lengthy and may be unrealistic because of the resources that would be required to track the process of legacy for the desired time. Indeed, with disbandment of organising committees of Olympic Games occurring shortly after the Olympic Games finishes (Mangan 2008), it may be difficult to continue to chart sport participation legacies using a constructivist approach for a long period after the Games with key stakeholders and stakeholder groups no longer active. Henry (2016) advocated the use of realist evaluation to the measurement of MSE legacy. Realist evaluation is able to capture the mechanisms and contexts that interact to produce legacy outcomes, and for whom the outcomes occur and why (Henry 2016). Henry believes the additionality issue in terms of evaluating MSE legacy can be solved in part through the operationalisation of the realist evaluation method. Chen and Henry's (2016) realist evaluation of a London 2012 Games programme in Leicestershire, is an example of how a detailed understanding of the processes and outcomes of legacy can be understood (Henry 2016).

2.5.1 Frameworks for evaluating legacy

Legacy evaluation frameworks aim to overcome some of the challenges identified in evaluating legacy and to provide an objective assessment. Preuss (2007) conceptualised a 'legacy cube', a framework which measures the degree to which legacy is planned or unplanned, whether the legacy is positive or negative, and the degree to which the legacy is tangible or intangible. The utilisation of the legacy cube for measurement is affected by the specific time and place the assessment occurs, thus if a legacy evaluation for the whole country is needed, more than one legacy cube would be required (Preuss 2007). The legacy cube is a measurement of gross legacy and is not able to factor in other developments that take place (Preuss 2007). To measure the net worth of a mega-event legacy, the legacy cube needs to be supplemented with the measurements of the opportunity costs of hosting the event, and the unrealised city benefits due to the increase in visitors to the host city which may cannibalise other attractions and visitor numbers (Preuss 2007). The legacy cube conceptualised by Preuss (2007) has been criticised for lacking time and space dimensions in the measurement of legacy (Dickson, Benson and Blackman 2011). An appreciation of time and location of legacy is necessary to understand where and for how long a legacy occurs (Dickson, Benson and Blackman 2011). Building on the five dimensions of legacy identified by Preuss (2007), which are planning, structure, tangibility, timeframe, and spatial impact (Preuss 2007), Dickson, Benson and Blackman (2011) believe cost should also be considered in order to account for different types of legacy. Dickson, Benson and Blackman (2011) refined and built upon Preuss (2007)'s legacy cube to create a legacy radar framework. The legacy radar enables a user to create profiles of legacies and to compare the scores of legacies on the radar by using Likert scales for each dimension (Dickson, Benson and Blackman 2011). Dickson, Benson and Blackman's (2011) legacy radar is conceptual and was developed in the context of a mega-event sport tourism domain (Dickson, Benson and Blackman 2011), but it is an improvement on the legacy cube first put forth by Preuss (2007) because of the ability to compare other legacies with each other. In the opinion of the author, the legacy radar is limited in its utility, however, as explanations for how dimensions are ranked on a Likert

scale are not provided and there is a lack of objective thresholds or measures for the dimensions. Dickson, Benson and Blackman (2011) acknowledge empirical data should be used for the dimensions where possible, but the current conception of the legacy radar is limited. Thus, comparison of scores may be difficult because there are no objective and agreed metrics for each dimension. Moreover, the legacy radar is not able to provide background information and context to each legacy dimension and to explain why that dimension may score higher or lower on one dimension over another. The legacy radar is a good tool for basic analysis and for visual representation but lacks objectivity and is unable to provide holistic assessments of legacy.

Preuss (2015) has created a legacy framework which is able to account for the scale and value of changes caused by a mega-event. Preuss' (2015) framework does this by considering four factors: what can be classified as a change caused by the event; the way different stakeholders view legacy and who has been affected by legacy and how; the time element of legacy in terms of its duration, when it occurs, and its constancy over time (Preuss 2015). To understand what changes are caused by the MSE, Preuss (2015) distinguishes between four different 'fields' in the event-related development of a city and its relation to legacy. Field A includes developments not related to the event. Field B includes developments that would have occurred regardless of an event, but the hosting of the event may have sped up the changes to the city, which can be positive or negative in their effects. Field C is event only changes and is not part of the long-term development interests of the city. Field D recognises the readiness of the host city for the event and the current state of city development (Preuss 2015). 'Event structures', which include infrastructure, knowledge, policy, networks, and emotions, last longer than the mega-event and are caused to varying degrees by the hosting of the mega-event (Preuss 2015). The event structures impact on different types of industries and can be planned or unintended and tangible or intangible (Preuss 2015). Individual event structures can have their own legacy or several legacies and evaluating where the changes in event structures corresponds in terms of fields A-D, makes it possible to be aware whether the changes to the city are legacies from the mega-event or not (Preuss 2015). For Preuss (2015), it is important to adequately acknowledge and answer questions of what, who, how, and when, in the evaluation of legacies. By answering these questions fully and objectively, there is potential for gaining a more holistic and balanced viewpoint of the legacy of a mega-event on the host city (Preuss 2015).

2.6 Why do governments host MSEs?

Governments often believe the hosting of an MSE, such as the Olympic Games, will lead to increased grassroots sport participation (Bloyce and Lovett 2012; Grix and Carmichael 2012; LERI 2007). The organisers of the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games assumed a natural by-product of hosting the Games would be an increase in sport participation (Cashman 2006), as did the organisers of the 2012 London Games (Bloyce and Lovett 2012; Weed et al. 2015). Similarly, organisers of the 2005 Pan American Junior Athletic Championships, a medium-sized international sport event, assumed the building of the event stadium and awareness of the event would be sufficient to increase sport participation (Taks et al. 2014). This deep-rooted belief in the power of MSEs to increase sport participation is likely due to an assumption that MSEs have inherent inspirational attributes. It could be argued that MSEs are 'mythopoeic' in character, whereby claims about sport participation may have some elements of truth but the impact of MSEs on sport participation have been distorted by myths, which are largely unexamined (Coalter 2007a). For example, the London 2012 Inspire programme did not articulate its desired outcomes well enough, and the mechanisms to achieve participation lacked clarity, thus reaffirming the mythopoeic quality of the Olympic Games (Girginov 2016). A 'virtuous cycle' of sport development is often the reason for governments investing money into elite sport (Grix and Carmichael 2012). It is thought investment in elite sport may produce successful elite sport athletes and teams, which increases sport participation at the grassroots

level because of the pride and inspirational effects of elite sport success. With mass participation increased, there are more potential future sporting champions, thus the 'virtuous cycle' commences again (Grix and Carmichael 2012). Grix and Carmichael (2012) argue the UK government's investment in elite sport has been anchored in this notion but believe the UK government have been misguided for doing so. This is because the elite sport success of Eastern European nations was mistakenly linked to increasing mass sport participation levels, but the Eastern European nations' success cannot be isolated to the 'virtuous cycle' concept on its own (Grix and Carmichael 2012). De Bosscher, Sotiriadou and van Bottenburg (2013) explored the relationships between membership figures and elite sporting success in twenty Olympic sports in Flanders over a period of fifteen years. The evidence from De Bosscher, Sotiriadou and van Bottenburg's (2013) findings suggested there was no conclusive proof for a positive relationship between elite success and grassroots sport participation. Of the four sports that demonstrated a positive correlation – athletics, swimming, judo, and tennis – the authors were unable to conclude whether the increase in membership was a result of elite success (De Bosscher, Sotiriadou and van Bottenburg 2013).

The trickle-down effect, a common belief held by organisers of mega-events, is similar to the virtuous cycle (Grix and Carmichael 2012) and the sport pyramid metaphor (De Bosscher, Sotiriadou and van Bottenburg 2013), in that success at the elite sport level supposedly 'trickles down' to the grassroots level (Hogan and Norton 2000). The trickle-down effect, in theory, creates a broad pool of potential elite sports men and women to choose from, due to the success of elite sport (Hogan and Norton 2000). The role-model concept underpins the trickle-down concept, whereby the power of the sportsperson motivates people at the grassroots level to participate in sport (Hogan and Norton 2000). The trickle-down effect is thought to have originated with Bloomfield (1973), though Hogan and Norton (2000) point out that Bloomfield stressed the search for the next athlete was not the main aim, but that the inspiration of the elite athlete's success should be used to harness increases in mass participation. Despite the investment in elite athletes and the strong success of the Australian athletes, there has been an increase in inactivity and obesity in Australia (Hogan and Norton 2000; Toohey 2010). In addition, Girginov and Hills (2008) argued that hosting an Olympic Games can negatively impact on sport participation by diverting funds away from sport development programmes, in order to help fund the cost of the Games and the development needed to host them. By hosting an Olympic Games, the host city may sacrifice the sporting requirements of that current generation for supposed benefits for future generations (Girginov and Hills 2008). Hogan and Norton (2000) believed the trickle-down notion to be flawed and misguided, a view echoed by Coalter (2007b), who doubted the effectiveness of the trickle-down effect in getting inactive people to be more physically active. Hanstad and Skille (2010) did discover a potential relationship between elite sport success and increased mass participation in biathlon in Norway, but the authors stressed this relationship may have been indirect and one factor amongst many. Wicker and Sotiriadou (2013) sought to evaluate the trickle-down effect of the 2006 Commonwealth Games in Melbourne, and discovered the trickle-down effect to be minor, with only a small proportion of people increasing their participation or taking up a new activity. Of the people that were positively influenced by the trickle-down effect, younger people, less educated people, and people of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander origin were most likely to have increased their participation in sport due to the Melbourne 2006 Commonwealth Games (Wicker and Sotiriadou 2013). Bloyce and Lovett's (2012) analysis of the official 2012 Games legacy documents found strong beliefs in the inspirational effect of the Games on sport participation habits. The London 2012 organisers attempted to implement policy to support the inspirational effects of the Games, but the policy lacked specific details on how the inspirational effect would be channelled to meet the overall goal of getting two million more people active (Bloyce and Lovett 2012).

2.7 Theories underpinning influence of MSEs on grassroots sport participation

The 'demonstration effect' is a popular theory of how sport participation increases at the grassroots level may be impacted by performances at the elite level of sport. The demonstration effect has been defined as '...a process by which people are inspired by elite sport, sports people or sports events to participate themselves' (Weed 2009, p. 4). The demonstration effect is underpinned by theories such as the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975); the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen 1985); social cognitive theory (Bandura 1986); and the transtheoretical model (Prochaska et al. 1992). The demonstration effect may be most effective not as a legacy of mega-events or elite performers' success, but as a process that is leveraged in the period before a mega-event (Weed et al. 2015). This is because the media coverage is highly anticipatory and can act as stimuli for activating a potential demonstration effect (Weed 2009). Effectiveness of the demonstration effect is heightened if a local connection can be established, and the process is linked to the hosting of an event or to successful performances by elite sports men and women (Weed 2009). The demonstration effect is more likely to be effective in increasing participation frequency amongst those who are already active or participate in sport, or in encouraging current sport participants to switch participation to a different activity (Weed et al. 2015). The demonstration effect may be able to encourage recently lapsed participants, people who were active but have not recently participated frequently, to re-engage with sport and to participate more frequently (Weed et al. 2015). The demonstration effect does not make an impact on individuals who do not already participate in sport because of the lack of resonance of sport to the motivation of inactive people (Weed 2009); in fact, it may deter people from participating in sport because of a perceived competency gap (Weed et al. 2011). Weed et al.'s (2015) conclusions are supported by Chen and Henry (2016), who found that the Workplace Challenge programme in Leicestershire had the lowest impact on inactive people, but people who participated in sport occasionally were the most likely group to increase their participation. Weed et al.'s (2015) investigations into the demonstrations effect and the Olympic Games were focused on adults only.

Boardley (2013) evaluated a number of theories in assessing the likelihood of the 2012 Games influencing motivation for sport participation. The theories evaluated by Boardley (2013) were Bandura's (1997) self-efficacy theory; Deci and Ryan's self-determination theory (Deci and Ryan 1985; Ryan and Deci 2000); Azjen and Madden's (1986) theory of planned behaviour; and Prochaska et al.'s (1992) transtheoretical model. The transtheoretical model was not originally developed in the sport or exercise disciplines and aims to account for behaviour change by identifying an individual's movement across a series of stages in the change process. Five stages of the transtheoretical model have been identified relating to exercise: precontemplation (at this stage the individual has no intention to be active); contemplation (an individual in this stage is beginning to think about being active within the next six months); preparation (minor changes in behaviour may occur here, but not enough to meet physical activity guidelines); action (physical activity takes place but only within the last six months); and maintenance (an individual in this stage has been physically active for six months or longer) (Marshall and Biddle 2001). In their research into the effects of non-mega sport event attendance on sport participation, Ramchandani et al. (2015) commented that the participants who reported increases in participation were likely to be situated in the 'consciousness raising' and 'dramatic relief' stages of the transtheoretical model. Ramchandani et al. (2015) argue those who are already active in sport are likely to progress along the transtheoretical model compared to people who are not active. Boardley (2013) posited that viewing the 2012 Games could have a positive impact on stages of participation in the transtheoretical model, but that stages of participation are also linked to self-efficacy for continued participation. Therefore, it may only be individuals in the early stages of the model who demonstrate the most potential (Boardley 2013).

In evaluating Bandura's (1997) self-efficacy theory, and its role on viewers of the 2012 Games and their sport participation, Boardley (2013) suggested some people may have experienced an increase in confidence and perceived sporting competence, and to have been motivated to participate in sport as a result. Potential negative impacts may arise, however, as the vast majority of the population may view the success of elite sports men and women compared to their own competence as being too great in difference from their own (Boardley 2013). Thus, those who have identified a competency gap could in fact be demotivated to participate in sport due to the achievements of elite sportspeople (Boardley 2013). Utilising the theory of planned behaviour, Boardley (2013) discovered individuals may have an increased desire to participate in sport after viewing the 2012 Games. Individuals with relatively little prior exposure to sport may view the London 2012 Games and attach positive beliefs towards sports and its benefits, such as increased self-esteem, health, for example (Boardley 2013). These individual's attitudes may also be improved, which may increase the intention to participate in sport (Boardley 2013). Boardley (2013) argued that focusing purely on elite sport would not be able to elicit the change in intention to participate in sport, with the potential perceived competency gap from self-efficacy theory one potential reason. Focusing on non-elite sport as well as elite sport may be the optimal way to increase sport participation from watching the 2012 Games, but Boardley (2013) acknowledged the likelihood of the 2012 Games television coverage featuring non-elite sport was remote.

The inspirational impact of a sporting event on grassroots sport participation is likely to be greater for already active participants than inactive participants (Mutter and Pawlowski 2014; Ramchandani et al. 2015; Ramchandani, Kokolakis and Coleman 2014; UK Sport 2011). Ramchandani et al.'s (2015) study investigated nine non-MSEs that were hosted in England between 2010 and 2012, and their findings suggest these events can potentially contribute to increased sport participation for already active spectators. Inactive spectators are unlikely to change their sport participation after attending the event (Ramchandani et al. 2015). Team sports, rather than individual sports, are more likely to be a source of inspiration to spectators (Ramchandani et al. 2015; Ramchandani, Kokolakis and Coleman 2014). The inspirational impact of an event is greater for active participants because live events are more likely to attract these kinds of people (UK Sport 2011). The inspirational element of an event is therefore transmitted to more active people than inactive people, and organisers aiming to utilise the inspirational aspect of MSEs are likely to achieve market penetration, rather than development (UK Sport 2011). The performance of elite athletes at MSEs is the primary cause of the inspirational effect (UK Sport 2011). The inspirational aspect of an MSE is not sufficient on its own to boost sport participation, as it should be but one component of a wider strategy of increasing sport participation from MSEs (UK Sport 2011). Brown et al. (2017) did not find a statistically significant link between satisfaction of the 2012 London Olympics and intention to participate in swimming, though the link may be stronger for individuals who were spectators at the event, rather than watching on television. Frawley and Van den Hoven (2015) suggest that the qualification of the men's Australian football team for the 2006 World Cup played an important role in increasing football participation in Australia. Frawley and Van den Hoven (2015) do point out, however, that football in Australia benefited from an array of initiatives designed to increase participation, thus the qualification of the men's senior team was not the sole factor for the increase. Mutter and Pawlowski (2014), in investigating the motivational impact of the female and male German national football teams on sport participation for amateur football players aged fourteen and over in Germany, identified the relevance of the team as the most motivational factor for females, whereas the success of the team was the primary motivator for the male participants. Activity switching was the main outcome for the individuals positively influenced by the inspirational impact of the German national football teams on German amateur football players (Mutter and Pawlowski 2014). Furthermore, the inspirational impact is likely to be more influential for younger participants (Mutter and

Pawlowski 2014). The inspirational power of the German football teams on sport participation of German amateur football players was limited; most people's sport participation habits were unaffected (Mutter and Pawlowski 2014). It would seem the inspirational power of an MSE is restricted in its power and influence. The inspirational power of an MSE is likely to be of benefit only to those already active and should be utilised as part of a wider sport participation strategy.

2.8 The evidence for sport participation following the hosting of a MSE

The influence of sporting success or sporting role models is often claimed to increase grassroots sport participation, but the available evidence does not support this supposed relationship (Grix and Carmichael 2012; Lyle 2009; Payne et al. 2003). MSEs might be able to increase the interest to watch sport and contemplation to participate in sport (Grix and Carmichael 2012; Lyle 2009), but there is no evidence to suggest this heightened interest is converted into participation (Lyle 2009). Furthermore, the possibility of increased desire to participate in sport is likely to appeal to individuals who are already predisposed to being 'sporty' (Grix and Carmichael 2012; Lyle 2009). Individuals not ordinarily active or interested in sport are unlikely to participate in sport because of sporting role models or success at MSEs (Grix and Carmichael 2012; Lyle 2009). In fact, there is some suggestion that the use of sporting role models or success at MSEs can deter non-active individuals from participating in sport (Grix and Carmichael 2012; Payne et al. 2003). This is because an individual's self-efficacy could be reduced if a comparison is made between one's own ability compared to that of the elite athlete and judged to be too big to reconcile (Payne et al. 2003). Studies that look into the relationship between MSEs and sport participation struggle with the issue of causality that can be attributed to the role of a sportsperson on any behaviour change (Lyle 2009). This is because there are many motivations and constraints that influence participation in sport, and the presence of a role model is but one of them (Lyle 2009). Lyle (2009), in his review of the sporting role model literature, was unable to find a theory of change model for how MSEs could increase the participation of individuals. For sporting role models to be effective in increasing participation, it is paramount that a close connection between the individual and the role model is established (Lyle 2009; MacCallum and Beltman 2002; Payne et al. 2003). There needs to be a synergistic relationship between the sporting role model and individual (MacCallum and Beltman 2002). Long-term engagement and interaction between the sporting role model and the individual is likely to be the optimal way of influencing the behaviour, rather than through the use of MSEs (Lyle 2009; MacCallum and Beltman 2002; Payne et al. 2003). There should be specific role models and communications for different groups of people (Lyle 2009). For example, non-active people should receive different messages than is the case for those already involved in sport (Lyle 2009). Peer role models may be an effective way of appealing to non-sporty individuals, as there might be more perceived relevance between the peer role model and the individual compared to that of the sporting role model (Foster et al. 2005; Lyle 2009). A failure to achieve relevance, poor attractiveness of the sporting role model to the target audience, a lack of stimulation of interest, no interaction between the individuals, and a lack of consistency in the ethos of the messages communicated, are all likely to result in ineffective use of sporting role models (Lyle 2009). This is supported by Coalter, who was clear about the need for regular, long-term engagement and the importance of congruity between the role model and the target audience:

The overall conclusion is that sporting role model programmes need to be 'embedded' – part of a more general, on-going, programme of support. Fleeting media images of sporting achievement may not be enough to ensure that such role models contribute to a substantial increase in sports participation. There is a need for a more systematic and integrated approach which links the promotion of national sporting heroes to support for local role models, who can develop on-going relationships with local people and communities (2004, pp. 8-9).

It would appear there is a lack of evidence to substantiate the commonly cited claims about the ability of MSEs to increase grassroots sport participation. The existing evidence base simply does not support this claim.

The demonstration effect, if it exists, is likely to be potential that needs to be exploited, rather than being inherent within the Games (Weed et al. 2015). Weed et al.'s (2015) findings do corroborate other studies, which posit that there is little evidence available to suggest the Olympic Games can increase sport participation on its own (Cashman 2006; Coalter 2004; LERI 2007; Mahtani et al. 2013). Indeed, the 2000, 2012, and 2016 Olympic Games, on their own, do not appear to have been able to increase sport participation of their respective nations (Reis et al. 2017). Long-term strategies and significant engagement with the local communities are required for increased sport participation to occur (Reis et al. 2017). Furthermore, access to suitable sporting facilities is required to help leverage the demonstration effect (Brown et al. 2017). The hosting of the Olympic Games may be able to provide a short-term stimulus for sport participation, but it is unlikely it can be sustained. Indeed, Pappous (2011) found a small increase in sport participation in the year of the Athens 2004 Olympic Games but, in 2009, participation levels were lower than they had been in 2003. Pappous (2011) argued that the short-term rise in sport participation may not have been solely because of the Olympic Games, as in 2004 the Greek national football team unexpectedly won the 2004 European Football Championships and there had been wider European sport initiatives at play. Pappous (2011) does point out, however, that increasing sport participation was not the primary goal of the organisers of the 2004 Olympics, but this does imply that without a wider strategy and leveraging initiatives, the effectiveness of the Olympic Games on sport participation is questionable. London 2012's legacy ambitions did, however, prioritise increasing sport participation, especially amongst young people (DCMS 2008). Despite the intention to increase participation as a result of the 2012 Games, Weed et al. (2015), in their systematic literature review, were unable to discover any sustainable increases in participation linked to the 2012 Games. The limitations of the NGBs has been suggested as a potential reason for not being able to meet the full sport participation potential of the London 2012 Games (Hughes 2012). Hughes (2012) noted that NGBs were too preoccupied with elite sport because of Sport England's 'no compromise approach' to funding, and that the chance to increase their public profile had not been previously possible. Moreover, the NGBs had difficulties with their sponsor's commitments and use of the Olympic brand and marketing rights due to the International Olympic Committee's (IOC) tight controls on how its brand can be used (Hughes 2012).

In terms of physical activity from sporting mega-events, Bauman, Bellew and Craig (2015) found no statistically significant difference in physical activity following the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games. Similarly, the 2010 Vancouver Winter Olympics did not increase the physical activity of Canadian children, despite efforts to leverage the 2010 Olympics (Craig and Bauman 2014). Bauman, Bellew and Craig (2015) suggest that the Olympic Games, on their own, are unlikely to increase physical activity, but they may increase intention to be active. Potwarka and Leatherdale (2016), however, argue that a more nuanced reading of participation data is needed to understand the trickle-down effect, as it is likely to be localised rather than national. Bauman, Bellew and Craig's (2015) survey was conducted just six weeks after the Olympic Games had finished, therefore is it valid to make a judgement on the overall legacy six weeks after the event? It is the author's opinion that more time needs to have passed before a judgement about an overall sport or physical legacy can be taken. The UK government's decision to invest in sport to improve the health of the nation, such as bidding for and hosting the 2012 Games, has been ineffective, with sport negatively affecting efforts to improve the physical health of the least and less active individuals (Weed 2016). Weed (2016) is unequivocal that public investment should be made into non-sporting interventions, as the opportunity costs involved with investing in sport causes net harm. In a systematic review of the health and socioeconomic impacts of major

multi-sport events from 1978 to 2008, McCartney et al. (2010) found the evidence to be ‘...not sufficient to confirm or refute expectations about the health or socioeconomic benefits for the host population of previous major multi-sport events’ (McCartney et al. 2010, p. 1). MSEs would appear to not be able to inherently provide increases in the physical activity of the host nation. Weed et al. (2009) believe it is possible to increase physical activity from hosting an Olympic Games, but only if the event is portrayed akin to a festival, an event that transcends sport, and if the local relevance is emphasised. Leveraging of the Games may also be able to yield positive changes in activity levels (Weed et al. 2009). An event such as an Olympic Games is more effective at getting members of the general public to contemplate taking up physical activity, rather than sport, particularly among those who are currently inactive, because the Olympic Games would be viewed as something greater than a sporting event (Weed et al. 2009). Furthermore, highlighting the positive benefits of physical activity, rather than the negative consequences of inactivity, is likely to be a more effective strategy for this population group and for increasing physical activity (Weed et al. 2009).

Veal, Toohey and Frawley (2012) did, however, find some tentative evidence to suggest that the number of children participating in sports featured at the Sydney 2000 Games and the Melbourne 2006 Commonwealth Games increased more than in sports not featured at these events. Adults, on the other hand, did not demonstrate an increase in sport participation in sports featured at both events (Veal, Toohey and Frawley 2012). Veal, Toohey and Frawley (2012) stress, however, that the potential participation increases could have been linked to factors other than the event itself. According to Aizawa et al. (2018), the trickle-down effect from the Tokyo 1964 Olympic Games has led to the Japanese cohort who were aged between 10-19 in 1964, being the Japanese generation with the highest sport participation rate. The authors suggest a sleeper effect, whereby the persuasiveness of the success of Japanese athletes at the 1964 Olympics, and the social prominence attached to the 1964 Games in Japan, have increased over time, which has been a prominent reason for high participation rates (Aizawa et al. 2018). Eighteen Olympic NGBs were successful in attracting more disabled people in the lead up to the 2012 Games, with many NGBs observing an increase in participants on an informal basis, rather than through club networks (Girginov and Rowe 2013). The IOC (2013), referring to the impact of the 1992 Barcelona Olympic Games, noted that there was an increase in the number of people participating in a form of physical activity or sport at least once a week, rising from thirty-six per cent in 1983 to fifty-one per cent in 1995. Furthermore, Truñó (1995) reported that there had been an increase in the number of new users at sport centres built for the 1992 Barcelona Games. Pappous and Hayday (2016) argued membership figures in judo and fencing in England had increased since the awarding of the London 2012 Games in 2005, but the most recent APS figures for once a week participation suggest a slight drop since the 2012 Games, with disabled people’s participation demonstrating greater decline (Active People Interactive 2017).

Frawley and Cush (2011) report on possible evidence for positive sport participation increases following the 2003 Rugby World Cup in Australia. Increased rugby participation in Australia was unlikely a result of the 2003 Rugby World Cup alone, but other initiatives such as increased emphasis on participation development by the NGB, and increased commercialisation of rugby (Frawley and Cush 2011). It is interesting to note that positive sport participation for adults can be linked to the 2003 Rugby World Cup, which was hosted in a number of locations in Australia and is a single-sport event, whereas the multi-sport events, often held in predominately one host city, 2000 Olympic Games and 2006 Commonwealth Games, cannot robustly be linked to positive adult sport participation (Veal, Toohey and Frawley 2012). Does this suggest sport participation increases for adults is more likely following single-sport and multiple-city events, rather than multi-sport events held mainly in the same city? It is not possible to provide a definitive answer based on the little evidence presented, but perhaps the 2003 Rugby World

Cup benefitted from being part of wider sport participation initiatives and being able to be more targeted and specific in terms of the sport it offered.

The evidence suggesting positive sport participation increases following the hosting of MSEs is weak. For the Olympic Games, the evidence is often lacking robustness or the difficulty in isolating the impact of the Olympic Games on sport participation is apparent. Truño (1995) and the IOC's (2013) evidence about sport participation increases from the 1992 Barcelona Olympic Games is vague and does not imply the positive changes can be attributed to the hosting of the Games alone. The evidence from Veal, Toohey and Frawley (2012) suggested that adult sport participation was not positively impacted by the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games, and the authors were reluctant to be forthright in their assertion about the impact of the Games on children's participation, as the evidence was weak and undermined by changes in survey design to measure the participation figures. Girginov and Rowe's (2013) findings about the NGBs' increases in sport participation cannot be verified empirically as the governing bodies believe sport participation increases to have been on an informal basis. Aizawa et al.'s (2018) cohort analysis of the 1964 Games presents strong quantitative evidence for the high sport participation rate of the 1964 cohort, but the authors' claim that it was the Games themselves that have led to the high sport participation should be questioned. They have failed to provide enough qualitative evidence to suggest the 1964 Olympics was the main reason for high sport participation 50 years on. The Olympics may have been one reason, but a whole host of other mechanisms and contexts might have influenced the cohort's sport participation during the last 50 years. Furthermore, the sleeper effect theory posited by Aizawa et al. (2018) is speculative and lacks credibility. This author doubts whether the 1964 Olympics would have been sufficiently strong enough for people to recall and use in their later life, having previously afforded other areas of their life greater priority. In addition, Aizawa et al. (2018) contrast the lower participation by the 1991 World Athletics Championship cohort to that of the 1964 cohort as evidence for the trickle-down effect of the 1964 Games. The lack of success and prominence attached to these championships compared to the 1964 Olympics, might have been why the 1964 cohort demonstrated higher participation than the 1991 cohort (Aizawa et al. 2018). This author believes it is a contradiction to claim the sleeper effect as the reason for the high participation rate of the 1964 compared to the 1991 cohort. This is because if the sleeper effect theory is to be used, surely Aizawa et al. (2018) need to wait for the 1991 cohort to have finished with their working priorities for them to then think more seriously about participating in sport, as has been claimed to have happened with the 1964 cohort? If the sleeper effect theory is true for the 1964 cohort, it might also be true for the 1991 cohort, but this would not be revealed until the 1991 cohort are the age of the 1964 cohort are currently. The strongest evidence for sport participation increases is from the Frawley and Cush (2011) and Veal, Toohey and Frawley's (2012) analysis of the 2003 Rugby World Cup. Weed et al. (2015) note that if the primary reason for hosting an Olympic or Paralympic Games is to increase sport participation, the Games would represent a poor return on investment, and '...is not a magic bullet to raise participation in physical activity and sport' (Weed et al. 2009, p.58). Instead, MSEs may be able to boost sport participation if used as part of wider initiatives aimed at increasing sport participation (Shipway 2007).

2.9. Policy analysis theories

Policy implementation theory aims to understand the reasons and mechanisms for why behaviour change, if any, occurs as a result of a policy or programme (May, Harris and Collins 2013; Pressman and Wildavsky 1973). Implementation is therefore a focus on the process of how policy can lead to change, rather than on change itself. The implementation of policy can occur through a top-down approach or a bottom-up approach (May, Harris and Collins 2013).

Berman (1978) argues there is a dimensionality to policy implementation, with implementation taking place at the macroimplementation level and the microimplementation level. The macroimplementation level is where centralised actors devise the policy, whilst local actors at the microimplementation level digest the plans devised centrally, and then generate their own programmes and implement them to meet the overall policy goals (Berman 1978). Matland (1995) developed an ambiguity-conflict model which he argues offers a comprehensive model as to the optimum approach to policy implementation when levels of ambiguity and conflict regarding the policy are known. Matland's (1995) model is an attempt to synthesize the top-down and bottom-up approaches. Ambiguity refers to the clarity of the policy and its objectives, whereas conflict is the tensions that exist between stakeholders regarding how the policy should be implemented (Matland 1995). For policies where the conflict and ambiguity are both low, Matland (1995) recommends the top-down approach of administrative implementation. Resources are the determining factor as to whether the policy is implemented successfully because the policy goals and roles of actors are clear, and stakeholders are invested in the policy and in making it a success, thus top-down approaches work well for these policy conditions (Matland 1995). Top-down approaches that are considerate of political tensions are important for situations where policy roles and objectives may be clear, but conflict is high (Matland 1995). In this scenario, an actor with sufficient power, either in terms of resources or influence, is the primary factor in whether the top-down political implementation will succeed (Matland 1995). Implementation of policies which have high levels of ambiguity, but low policy conflicts, are predicated on the contextual conditions of local actors being the most conducive (Matland 1995). Here, the degree to which local organisations are invested in the policy and the resources available to them, will influence the implementation of policy (Matland 1995). Thus, bottom-up approaches to policy implementation are likely to be most effective in this scenario (Matland 1995). Where both policy ambiguity and conflict is high, the ability of local organisations to work together successfully plays an important role in the successful implementation of policy. Bottom-up approaches, due to the importance of contextual conditions determining successful policy implementation, are likely to be most effective in this situation (Matland 1995). deLeon and deLeon (2002) argue that policy implementation needs to be more democratic and move away from single entities in control of policy implementation. Instead, deLeon and deLeon (2002) argue that it is preferable to increase the participation of actors throughout the implementation chain in key policy decisions. This should be the default position for policy implementation, deLeon and deLeon (2002) argue, and any deviation towards a more top-down centric approach should be justified by the decision makers. The following section reviews the top-down and bottom-up approach to policy that has driven the policy implementation literature.

2.9.1 Top-down versus bottom-up approaches

Advocates of the top-down approach argue policy is implemented as a result of government and other policy agents generating the policy, and then structuring an implementation chain that enables stakeholders further down the chain to put the policy into action (Mazmanian and Sabatier 1989; Pressman and Wildavsky 1973). Mazmanian and Sabatier (1989, p. 20) argue that 'implementation is the carrying out of a basic policy decision', and the purpose of policy implementation analysis is to ascertain the determinants in successfully attaining the goals of the policy. According to Mazmanian and Sabatier (1989), the extent to which policy is implemented successfully is predicated on three groups of factors: tractability of the policy problem; the ability of statute to structure implementation; and non-statutory variables

affecting implementation. For top-down policy implementation, it is important the objectives of the policy are unambiguous and consistent (Mazmanian and Sabatier 1989; Van Meter and Van Horn 1975) and the number of agents in the implementation is kept to a minimum (Pressman and Wildavsky 1973). In addition, chances of success are heightened if the scope of change called for by the policy is not too different from the current situation (Mazmanian and Sabatier 1989; Van Meter and Van Horn 1975), and if the actors at the end of the implementation chain are invested in the aims of the policy (Sabatier 1986; Van Meter and Van Horn 1975).

Policy implementation in sport is often top-down (Kay 1996; May, Harris and Collins 2013). May, Harris and Collins (2013) cite the approach of Sport England in their distribution of funding via NGB whole sport plans as an example of top-down approaches in sport policy. In this situation, government and Sport England were the organisations that formulated the overall goals of the policy and directed NGBs to come up with plans of how they could achieve the policy objectives. The NGBs then worked with partners such as CSPs and VSCs to deliver the plan (May, Harris and Collins 2013). Here, there is a clear hierarchy in how sport policy was implemented via a top-down approach. The Sport Makers programme is another example of the top-down dominance towards policy implementation in sport (Nicholls et al. 2016).

The top-down approach has been criticised for adopting statutory language and for neglecting important actions occurring earlier in the policy formation process (Matland 1995). Matland (1995) reports that critics of the top-down approach believe top-down advocates are ignorant of, or underestimate, the politics of implementation, instead viewing implementation as being an administrative process. Reliance on legislative bodies being the key actors of policy implementation may result in important local knowledge and expertise of actors at the grassroots being missed, limiting the policy's effectiveness (Matland 1995; May, Harris and Collins 2013). Instead, the top-down approach views actors at the bottom of the chain as being potential roadblocks to successful implementation, and that their behaviour needs to be carefully controlled (Matland 1995). It can be argued that it is unrealistic for policy to not be affected by actors at the grassroots, and that there is little the state can do to exert its control on actors at the bottom from determining the success of policy implementation (Matland 1995). Indeed, variations in local context are apparent in the response of VSCs' to sport policy, with some either unwilling and/or unable to implement policy directed to them from the top (Harris, Mori and Collins 2009; May, Harris and Collins 2013). Furthermore, ignoring the input that grassroots organisations can provide in policy implementation may mean missing out on the grassroots actors' expertise and practical knowledge, something that increases the chance of unsuccessful policy implementation (Lipsky 1980).

Bottom-up approaches to policy implementation view the agents at the grassroots as being vital to the formulation and implementation of policy (Hjern 1982; Lipsky 1980). Hjern (1982) argues that the top-down approach fails to consider the interactions between organisations at the policy coalface. Moreover, Hjern (1982) believes the dynamics and relationships produced by local organisations are crucial, if the policy is to be implemented successfully. To view policy implementation as being singularly cascaded from the top down would be misguided (Hjern 1982). Problems with policy implementation mostly occur when the policy interacts with the conditions of the local organisations, according to Berman (1978). Due to the diverse nature of organisations at the local level, the way policy is implemented can vary throughout the country, an issue exacerbated because of the limited control central policy actors have over local institutions (Matland 1995). Unless flexibility is afforded to the local organisations to adapt the policy to fit in with the local conditions, it is likely the policy will fail to meet its intended

objectives (Palumbo, Maynard-Moody and Wright 1984). Proponents of the bottom-up approach contend that implementation can only be understood if the ambitions, strategies, and operations of local actors are considered (Maynard-Moody, Musheno and Palumbo 1990; Weatherley and Lipsky 1977). The success of policy implementation is thought to have been largely due to the skills and experience of local actors, rather than through actions of organisations at the top level (Hjern and Hull 1985; Matland 1995).

Critics of the bottom-up approach argue that, for democratic societies, policy should be formulated by those who have been democratically elected and are accountable to the general public. This is not the case if local actors are provided the ability to create policy (Linder and Peters 1987; Matland 1995). Too much autonomy for grassroots organisations in the implementation of policy may result in the overall impact of policy being sporadic and localised (Matland 1995). Moreover, bottom-up approaches are reliant on securing the 'buy-in' from local actors in the development and implementation of policy (Berman 1978), something that might not always be the case (May, Harris and Collins 2013).

2.9.2 Incrementalism

Incrementalism was created by Lindblom (1959) in response to the predominance of rationalist views of policy decision-making (Hayes 2013; Pal 2011). Incrementalism highlights the numerous agents in the policy process, suggesting that small and incremental changes will result from policy-makers reviewing previous policies and building on what they had accomplished, rather than implementing sweeping changes (Hayes 2013; Lindblom 1959; Pal 2011). For Lindblom (1959), the favoured view of policy decision-making as being a rational process was not possible to achieve in its entirety (Hayes 2013; Pal 2011). Principally, two conditions vital to rational decision-making were unattainable in Lindblom's (1959) opinion: shared agreement on the policy objectives, and enough knowledge to enable an understanding of the different consequences inherent with rival policy options (Hayes 2013; Pal 2011). Incrementalism offered a more viable alternative to the failings of the rational model, enabling policy decisions to be justifiable (Hayes 2013). Incrementalism focuses on tangible issues rather than abstract notions (Hayes 2013). Due to no single agent possessing the requisite knowledge to permit the rational model being used, and time constraints limiting stakeholders from reviewing the full gamut of policy options, the selected policies are unlikely to veer too much from previous programmes (Hayes 2013; Pal 2011). This enables political justification to be achieved due to the familiarity of the content and moderate scope of the policy impacts (Hayes 2013). Due to the political realities, policy makers rarely define the objectives and then assess the different policy options; instead, in practice, the aims and outcomes of a policy are often dealt with together (Hayes 2013). As a result, changes brought about by the policy are necessarily small and incremental (Hayes 2013; Lindblom 1959; Pal 2011). This does not mean large scale change is not possible, however, as a series of incremental changes can result in large changes occurring (Hayes 2013; Lindblom 1959; Pal 2011). Due to the incremental and cyclical nature of the policy decision-making process, actors are provided learning opportunities from previous iterations of policies, reaching the best solution as a result of incremental development (Hayes 2013; Lindblom 1959; Pal 2011). Incrementalism is a pragmatic approach to the policy-making process, and is therefore rooted in the realities of daily life for policy agents (Hayes 2013). If incrementalism is to function correctly, the vast majority of stakeholders affected by the policy need to be included in the policy process, and power should be relatively equitable amongst the policy actors (Hayes 2013).

Pal (2011) argues that it is just as likely for humans to produce radical and non-incremental policies as it is for incremental policies to be implemented, particularly in an environment when political actors are under pressure to appear decisive if confronted with significant problems. Pal (2011) argues that incrementalism is unable to offer adequate insight for today's policy issues. Incrementalism assumed actors and partisans were disconnected, but network theory has demonstrated this to be false (Pal 2011). Furthermore, the notion that decisions can easily be reversed in incrementalism fails to acknowledge path dependency, which suggests decisions are not as easily reversible as Lindblom first suggested (Pal 2011). Pal (2011, p. 38) concludes that incrementalism 'is not adequate to a policy-making system that is globalised, networked, value-driven, and possibly more conflictual' and that incrementalism 'is limited as a foundation for analysing contemporary public policy and the policy process'.

2.9.3 Policy evaluation

Evaluation of policy can be viewed as being the assessment of 'the effectiveness of a public policy in terms of its perceived intentions and results' (Gerston 1997, p. 120). Policy evaluation is therefore an approach to determining the success of a policy when measuring its outcomes against the intended aims of the policy, and how lessons can be learnt to aid future policy decisions (Chen 2018). Policy evaluation is important in order to be able to justify financial and political implications of investment in policy, and to ensure policies are providing the benefits they were intended to make (Hogwood and Gunn 1984; Hood, Dixon and Wilson 2009). Policy evaluation was originally restricted to post-policy assessments on the outcomes derived from the policy, but has been extended to cover the policy process as well, in order to understand the effectiveness of policy in different contexts to inform future policy decisions (Chen 2018). By broadening the remit of evaluation to focus on process, policy-makers can understand the essential components of the process that are required to be used in other programme settings (Chen et al. 2008). Evaluation studies that are able to provide lessons and increased knowledge of both the process and outcomes of a policy have proved difficult (Chen 2018). The complexity of the political system in which policy evaluations take place (Sanderson 2000), and methodological difficulties (Rist 1995; Weiss 1993), have been the principal factors behind the lack of success to date (Chen 2018). One particularly pressing methodological challenge for policy evaluation is additionality (Chen 2018; Rist 1995). Additionality is the identification of changes brought about by the policy compared to changes which would have occurred without the influence of the programme (Chen 2018). Failing to assess additionality makes it difficult to truly understand the effectiveness of the policy compared to what would have happened if the policy was never implemented (Chen 2018).

Policy evaluation in sport is limited and in its infancy (Chen 2018). Henry (2016) highlighted the paucity of evaluations for legacy programmes from the London 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games. When evaluations were undertaken they were often limited to reporting on participation or attendance figures, rather than rigorously evaluating the process and content of the programme (Henry 2016). Chen (2018) comments on the absence of theoretical frameworks in sport policy evaluations, which limits the methodological strength of these evaluations. The lack of methodological rigour in sport policy evaluation is highlighted by many evaluations failing to include additionality in its consideration of the programme outcomes (Chen 2018). Henry (2016) noted that the majority of London 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games programme evaluations did not consider additionality, specifically the policies that would have been in place and the effect they would have had if the 2012 Games had not been hosted.

Chen (2018) argues that realist evaluation (discussed in detail in section 3.5) is the way forward for sport policy evaluations. Realist evaluation addresses many of the shortfalls in the current methodologies of sport policy evaluations, and provides insights into the important mechanisms and contexts that enable the programme to be effective for different stakeholders (Chen 2018; Chen and Henry 2016; Pawson and Tilley 1997). Chen (2018) cautions that theory-based evaluations such as realist evaluations can be difficult to implement in practice. It can be a challenge to isolate the precise combinations of mechanisms and contexts for specific outcomes of a programme (Edwards 2011). Furthermore, realist evaluation can be a labour and resource-intensive approach (Edwards 2011; Gill and Turbin 1999), and thus may not be practical for all programmes (Chen 2018). Nevertheless, Chen (2018) believes it is important for a theory of change of the programme, as well as the mechanisms and contexts of the programme, to be articulated if sport policy evaluation is to advance.

2.10 What is known about Paralympic legacy?

Having reviewed the literature on MSE sport participation legacies and policy analysis theories, it is now important to review the literature for insight into Paralympic legacies, which is where the literature review now focuses.

Dickson, Benson and Blackman (2011) noted a lack of studies investigating legacies resulting from the Summer Paralympic Games. Mahtani et al. (2013), in their systematic review of systematic reviews, were unable to find any evidence for increased sport participation or physical activity from the Summer Paralympic Games. Cashman (2006) notes the difficulty in isolating legacies from the Paralympic Games as it is not an independent event, but an obligation of Olympic Games organisers to host the Paralympic Games. Indeed, Darcy and Appleby (2011) argue the primary motive of Paralympic Games hosts is in fact the Olympic Games; therefore, the reasons for hosting the Paralympics will be very different from that of the Olympic Games. It could be argued that the IPC has an absence of control over Paralympic legacy (Gilbert and Legg 2011a). The IPC is dependent on the IOC to contractually obligate the Olympic Games hosts to also host the Paralympic Games, which can result in legacies being serendipitous and localised ‘...through a form of Olympic to Paralympic osmosis’ (Gilbert and Legg 2011a, p. 240). The lack of power the IPC has over legacy development can inhibit the ability of tangible and intangible benefits from the Paralympics from emerging (Gilbert and Legg 2011a). The task of understanding Paralympic legacies is compounded by the lack of robust evidence-based measurements (Weed 2010), lack of monitoring of the impacts from previous Games (LERI 2007), and the problem of attributing impacts to the Paralympic Games (Weed 2013).

Misener et al. (2013) conducted a thematic analysis of the Paralympic legacy evidence and discovered scant empirical evidence. Their review of the literature, which included French and English language sources, uncovered forty-three sources relevant to Paralympic legacy, but only eleven were of an empirical nature. Of the eleven empirical studies included in their analysis, the majority focused on the Sydney 2000 Paralympic Games and were post-hoc in nature and had a narrow focus of planned tangible legacies. Misener et al.’s (2013) thematic analysis of the literature discovered the following legacy themes: infrastructure; information, education, and awareness; sport; human capital; and managerial. Gilbert and Legg’s (2011b) metasynthesis of Paralympic legacy uncovered five broad legacy issues from previous Paralympic Games, which focused on topics such as the history of the Paralympic Games; beacon economic multi-sport events; educating society through the Paralympic Games; media coverage of elite athletes with disabilities; and the concept of sport for all. It should be pointed out that Gilbert and Legg’s (2011b) metasynthesis were based on findings from a range of contributors to their book, and the methodology employed by these contributors for the source of their evidence is not

consistently transparent. There is a lack of awareness of Paralympic legacies and what may be possible from future Games (Legg and Steadward 2011a; Weed and Dowse 2009), though there are signs that the organisers of the Vancouver 2010 Winter Paralympic Games (Coward and Legg 2011) and the London 2012 Paralympic Games (DCMS 2010) did acknowledge and try to harness some legacy benefits from the Games.

2.11 Tangible legacies from previous Paralympic Games

This section will focus on Paralympic legacies that are observable, but as it will become clear from this brief section, knowledge of observable Paralympic legacy is limited. Infrastructural legacies from previous Paralympic legacies will be discussed, followed by a review of investment into Paralympic sport made by hosts of the Paralympic Games.

2.11.1 Infrastructural legacies

Hosting the Paralympic Games is thought to be able to steer a host nation towards making infrastructure and transport more accessible (Gold and Gold 2007). It has been suggested infrastructure built for the Olympic Games can help disabled people in urban areas and sporting domains (Cashman 2006); however, there appears to be little empirical evidence to support this. Indeed, LERI (2007) found no attempts to quantify improvements to infrastructure on the lives of disabled people had been undertaken, a finding similar to Misener et al. (2013), who found no thorough scholarly research into this area. Legg and Steadward (2011a) posit that the growth in the Paralympic Games has not been matched by an equal rise in infrastructural investment. Furthermore, research by the Sport and Recreation Alliance (Sport and Recreation Alliance 2013), through research representing 150,000 sports clubs in the UK, discovered that just under half of the clubs (49%) had suitable facilities for disabled people and one in four (39%) had appropriate equipment following the London 2012 Paralympic Games. Darcy (2003), however, found the Sydney 2000 Paralympic Games was accessible because of the work by disabled and non-disabled people in working towards it, though it is unclear if the accessible infrastructure and transport were maintained after the Games. Though the London 2012 Paralympics was considered a success, doubts remain as to the impact it has had on the lives of disabled people in the UK. For example, one physically disabled student reported her struggle in finding accessible housing in an area of East London, and that in order to find suitable accessible accommodation would have meant relocating sixty miles away (Ahmed 2013). Moreover, seven of the new stations of London's Crossrail project will not be step-free (Rose 2013). These examples may be the exception to the rule, or they may be symptomatic of a wider issue of a lack of impact from the London 2012 Paralympic Games on the lives of disabled people. Unfortunately, the answer is not clear because there is a lack of research into impact of the Paralympic Games on the accessibility of transport and infrastructure for disabled people in the UK as a result of hosting the Games.

Much more research needs to be undertaken into the infrastructure legacies of Paralympic Games, as very little empirical evidence exists. From the available evidence, it is not clear disabled people have benefitted greatly from infrastructure from the Paralympic Games.

2.11.2 Investment in Paralympic sport

Darcy and Cashman (cited by Darcy and Appleby 2011) found evidence of financial investment in elite disability sport. The Australian Paralympic Committee (APC) received a big injection of finance from the Australian Sports Commission, which saw the APC receive \$650,000 Australian dollars in 1994/5, compared to receiving \$5,323,300 Australian dollars in 2006/7 (Darcy and

Cashman, cited in Darcy and Appleby 2011). Furthermore, the Chinese government used the 2008 Beijing Paralympic Games to transform disability sport by providing significant amounts of investment and resources for Chinese elite disability sport (Sun et al. 2011). Funding for Paralympic sport in the UK benefited following the 2012 Games, with a forty-three per cent increase in funding for Paralympic sport made by UK Sport (BBC Sport 2012). The increased focus on the Paralympic Games as a serious sporting competition following the Seoul 1988 Paralympic Games, and the importance placed on participation, may inhibit the ability of less-developed countries to be able to compete at the elite level, however (Legg and Steadward 2011b).

From the available evidence, it would appear a legacy of hosting the Paralympics is for host nations to increase the financial investment in Paralympic sport.

2.12 Intangible legacies from previous Paralympic Games

This section now focuses on Paralympic legacies that are not easily perceptible and observable. These legacies include attitudes towards disabled people as a result of hosting the Games, the impact of the Games on grassroots sport participation, and the media coverage of elite athletes with disabilities (EAWD).

2.12.1 Paralympic Games and attitudes towards disabled people

Previous hosts have attempted to use the Games as a way of increasing disability awareness and to positively change perceptions of disabled people (Cashman 2006; Gold and Gold 2007). It has been suggested the Paralympic Games has the potential to engender positive social change (Weed and Dowse 2009), but where is the evidence for these claims and how successful have previous hosts been in achieving this? Legg and Steadward (2011b) cite Dr Whang, a senior figure in Korean disability and Paralympic sport, who believed the hosting of the Seoul 1988 Paralympic Games produced significant positive changes, in a short period of time, to how disabled people are perceived in Korea. Reichhart, Dinel and Schantz (2008) offer some tentative evidence for the Athens 2004 Paralympic Games positively changing attitudes towards disabled people amongst children who attended the event. In addition, the Beijing 2008 Paralympic Games played an important role in the way disabled people are viewed in Chinese society (Sun et al. 2011). The impact is strongest in the urban and rich areas of China, however, with the reach of the Games minimal in rural and poor areas of China (Sun et al. 2011). Furthermore, positive changes in attitudes towards disabled people were apparent following the London 2012 Paralympic Games (BBC Sport 2013b; EFDS 2012). A survey by CBBC Newsround (2013) in July 2013 reported half of the children in its sample, which featured eight to twelve-year-olds, found the Paralympic Games to be more inspiring than the Olympic Games. In addition, seventy per cent of respondents were of the opinion that the London 2012 Paralympic Game positively changed their attitudes towards disabled people (CBBC Newsround, 2013). Coates and Vickerman (2016) suggested that the self-efficacy of young disabled people may have positively been influenced by the Paralympics. Eight young people were interviewed by the authors, with three themes emerging from the research: Paralympians as positive role-models; changed perceptions of disability; and the motivational nature of the LPG (Coates and Vickerman 2016). There was a sense of relatedness between participants and Paralympians, whereby the achievements of the Paralympians resonated with the interviewees because of possessing a similar impairment (Coates and Vickerman 2016). In addition, some of the research participants had improved their self-efficacy and self-determination as a result of watching the LPG (Coates and Vickerman 2016). Though individual sports participation of the interviewees had not increased, these individuals felt more confident should they choose to participate in sport in the future (Coates and Vickerman 2016). The influence of Paralympic stimuli for positive attitudinal

change is supported by Ferrara, Burns and Mills' (2015) findings. Ferrara, Burns and Mills (2015) suggest the influence of Paralympic or Olympic stimuli is able to positively influence attitudes towards people with intellectual disabilities, at least in the short-term. Although Ferrara, Burns and Mills' (2015) findings are encouraging, it is important to note a few points regarding the study. The respondents were limited to the university they attended and the participants already had or were likely to have an interest in sport and or disability. It is, therefore, unclear if this positive attitudinal change would occur in people without an interest in sport or disability, and in the wider population.

Most of the evidence for attitudinal change reported thus far lacks strong empirical evidence, and the findings should be treated with caution. Doubts persist about the ability of the Paralympic Games to bring about lasting positive disability awareness (LERI 2007). Simply hosting the Paralympic Games is unlikely to be able to provide enduring positive attitudinal change (Britain and Beacom 2016; Cashman 2006); other initiatives need to be enacted and leveraged alongside the hosting of the Games (EFDS 2012). The studies highlighted so far have not tracked attitudinal change over a period of time, and longitudinal research is needed to effectively assess the capability of the Paralympic Games to engender lasting change. There is some evidence from the LPG that the impact of the Games on attitudes towards disabled people may have been temporary. The LPG has been unable to produce transformative positive social change for the everyday disabled person in the United Kingdom, because of various contextual factors, such as austerity measures and negative media coverage, inhibiting the potential of the Paralympic social legacy (Brittain and Beacom 2016). The Paralympic Games is, therefore, not the vehicle for achieving wide-ranging and lasting social change for disabled people (Brittain and Beacom 2016). The London Games were celebrated as being a success in positively changing disability attitudes (BBC Sport 2013b), but research by Opinium for the charity Scope, casts doubt on the enduring nature of this 'celebrated' change. In a survey of 1,014 disabled people (Opinium 2013), eighty-one per cent of disabled people said they had not experienced an improvement in public attitudes since the 2012 Paralympic Games (Scope 2013). Moreover, twenty-two per cent had in fact suggested attitudes had worsened (Scope 2013). Eighty-four per cent of the sample blamed the lack of progress in attitudinal change on the 'benefit claims' rhetoric pursued in some sections of the British press (Scope 2013). This is supported by Crow's (2014) visual inquiry analysis of the British media images from the summer of 2012. Crow suggests that extreme depictions of disabled people as 'superhuman' and 'benefit scrounger' were prominent in the British media in the summer of 2012. These extreme images, it is argued, further embedded unhelpful and negative stereotypes of disabled people in the minds of those who consume these media, distorting the reality of what it means to be disabled (Crow 2014).

From the available evidence, it would appear a temporary positive attitudinal change following the Paralympic Games may be evident, but the longevity and sustainability is questionable.

2.12.2 Grassroots sport participation legacies from previous Paralympic Games

There is little evidence to suggest the Olympic Games can increase grassroots sport participation on its own, but even less empirical evidence about the ability of the Paralympic Games to do so (Misener et al. 2013; Smith and Fleming 2011). Pappous and Brown (2018) identified empirically weak examples of increased sport participation following the Paralympic Games, but the authors were unable to support, based on the available empirical evidence, claims that the Paralympic Games can increase the grassroots sport participation of disabled people. However, there is some tentative evidence that suggests possible sport participation increases following the Paralympic Games. Anecdotal evidence is provided by Sarah Storey (BBC Sport 2013b), who claimed more disabled people participated in sport following the London 2012 Paralympics. It is hinted by Coward and Legg (2011) that the Vancouver 2010 Winter Paralympics paved the way

for potential increases in grassroots sport participation. This was through the Vancouver Organising Committee's brokering of partnerships with organisations that might benefit grassroots sport, but no data is provided that can confirm if these partnerships made a noticeable difference on sport participation. Some positive impacts on grassroots disability sport in Britain was observed by Tim Hollingsworth, Chief Executive Officer of the British Paralympic Association (cited in Walker and Topping 2013). Paralympic sports, rather than inclusive sports, showed increases in activity suggestive, but not causative, of increases in grassroots sport participation (Hollingsworth, cited in Walker and Topping 2013). As it has become clear, there is a dearth of empirical evidence suggesting positive changes to grassroots disability sport following Paralympic Games.

Darcy and Cashman (cited in Darcy and Appleby 2011) point to increases in funding for Australian Paralympic sport, but of the total funding available, only fifteen per cent was for grassroots sport in 2006/7. The marginalised funding of grassroots sport compared to elite disability sport is echoed by findings from Sun et al. (2011), with the funding mainly restricted to elite, urban, and rich areas of China, with grassroots, rural and poor areas of China underfunded in comparison. The impact of the London 2012 Games on grassroots disability sport participation is unclear. Research by the Sport and Recreation Alliance (Sport and Recreation Alliance 2013) discovered eighty-nine per cent of sport clubs surveyed in the UK had seen no change in the number of disabled people joining their club, whilst eighty-six per cent had not observed a change in the number of enquiries from disabled people about participating. In addition, disability specific clubs in the UK were less likely to have experienced an increase in their membership following the London 2012 Games (EFDS 2013). This is in opposition to research by the EFDS (EFDS 2012) in October 2012, which suggested a high proportion of disabled people (79%) were interested in participating in sport and exercise. This could be a result of the methodology and sample used by the EFDS, as there could have been a disproportionately high number of their sample, compared to the UK, already interested or participating in sport and exercise.

Claims about the impact of mega-events such as the Paralympic Games in boosting grassroots sport participation do not appear to be supported by empirical evidence, and the Paralympic Games do not seem to engender any noticeable positive changes.

2.13 Media coverage of Elite Athletes with disabilities (EAWD) from previous Paralympic Games

EAWD have often been portrayed in terms fitting the medicalised narrative of disability (Braye, Dixon and Gibbons 2013; Thomas and Smith 2003). Brittain (2012) argues the early days of British coverage of the Paralympic Games portrayed athletes as people to pity rather than to celebrate their sporting achievements. Gilbert and Schantz (2012a), in their metasynthesis of findings into media coverage of Paralympic Games, believe there is discrimination against Paralympians by the media and society, mainly stemming from Paralympians not conforming to the perceived body ideal and norms associated with Olympic athletes. The media have often depicted Paralympians as being, what is termed in the literature, as 'supercrips' (Crow 2014; Gilbert & Schantz 2012a; Howe 2011; Silva and Howe 2012). The 'supercrip' can be thought as a '...a stereotyping process that requires an individual "to fight against his/her impairment" in order to overcome it and achieve unlikely "success"' (Silva and Howe 2012, p. 175). The supercrip narrative can be a source of inspiration for some aspiring athletes who fit the narrative (Berger 2008; Silva and Howe 2012), but the predominant view in the literature is that for the 'average' disabled person the supercrip narrative is potentially disempowering as it represents a distorted and unrealistic representation of disability (Crow 2014; Gilbert and Schantz 2012a; Howe 2011; Silva and Howe 2012).

Paralympians have traditionally received less media coverage than their Olympic counterparts (Brittain 2012; Gilbert and Schantz 2012b; Golden 2003). For example, the earliest television coverage of the Paralympic Games in Britain was the 1980 Games in Arnhem (Brittain 2012). The Salt Lake City 2002 Winter Paralympic Games received significantly less media coverage than the Olympics in American newspapers, and there was a substantial drop in the number of journalists covering the event compared to the Olympics (Golden 2003). The media coverage of Paralympians is also dependent on the type of impairment they have, with athletes whose impairment fit the supercrip narrative likely to receive more media coverage than athletes with severe impairments that do not conform to the supercrip ideal (Gilbert and Schantz 2012a; Howe 2011). Research suggests the media coverage of female athletes in Spain, England, Germany, France, and Greece, from the Sydney 2000 Paralympics to the Beijing 2008 Paralympics, is representative of the gender split of the Paralympians at the Games (70% male and 30% female) (Pappous, Marchellini and de Léséleuc 2011a). Pappous, Marchellini and de Léséleuc (2011a) argue the unequal coverage of female athletes is through their under-representation in the Paralympic squads, not through a male-biased media in these countries.

There is some evidence that media coverage is beginning to focus on the abilities of the Paralympians rather than their impairments. Thomas and Smith (2003) found some evidence for Paralympians being reported in traditional sport reporting terms, with the entertainment factor of the Paralympic Games visible during Channel Four's 'Meet the Superhumans' campaign (Ellis 2015). Bruce (2014) found that nationalism plays an important role in the quality of reporting, with New Zealand Paralympians receiving higher quality coverage and their disability minimised by the New Zealand press, whereas foreign athletes received inferior coverage and were reported in stereotypical ways where the disability and difference were featured more prominently. Hosting the Games can impact positively on the media coverage received (Pappous, Marchellini and de Léséleuc 2011), such as the media coverage for the London 2012 Paralympic Games, which is thought to have positively changed the perception of Paralympic sport (Cockroft 2015).

Is it possible media coverage of the Paralympics is moving closer to what DePauw conceptualised as '(In)Visibility of DisAbility in Sport', whereby athletes are visible for their sporting ability rather than their disability (DePauw 1997)? There may have been some progress, but much more work needs to be done to ensure fairer media coverage for EAWD compared to their non-disabled counterparts (Gilbert and Schantz 2012b). Whilst, relatively speaking, the quantity of media coverage for Paralympians may have increased, the quality still needs to improve (Pappous, Marchellini and de Léséleuc 2011b), and not be limited to home nation athletes (Bruce 2014).

2.14 The Paralympic Games viewed as an elite sporting competition

A relatively recent theme emerging from the literature is the notion the Paralympic Games is now viewed as an elite sporting competition first and foremost, rather than being about rehabilitation. This process is thought to have begun at the Seoul 1988 Paralympic Games (Legg and Steadward 2011b). In addition, Coward and Legg (2011) argue that the disability element is becoming less important, and that the sporting aspect of the Games is coming to the fore, arguing '...Vancouver may be...the defining moment when the Paralympic Games moved from being about athletes with disability to simply about ability' (Coward and Legg 2011, p. 132). Supporting this idea is research conducted by EFDS (2012) in October 2012, which indicated there had been an increase in the number of non-disabled people interested in watching the Paralympics before London 2012 (73%) compared to after the Games (80%). Furthermore, Rose (2013) notes the fame of athletes such as Jonnie Peacock and Ellie Simmonds increased significantly after the 2012 Games. Brittain and Beacom (2016) believe the LPG has benefited the profile and status of Paralympic sport in the UK.

The evidence presented thus far on this legacy theme is mainly anecdotal. Empirical research needs to be undertaken into this area before one can assert with confidence there has been a shift in the perception of Paralympic sport, but there are promising signs.

2.15 The Paralympic Games: empowering or disempowering?

The Paralympic Games has been criticised as being a false and unrealistic representation of disability (Braye, Dixon and Gibbons 2013; Purdue and Howe 2012a). The elevation of Paralympians to superhuman status, it could be argued, ‘...undermines disabled people who cannot conform to its exacting standards’ (Crow 2014, p. 172). The Paralympic Games may provide role-models that empower some individuals, but its ability to empower individuals with impairments not catered for in the Games has been questioned (Howe and Silva 2018; Purdue and Howe 2012a). This is especially the case if some nations view the Paralympics as being disability sport (Howe and Silva 2018). This is because the vast majority of disabled people would be excluded and not afforded opportunities to participate in sport, as most disabled people do not have impairments that meet the classification criteria for the Paralympics (Howe and Silva 2018). Using the Paralympic Games as a way of increasing participation is flawed, as the Paralympic Games, by definition, is an exclusive event and is not inclusive (Howe and Silva 2018). It has also been argued the Paralympic Games disempowers some EAWD. Purdue and Howe (2012b) argue that if the IPC is attempting to position the Paralympic Games as an elite sporting competition, some impairment groups may be marginalised. This is because these EAWD may be perceived as being less athletic and their sporting excellence harder to identify by a non-disabled audience (Purdue and Howe 2012b). If this were to occur, the athletes at the Paralympic Games might not be relatable to disabled people in general (Purdue and Howe 2012b). For athletes not able to utilise the technology available to the supercrip, EAWDs may be disempowered because their sporting excellence will not be celebrated to the same extent (Howe 2011).

There is a suggestion in the literature that the Paralympic Games may be a disempowering tool for disabled people and for EWAD who do not conform to the supercrip narrative.

2.16 Critical assessment of the London 2012 Paralympic Games legacy themes

Unlike the Olympic Games, there was a lack of specific legacy planning for the LPG before 2010 (Weed 2013), with potential social opportunities from the Games lost (Weed and Dowse 2009). It was only in 2010, having previously attracted criticism for the lack of specific legacy planning for the Paralympics (Weed 2013), that the former Labour government produced their legacy plans for disabled people (DCMS 2010). The 2010 document, titled ‘London 2012: A legacy for disabled people’ (DCMS 2010), set out three main legacy aims for disabled people in the UK. The three legacy aims were: to bring about lasting changes in how disabled people are viewed and positioned in society; to boost sport participation and physical activity of disabled people; and to improve business, transport, and employment opportunities for disabled people (DCMS 2010).

Did London 2012 deliver on its Paralympic legacy ambitions? It has been discussed previously in this review that positive attitudinal change may have been temporary and not sustained. The evidence for grassroots sport participation increases following the Games is weak, and Sport England’s Active People Survey, a national measure of sport participation, suggests a decline in disability sport participation. There has been a statistically significant decrease in the number of disabled people aged 14+ participating in sport once a week from the period of October 2012 - October 2013 (19.7%), compared to the participation figures for October 2016 (17.3%) (Active People Interactive 2017). This does not suggest the LPG has had a sustainable positive impact

on grassroots disability sport. Paralympic sport and its athletes appear to enjoy a higher profile today than they did before the Games (Brittain and Beacom 2016; Cockroft 2015; EFDS 2012; Rose 2013), however, and this appears to be a positive legacy from the London 2012 Games. Unfortunately, the sustainability of any positive changes emanating from the Paralympic Games for disabled people in the UK appears to be weak.

2.17 What has been learned about Paralympic legacy?

It is clear from the review of the Paralympic Games legacies that there is lack of empirical evidence. Much of the evidence reported is based on anecdotal or post-hoc evidence and there needs to be more evidence-based studies into the legacies of Paralympic Games. More longitudinal studies that track legacy impacts over a number of years are also needed. The lack of empirical evidence for Paralympic legacies is reflected in the identification of a number of intangible legacies compared to tangible legacies. It would also appear the impact of the Paralympic Games on the lives of disabled people does not necessarily match the rhetoric and promises of organising committees; positive effects may be temporal. It is important to note, however, that until the 2010 Vancouver Winter Paralympic Games, there had been a lack of consideration of legacy incorporated into the planning of the Games. Thus, Paralympics prior to that date are unlikely to have leveraged opportunities from the Games because of an unawareness of potential opportunities that may have existed. Organisers of Paralympic Games are now wiser to this potential, but it remains potential at this stage, which is why more research into Paralympic legacies is needed to build the evidence base.

2.18 Summary of chapter

MSEs often flatter to deceive if the purpose of hosting the MSE is to increase grassroots sport participation. The findings from this literature review suggest that MSEs, on their own, are unlikely to provide the stimulus required to motivate an individual to participate in more sport. If an MSE is to be successful in increasing grassroots sport participation this is likely to be because the demonstration effect has been leveraged. The findings from the literature review are consistent in emphasising the need for MSEs to be leveraged if the demonstration effect is to be effective (Weed et al. 2015). According to the literature review, it would appear that despite the need to leverage MSEs, organisers rarely sufficiently leverage the MSE for increased sport participation. MSEs appear to hold a mythopoeic (Coalter 2007b; Hughes 2013) power over event organisers in their ability to impact sport participation behaviour change at the grassroots level. Knowledge of grassroots sport participation legacies stemming from hosting the summer Paralympic Games is weak (Pappous and Brown 2018). This has been a neglected area of research by scholars and therefore current understanding of the impact a Paralympic Games can have on sport participation of disabled people is underdeveloped (Pappous and Brown 2018). Some scholars contend that the Paralympic Games is too detached from the everyday experiences of most disabled people to be able to truly change sport participation behaviours at the grassroots level (Braye, Dixon and Gibbons 2013; Brown and Pappous 2018a). Indeed, the Paralympic Games is open to specific impairment categories only and is therefore unlikely to be an effective method of increasing grassroots sport participation (Howe and Silva 2018). A gap in understanding of how a Paralympic Games might be used to increase grassroots sport participation of disabled people was thus discovered (Misener et al. 2013; Pappous and Brown 2018). This research will fill this gap by evaluating a specific Paralympic Games, the LPG, and the mechanisms and contexts that either facilitate or prevent increased grassroots sport participation from occurring.

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter will elucidate the methodological approach taken to answer the research questions outlined in the introduction. The chapter begins with a discussion of the research strategy and paradigm guiding the inquiry. The realist evaluation is then introduced and demonstrated to be a rigorous framework to use for the aims of this research. The methods used to collect the data, and the procedures used for the studies, are presented. The ethical process the researcher undertook in the collection and analysis of the data is then explained. Finally, the limitations of the research design are presented.

3.1 Research strategy

Research strategies represent the logic of how the research is conducted (Blaikie 2007, 2010). For the aims of this research, the retroductive research strategy is deemed the most appropriate strategy to adopt. Retroductive research is well suited to evaluative work and places importance in uncovering the mechanisms that operate in particular contexts to produce the regularity (Blaikie 2007; Pawson and Tilley 1997). Researchers adopting this approach have a view of causation that departs from that of inductivists or deductivists. Inductivists and deductivists adopt a successionist view of causation. Thus, A, or an appropriate intervening or moderating variable, will lead to B being produced (Blaikie 2007). Retroductive researchers reject the successionist view of causation adopted in the inductive and deductive research strategy. For retroductive researchers, causation is generative, thus there is an acceptance that A may not lead to B because of A. Rather, A may be influenced by an unseen and underlying mechanism, C, which interacts with structures to account for the regularity (Pawson and Tilley 1997). Retroductive researchers first model the regularity in order to get an understanding of the research problem under investigation (Blaikie 2007). Theory is then used to propose the possible mechanisms and contexts that interact to explain and account for the regularity. The retroductive researcher goes through an iterative process of refining the mechanisms and contexts working together until the relevant mechanisms and contexts have been established that provide the most appropriate explanation for the regularity (Pawson and Tilley 1997). The idealised version of retroductive research is thought to be suitable for the natural sciences, but might be more difficult to implement in the social sciences (Blaikie 2007). The iterative nature of the retroductive research strategy can therefore help expose the causes and contexts that have been conducive to the success or failure of the LPG sport participation legacy.

Having established that the retroductive research strategy will be used for this research, it is now important to outline the ontological and epistemological assumptions inherent in this research. This is because it is not possible to be completely objective when undertaking research, as the researcher will possess certain views as to the make-up of reality and how knowledge is generated, whether the researcher is aware of their views or not (Blaikie and Priest 2017). Thus, the interpretation of research outcomes is always influenced by ontological and epistemological assumptions held by the researcher; therefore, it is important to acknowledge them and to state these clearly for the reader to be aware of (Blaikie and Priest 2017). The following section will therefore espouse the ontological and epistemological position of the researcher. In addition, the research paradigm used to frame the research will be discussed and reviewed.

3.2 Ontological position

Ontology is the understanding of how social reality is created and experienced (Blaikie 2007). This research adopts a depth realist ontology (Blaikie 2007). The depth realist ontology is so named because reality is viewed as being stratified and possessing ontological depth (Bhaskar 1978; Blaikie 2007). Reality is thought to consist of three domains: the empirical, the actual, and the real (Bhaskar 1978). The empirical domain is what can be perceived by the human senses and how the world is experienced. The actual domain contains events that may not be detected or acknowledged by the human senses, but these events exist and occur regardless of whether we can observe them. Finally, the real domain is where underlying mechanisms interact with structures and contexts to generate the events that are experienced in the empirical domain (Blaikie 2007). The events are, however, contingent on the interaction of mechanisms and contexts being conducive (Pawson and Tilley 1997). The objective of researchers adopting this ontology is to uncover the underlying mechanisms and structures that interact to produce the regularity under investigation (Blaikie 2007). Reality is either comprised of material and unobservable structures (Bhaskar 1979), or socially produced through the cognitive reasoning brought to bear by social actors (Harré 1977).

Having reviewed the ontology that guides this research, the epistemological position associated with the depth realist ontology will be discussed.

3.3 Epistemological position

Epistemology is a branch of philosophy that focuses on how knowledge is created or can be understood by actors (Blaikie 2007; Bryman 2012). According to Crotty (1998), epistemology enables a determination of how knowledge can be produced and how it can be judged to be trustworthy. Thus, epistemology, in the social sciences, refers to how we can be sure the knowledge about the social world is reliable (Blaikie 2007). This research utilises a neo-realist epistemology (Blaikie 2007). Neo-realism is the epistemological component to the depth realist ontology (Blaikie 2007). Neo-realist epistemology is therefore concerned with identifying and explaining the underlying mechanisms and contexts that sustain the regularity (Blaikie 2007). Neo-realism rejects the empiricist view of causation. The generative view of causation inherent within neo-realism posits that A does not simply lead to B. Instead, outcomes are produced as a result of underlying mechanisms operating within the necessary contextual conditions (Pawson and Tilley 1997). Thus, regularities may not occur due to unreceptive contextual conditions for the required mechanisms (Pawson 2013), or competing mechanisms may neutralise each other (Blaikie 2007). This epistemology requires researchers to sometimes postulate mechanisms that may not be observable, with the researcher's role to uncover the mechanisms and contexts that help stimulate the successful operation of the mechanisms (Blaikie 2007).

3.4 Research paradigms

A research paradigm binds complimentary epistemological and ontological positions together (Blaikie 2007). The selection of a research paradigm plays an important role in the methods used to collect and analyse data (Blaikie and Priest 2017). This research adopts a critical realist research paradigm. If neo-positivism and interpretivism can be viewed as operating at two ends of a continuum, critical realism is located between the approaches (Westhorp 2014). There are many variants of realism discussed in the literature, but the main branch of realism in the social sciences is that of critical realism. Critical realism is an approach which recognises the existence

of a 'real world' outside of human perception, but also accepts that our understanding of knowledge is filtered through individual perspectives (Maxwell 2012). Critical realism is thus a mind-independent, fallibilist approach to social science (Sayer 2000). If knowledge was infallible, then it would not be possible for our own expectations to be confounded, or for accidents to occur, therefore the fallibility of knowledge is why realism '...justifies us in believing that the world exists regardless of what we happen to think about it.' (Sayer 2000, p. 2). The aim of a critical realist paradigm is to identify and explain underlying causal mechanisms, and the contexts in which these mechanisms operate (Pawson and Tilley 1997; Sayer 2000).

All realists share an understanding of ontology being stratified, but there have been disagreements regarding social ontology (Blaikie 2007). Harré (1977) advocated a social constructionist ontology by focusing on the resources and cognitive reasoning participants had regarding the regularity, whereas Bhaskar (1979) prioritised the material structures that enable or inhibit mechanisms (Blaikie 2007). Critical realism has a depth realist ontology and a neo-realist epistemology. For realists, ontology is stratified, emergent, and generative (ATLAS. ti - Qualitative Data Analysis 2015). Most other approaches to the philosophy of science assume a flat ontology, but realism acknowledges that there are ontological layers (Sayer 2000). Causal powers are not only located in events, but also in objects and structures too, which provide the potential for the generation of events (Sayer 2010). These structures will have causal potential, but whether the causal potential of these structures is activated will depend on contextual conditions (Pawson and Tilley 1997). Not only is ontology stratified, but it is emergent too. In other words, the social world is in constant state of permanent self-transformation, or morphogenesis (Archer 1995). Two or more features or aspects can join together to create a new phenomenon, which possess properties that cannot be simplified to the level of its constituent parts (Sayer 2010). For realists, it is possible to be an ontological realist and an epistemological constructivist; it is possible to provide alternative valid interpretations of phenomena (Maxwell 2012). Knowledge is only ever partially understood; thus, realism values the interpretations of actors because scholars cannot claim to be in possession of an encompassing view of the world. An understanding of the relationship between agency and structure enables the critical realist to understand the complexity that exists in the world and helps promote an explanatory focus to research (ATLAS. ti - Qualitative Data Analysis 2015).

The critical realism paradigm is the most suited to the aims of this research. The ontological depth associated with this paradigm enables a deeper understanding and evaluation of the sport participation legacy of the LPG to emerge. Furthermore, the identification and explanation of underlying mechanisms, and the contexts that enable or disable them to activate, provides a more granular level of analysis. It is possible to therefore understand in what circumstances the sport participation legacy has been successful and not successful. But, more importantly, this paradigm provides the potential for understanding why the LPG increased the sport participation of some disabled people and not others. Therefore, there is an acceptance that the LPG will work for some, but not all, disabled people. By understanding the circumstances in which the LPG has been successful and unsuccessful in increasing disabled people's sport participation, this will assist in answering the final research question. Thus, this granular level approach will enable recommendations of using the Paralympic Games to increase sport participation to occur. It is the author's view that the aims of this research are best achieved through the use of the critical realist paradigm and the retroductive research strategy. The realist evaluation method will provide the framework for the research to be carried out, and this is where the discussion now focuses.

3.5 Realist evaluation method

This section introduces the method of evaluation that underpins this research: realist evaluation. An explanation of the central tenets of the realist evaluation method will be expounded. This will be followed by a detailed description of how one can conduct a realist evaluation of a social programme. Finally, some criticisms of the method are outlined.

3.5.1 What is the realist evaluation framework?

The method has been utilised in many fields, but originally it was predominately applied to studies focusing on crime (Jagosh, Tilley and Stern 2016). Indeed, the popularity of the method is evidenced by Pawson and Tilley's (1997) seminal work, '*Realistic Evaluation*', having been cited over five thousand times by scholars (Jagosh, Tilley and Stern 2016). Realist evaluation is a theory driven approach to evaluating social programmes (Marchal et al. 2014; Pawson and Tilley 2004). Programmes are thought to be the sum of participants' reasoning in response to the programme resources that are intended to provoke behaviour change (Astbury 2013; Pawson and Tilley 1997, 2004). Realists contend, however, that certain contextual conditions will be needed for the underlying mechanisms to operate successfully (Pawson and Tilley 1997; Tilley 2000). The LPG can be viewed as a social programme because one of the main aims of the LPG was to increase the sport participation of disabled people (Office for Disability Issues 2011). Thus, the LPG was viewed as a form of intervention to positively change the health of disabled people through increased sport participation. Viewed as a social programme, the LPG is therefore the sum of the reasoning of disabled people in response to resources provided by the LPG that were designed to increase disabled people's grassroots sport participation. Realist evaluation focuses on the open systems inherent in the social world, rather than the contrived nature of closed systems operationalised in laboratory experiments (Pawson and Tilley 1997; Tilley 2000). Realist evaluation is therefore argued to be consistent with how science is conducted in the real world (Pawson and Tilley 1997; Tilley 2000). Thus, the key question at the heart of the method is: 'What works for whom in what circumstances and in what respects, and how?' (Pawson and Tilley 2004, p. 2). For the purposes of this thesis, the core question of the realist evaluation method can be broken down into a series of questions:

What was it about the London 2012 Paralympic Games that worked in increasing the grassroots sport participation of disabled people in England? For whom was the 2012 Paralympics successful at increasing sport participation? What were the circumstances that enabled increased sport participation to occur? How did this occur?

3.5.2 How does the realist evaluation work in practice?

There are three broad operational phases in realist evaluation:

- An understanding of the underlying programme theory behind the intervention;
- Testing the applicability and utility of the programme theory;
- Refinement of the initial programme theory based on the results of the evaluation (Pawson and Tilley 2004; Punton, Vogel, Lloyd 2016).

Pawson and Tilley (1997) argue that, for the realist evaluator, the development and refinement of a programme theory is of equivalent importance to understanding the success of the programme. Due to the social nature of programmes and the bundle of assumptions that are contained within them, a theory of change will always be present explaining how the programme is intended to influence the behaviour of participants (Pawson and Tilley 2004). Thus, it is paramount to begin the evaluation with an identification of the underlying programme theory: the rationale behind the programme (Pawson and Tilley 2004). For the LPG and the intention to increase the grassroots sport participation of disabled people, the underlying

programme theory was heavily reliant on the demonstration effect. Bloyce and Lovett (2012) conducted a figurational analysis on the legacy documents of the 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games and discovered inspiration to be the main theme behind how increased sport participation would be achieved. Furthermore, Hughes (2013), as part of her realist evaluation thesis on the 2012 Olympic Games sport participation legacy, also identified the demonstration effect and the abstract notion of inspiration as being the hypothesised programme theory. The specific legacy documents for the LPG underline the reliance on inspiration and the demonstration effect (Bloyce and Lovett 2012; Hughes 2013). Indeed, Lord Sebastian Coe was clear in his speech to win the right to host the Games about the power of the Games to inspire people to participate in sport (Gibson 2009). It is clear, then, that the main programme theory behind the use of the London 2012 Paralympic Games for increased grassroots sport participation of disabled people in England was inspiration and the demonstration effect. The programme theory, as suggested in the legacy plans (DCMS 2010; Office for Disability Issues 2011), is offered below:

Increased sport participation will be achieved as a result of the inspiration derived from the achievements of GB Paralympians at the LPG. The inspiration generated by the GB Paralympians will increase a disabled person's self-efficacy and motivation to participate in sport, thus prompting participation in sport.

Once the programme theory has been identified, the realist evaluator must investigate the mechanisms and contexts behind the programme (Pawson and Tilley 1997). Mechanisms are important in a realist understanding of causation, but it has been a source of confusion for some researchers using realist evaluation (Astbury and Leeuw 2010; Dalkin et al. 2015). Pawson and Tilley (1997) suggest a mechanism is a theory of the reasoning and resources programme participants bring to bear when dealing with the programme. Mechanisms are therefore not the programme activities, but the interaction between participants' reasoning to the resources offered by a programme (Astbury and Leeuw 2010; Westhorp 2014). Mechanisms 'constitute the outcomes under research' (Pawson 2000, p. 295, italics in original). Due to the generative nature of mechanisms, they are often unobservable, and it is the task of the realist evaluator to determine their influences (Astbury 2013; Astbury and Leeuw 2010; Pawson and Tilley 2004). The stratified nature of reality that realists identify with, enables the possibility that mechanisms exist in a different level of reality than the empirical domain (Sayer 2010). Thus, mechanisms are likely to exist in the domain of the real, with the strategies of the programme occurring in the domain of the actual, and with data collection and testing from the evaluation being brought to bear in the empirical domain (Easton 2010; Punton, Vogel and Lloyd 2016; Westhorp 2014). Pawson and Tilley are instructive here:

Thus, when we explain a regularity generatively, we are not coming up with variables or correlates which associate one with the other; rather we are trying to explain how the association itself comes about. The generative mechanisms thus actually constitute the regularity; they are the regularity (1997, p. 67, italics in original).

It is important to appreciate that, though mechanisms may be hidden, this does not mean observable effects cannot be explained through the use of underlying mechanisms (Astbury and Leeuw 2010). For example, the force of gravity itself is not witnessed, but the effects it produces on objects can be witnessed and explained (Astbury and Leeuw 2010). There are a number of different types of mechanisms that can exist. Hedström and Swedberg (1998) created a typology to distinguish between three types of social mechanism: situational mechanisms, action-formation mechanisms, and transformational mechanisms. Situational mechanisms activate at the macro-to-micro level, and these mechanisms refer to how certain events can influence attitudes of individuals (Astbury and Leeuw 2010; Hedström and Swedberg 1998). Action-formation mechanisms are at the micro level, with this mechanism demonstrating the individual

choices and actions that produce a specific action to occur (Astbury and Leeuw 2010; Hedström and Swedberg 1998). Finally, transformational mechanisms occur at the micro-to-macro level, referring to how a collection of individuals and their actions enable a macro-level outcome to be produced (Astbury and Leeuw 2010; Hedström and Swedberg 1998). Hedström and Swedberg (1998) argue that there are four core principles of mechanisms: action, precision, abstraction, and reduction. Mechanisms are explained by the actions of individuals, rather than explanation being centred on variables (Hedström and Swedberg 1998). When attempting to explain social behaviour through the use of mechanisms, it is important to opt for a middle-range explanation, rather than an all-encompassing law (Hedström and Swedberg 1998). This is because knowledge is partial and our understanding is not complete (Pawson 2000); therefore, we should attempt to produce explanations based on specific phenomena (Hedström and Swedberg 1998). Mechanistic explanations should attempt to remove extraneous details and focus on the specific focus of interest (Hedström and Swedberg 1998). Finally, Hedström and Swedberg (1998) argue that a mechanistic explanation attempts to obtain a granular-level detail. Mechanistic explanations therefore should consist of all four of the principles– action, precision, abstraction, reduction – outlined by Hedström and Swedberg (1998).

Astbury and Leeuw define mechanisms as:

Mechanisms are underlying entities, processes, or structures which operate in particular contexts to generate outcomes of interest. There are three essential clues located in a “realist” reading of mechanisms. These are that:

1. Mechanisms are usually hidden;
2. Mechanisms are sensitive to variations in context; and
3. Mechanisms generate outcomes. (2010, p. 368, italics in original).

This definition of a mechanism has been expanded upon by Lacouture et al. (2015), who argue mechanisms involve the reasoning and response of social actors to resources provided by the programme, and that mechanisms change within open social systems. Lacouture et al.’s expanded definition of a mechanism is:

A mechanism is hidden but real...A mechanism is an element of reasoning and reactions of (an) individual or collective agent(s) in regard of the resources available in a given context to bring about changes through the implementation of an intervention...A mechanism evolves within an open space-time and social system of relationships (2015, p. 8).

Dalkin et al. (2015) argue that two refinements need to be made to the way mechanisms have been conceptualised by Pawson and Tilley (1997): disaggregating resources from reasoning; and to cease viewing mechanisms firing in a binary nature, but instead to view mechanisms as operating on a continuum. Dalkin et al. (2015) have proposed an alteration to the $C + M = O$ formula suggested by Pawson and Tilley (1997). Instead, it would be more fruitful to evaluate the impact of the programme resources being introduced into a context, which leads to changes in the reasoning of social actors. This then influences their behaviour, resulting in the outcome (Dalkin et al. 2015). Thus, the revised formula is '**M (Resources) + C -> M (Reasoning) = O**', with programme resources and the reasoning of actors dealt with individually (Dalkin et al. 2015, p. 4, bold in original). Though both reasoning and resources form a mechanism, disentangling them from one another enables the researcher to differentiate between a mechanism and context (Dalkin et al. 2015). Human reasoning and complex social programmes are unlikely to be of a binary activation or non-activation; therefore, mechanisms and their operation should be viewed as being on a continuum (Dalkin et al. 2015). Thus, the mechanism slides up or down the continuum depending on the contextual conditions (Dalkin et al. 2015).

It should be clear that mechanisms produce the outcomes of interest for research (Hedström and Swedberg 1998). Mechanistic explanations enable the researcher to understand why an

outcome has occurred and the causes for the outcome (Hedström and Swedberg 1998). The operation of mechanisms, however, is contingent on the contextual conditions being conducive (Hedström and Swedberg 1998; Pawson and Tilley 1997, 2004). Regardless of whether the context is favourable, mechanisms are always present; whether they are dormant or active depends on the contextual conditions (Pawson and Tilley 1997; Pawson 2013). Social programmes only work because mechanisms ‘fire’ in the necessary contextual conditions (Pawson and Tilley 1997, 2004). An appreciation for the role of context interacting with mechanisms cannot be understated. Pawson and Tilley (1997, p. 69, italics in original) suggest, ‘...it is the *contextual conditioning* of causal mechanisms which turns (or fails to turn) causal potential into causal outcomes’. Context does not mean locality, as that forms just one part of context (Pawson and Tilley 2004). Context also includes aspects that might be important for the programme mechanisms such as biological, interpersonal and social relations, technological conditions, economic conditions, and so on (Pawson and Tilley 2004). In the original question driving the realist evaluation method that was established earlier, context is relevant to the ‘for whom and in what circumstances’ aspect of realist evaluation (Pawson and Tilley 2004). Context refers to the determination of the conditions that are needed in order for the programme mechanisms to be triggered (Tilley 2000). Programme mechanisms enter a social system comprising pre-existing mechanisms and contexts (de Souza 2013; Pawson and Tilley 1997). It is therefore important for the researcher to be aware of how the programme mechanisms influence and interact with the pre-existing mechanisms and contextual conditions, since social programmes can only transform the existing contextual conditions (de Souza 2013). de Souza argued that context can be thought of as:

...relatively enduring and are what social programs aim to transform (rather than reproduce) by activating various structural, cultural, agential and relational mechanisms to produce various outcomes. (2013, p. 142)

de Souza (2013) has argued that context can be broken down into a number of different aspects: structure, culture, agency, and relations. Within each individual aspect of the context there will be generative mechanisms that might be reconfigured depending on the interplay between the mechanisms and the aspect of the context (de Souza 2013). Structure refers to the ‘sets of internally related objects (which may be physical, material resources) and practices (carried out by human resource)’ (de Souza 2013, p. 144). Mechanisms within this aspect of context may transform or reproduce roles and positions, practices, the resources available, and processes (de Souza 2013). Culture refers to the interchange and interaction of ideas leading to potential action of individual actors (de Souza 2013). Mechanisms may transform or reproduce, but not change, culture through the ideas held by actors about structure, culture, agency and relations (de Souza 2013). Agency refers to the ability of actors to be active or non-active in response to structural and contextual conditions (de Souza 2013). This aspect of context, and the generative mechanisms contained within this domain, can transform or reproduce the beliefs and reasons of agents for being active or non-active (de Souza 2013). Finally, relations refer to the notion of society being relational, in terms of the position of one actor compared to the other (de Souza 2013). de Souza (2013) provides the example of an individual being perceived as a teacher only because of their relation to another individual who is considered to be a student. Mechanisms within this aspect can transform or reproduce the duties and responsibilities of the actor, their rights, and the power dynamic between actors (de Souza 2013).

It is clear the interaction and interplay between context and programme mechanisms greatly influences the potential behaviour change of participants. For the LPG, the contextual conditions and factors to be aware of are considerably complex. As the right to host the Games was confirmed in 2005 and the seven-year gap between the delivery of the Paralympics, there is clearly a great deal of contextual conditions that would have been reproduced and transformed during the build-up to the LPG in relation to the programme mechanisms. In addition, the

programme mechanisms of the LPG during the event, and subsequently after the event, will have been of a complex and emergent quality too. It is apparent that the contextual factors associated with the mechanisms of the London 2012 Paralympic Games are considerably complex and detailed to understand.

The interaction between programme mechanisms and contextual conditions will produce a number of different outcomes. In realist nomenclature, an outcome is known as a regularity (Pawson and Tilley 1997). The aim of social research, from a realist evaluation perspective, is to explain social regularities through the investigation of the underlying generative mechanisms and their interplay with contextual conditions (Pawson and Tilley 1997). Outcomes include intentional and unintentional, as well as short, medium, and long-term changes brought about by the programme (Punton, Vogel, Lloyd 2016; Westhorp 2014). Outcomes are not the same as impact because impacts ordinarily refer to the resultant changes to people and their lives, whereas outcomes encompass a broader remit than that, with other micro and macro changes considered too (Westhorp 2014). It is possible therefore to have a number of different outcomes that have been produced because of the interactions between mechanisms and context, as 'realism does not rely on a single outcome measure to deliver a pass/fail verdict on a programme' (Pawson and Tilley 2004, p. 8). Consequently, there will be winners and losers from the programme, but it is understanding why and in what circumstances that this is the case, that is the thrust of the realist evaluation (Pawson 2013; Pawson and Tilley 2004). Thus, context-mechanisms-outcome configurations (CMOCs) provide the realist evaluator with the ability to explain how the programme has worked, for whom, in what circumstances, and how (Pawson and Tilley 1997, 2004). The aim of realist evaluation is therefore to produce a series of CMOCs that describe and explain how and what is needed for the programme to work, and what the interaction of mechanisms and contexts produces (Pawson and Tilley 1997, 2004). It is important that the contexts, mechanisms, and outcomes are configured, rather than presented separately, as the CMOCs provide the basis for data testing and analysis to take place:

...a CMOC is a hypothesis that the programme works (O) because of the action of some underlying mechanisms (M), which only comes into operation in particular contexts (C). *If the right processes operate in the right conditions then the programme will prevail...The action of a particular mechanism in a particular context will generate a particular outcome pattern.* (Pawson and Manzano-Santaella 2012, p. 184, italics in original).

Ideally, CMOCs are posited prior to the commencement of an evaluation, but it is possible for CMOCs to be formulated during an evaluation or once an evaluation has been concluded (Westhorp 2014). If CMOCs are posed retrospectively, CMOCs are viewed as being a result of the evaluation, rather than as part of the research design (Westhorp 2014).

For the LPG, there will be winners and losers. That is to say that there will have been some people that have increased their grassroots sport participation and some that did not. The aim of a realist evaluation method of the LPG would be to explain who benefitted from the LPG sport participation legacy, in what circumstances this occurred, in what respects, and how did this occur. The resultant CMOCs would then provide the foundation for a refined understanding of the scope and ability of the Paralympic Games to be able to increase the grassroots sport participation of disabled people.

3.5.3 How does one conduct a realist evaluation investigation?

Realist evaluation is a method neutral approach (Pawson and Tilley 2004); in fact, multiple data collection methods are encouraged in order to build comprehensive and specific CMOCs (Pawson 2013). The interview is the primary data collection method used by researchers employing the realist evaluation method (Manzano 2016). Manzano (2016) argues that despite

the popularity of the interview in realist evaluation studies, and the claim to be operating a realist ontology, many realist evaluators do not conduct interviews in a realist manner. The interview is often conducted in the traditional constructivist manner, with the interviewer adopting a passive role to ensure no undue impairment to the data generated. In contrast, realist interviews advocate for more involvement from the interviewer (Manzano 2016). Pawson and Tilley (1997) suggested a teacher learning cycle approach is adopted, whereby the interviewer teaches the interviewee the programme theory and elicits their responses to the proposed CMOCs. It has been suggested that qualitative techniques, such as the interview, may be more adept at uncovering the programme mechanisms (Marchal et al. 2014; Pawson 2013). Quantitative techniques are thought to be a more effective way of uncovering outcome patterns (Marchal et al. 2014; Pawson 2013). Contexts may be typically discovered using quantitative techniques (Marchal et al. 2014) but may require comparative and historical data (Pawson 2013), which could be obtained via qualitative techniques. Not all of the suggested CMOCs will be able to be analysed, but the CMOCs that provide the most robust explanation for the programme outcome patterns should be explored (Westhorp 2014). This will enable a granular level of analysis to occur (Pawson and Tilley 1997). Pawson and Tilley (1997) posit that a division of expertise amongst the stakeholders exist, but also that there is a hierarchy of expertise, but it is the researcher that is at the top of the hierarchy. Stakeholders will possess knowledge, to varying degree and applicability to the CMOC, but this knowledge is partial, because each stakeholder is unable to understand the whole story (Pawson and Tilley 1997). Thus, it is the researcher that produces the CMOC and collects data for the specific purpose of theory development and refinement for the programme (Pawson and Tilley 1997).

Realist evaluation has at its heart a basic formula guiding its orientation: context + mechanism = outcome (Pawson and Tilley 1997). This formula states that given the right context, allied to the necessary mechanisms, the programme outcomes will be achieved. If the context is not conducive for the activation of mechanisms, then the outcomes produced may not be the intended outcomes of the programme. By appreciating the different contextual factors and mechanisms, the researcher will be able to identify situations where the programme is successful and unsuccessful, but also be able to explain why this is the case. Researchers employing a realist evaluation follow a similar method to the 'wheel of science' (Wallace 1971), in that hypotheses are made, data collected based on the hypotheses, the data is then analysed, resulting in theory testing to refine the programme theory in preparation for future testing (Pawson and Tilley 1997, 2004). All programmes have an underlying idea driving how it will achieve the aims it sets out to achieve, known as the programme theory (Pawson and Tilley 1997). Having identified the programme theory or theories behind the programme, a series of if-then propositions are formulated in the form of context-mechanism-outcome configurations (Pawson and Tilley 2004). The CMOCs are configurations hypothesising the conditions and circumstances in which the programme theory will be relevant for the outcomes to be produced (Pawson 2013). Thus, the CMOCs enable the researcher to identify potential outcomes for sub-groups of the programme (Pawson and Tilley 1997). The CMOCs become the researcher's hypotheses that are to be tested by the collection of empirical evidence. Research designs are produced that test the CMOCs and data is collected based on these propositions. The data is then analysed to produce revised hypotheses, the CMOCs, specifying the conditions needed for the programme theory to work and for whom it works, and why (Pawson 2013; Pawson and Tilley 2004; Westhorp 2014). The 'wheel' is then repeated, either with a fresh data collection round if a multiphase evaluation is taking place, or for the next researcher evaluating a programme using a broadly similar programme theory (Pawson and Tilley 1997). This is because knowledge is only ever partial due to the complex social systems within which programmes are introduced and the changes that programmes can create (Pawson and Tilley 2004). Thus, middle-range theories that sit between universal laws and specific findings, should be attempted, with adjudication between rival explanations (Pawson 2000). The traditional

problem of attribution in evaluation research – how we can be sure a programme is responsible for the outcomes noted – is rejected by realism because programmes are acknowledged to be active (Pawson and Tilley 2004). It is the particular combination of mechanisms and context acting in concert that enables the outcomes to occur (Pawson and Tilley 2004). Attribution is still a concern, however, because it still could be difficult to understand which mechanism(s) are enabling outcomes to occur within specific contexts (Pawson and Tilley 2004). Pawson and Tilley (2004, p. 16, italics in original) suggest the attribution issue can be countered by using the phrase ‘make sense of’, as in ‘...we accept that action of a mechanism *makes sense of* the particular outcome pattern observed’.

3.5.4 Criticisms of the realist evaluation method

The realist evaluation method has been criticised by some scholars, most notably by the critical realist nursing researcher, Sam Porter (Porter and O’Halloran 2012; Porter 2015a, b). Porter (2015a) has criticised realist evaluation for conflating agency and structure within the notion of generative mechanisms, with the result that agency has not been afforded a valued role in the explanation of social issues. Porter (2015a) believes that there is a need to separate and distinguish between the role of mechanisms (viewed as relating to social structures) from that of agency. As a critical realist, Porter (2015a) views generative mechanisms from a Bhaskarian viewpoint, whereby social structures are the foundation for generative mechanisms and exist separately from the activities of social actors (Blaikie 2007). Realist evaluation’s positioning of generative mechanisms as being the combination of programme resources and the reasoning of actors in response to the programme, could be argued to be a way of bridging the internal differences between Bhaskar (1986) and Harré’s (2002) views of the causal potential of social structures (Blaikie 2007). It could be argued, therefore, that Porter (2015a) has imposed the Bhaskarian view of generative mechanisms as being the correct one, whereas realism contains internal differences regarding the composition and location of generative mechanisms (Blaikie 2007).

The current approach to realist evaluation of using the $C + M = O$ formula has been criticised for being too mechanical and process driven (Porter 2015a). Porter (2015a) argues that there is a need to focus on the human experience too, and that this is absent or neglected within realist evaluation at present. Consequently, it is important to add an additional ‘A’ to the left side component of the formula to account for the role of agency, in order for a suitable account of social life to occur (Porter 2015b). Porter (2015b) contends Pawson and Tilley (1997) have conflated social mechanisms under one banner, but that structure and agency need to be dealt with separately. According to Porter (2015b), Pawson and Tilley (1997) suggest causal powers lie exclusively in the domain of the individual (by suggesting that interventions do not work, but the interpretations of the participants enable them to work). Porter (2015b), on the other hand, argues that this interpretation of mechanisms dismisses the influence of social structures on the actions of individuals, and that causal powers can be in both structures and agents, as per Archer (1995).

Porter (2015b) points out that the distinction between mechanism and context suggested by Pawson and Tilley (1997) is ambiguous, which Porter (2015b) demonstrates by using the gun powder analogy favoured by Pawson and Tilley (1997). Through this analogy, Porter (2015b) argues that the separation of some of the conditions in the chemical composition of the gun powder into context and mechanism is illogical. This is because if both are required in order to react they would in fact be mechanisms (Porter 2015b). According to Porter (2015b), it is prudent to view context as being pre-existing mechanisms before the programme was introduced. The programme mechanisms are then the mechanisms that the programme aims to overcome or enhance the existing contextual mechanisms (Porter 2015b). Porter (2015b)

suggests a new formula for realist evaluation would therefore be: **Contextual Mechanisms + Programme Mechanisms + Agency = Outcome (CM + PM + A = O)**.

Porter and O'Halloran (2012) argue that realist evaluation fails to provide alternatives to the programme theory under investigation because it does not embrace the 'utopian' aspect of critical realism. By preferring to offer piecemeal (middle-range) options, realist evaluation is not able to provide the critical analysis of what future alternatives may exist (Porter and O'Halloran 2012). By ignoring the wider picture, realist evaluation solutions can be argued to be technocratic and appeasing programme managers (Porter and O'Halloran 2012). The Popperian element to realist evaluation, in which rival explanations are favoured rather than the utopian aspirations of critical realism, is not helpful to producing meaningful outcomes from realist evaluation research, according to Porter and O'Halloran (2012).

Pawson (2016) has responded to a number of criticisms levelled at realist evaluation made by Porter (2015b). Pawson demonstrates, by using his review of naming and shaming programmes, that his research outcomes do not pander to policy-makers and accept outcomes as givens, as was suggested by Porter (2015b). Instead, Pawson (2016) offers an explanation that is portable for future programmes of this ilk. Pawson (2016) argues that the morphogenic nature of the social world is accounted for in realist evaluation, pointing out that Archer was one of the writers to have influenced the foundations of the realist evaluation method (Pawson 2013). Pawson (2016) argues social programmes are always inserted into pre-existing systems that are fluid and changing. Regarding the modification to the realist evaluation formula offered by Porter (2015b), Pawson (2016) is sceptical for three reasons: Most of the new additions are already there (e.g. Pawson feels he has made the contextual mechanisms offered by Porter clear in his view of contexts); he does not want the formula to be followed mechanically by researchers (the original formula was supposed to signpost, rather than restrict); There are going to be too many things to explore for all the additions (Pawson 2016). Instead, Pawson advises the following:

The evaluator's task is thus to delve into a kaleidoscope of potential configurations and uncover the *pertinent* and *active* causal interconnections – those *specific* contexts which enable the action of a *particular* mechanisms and generate *distinctive* outcome patterns (2016, p. 137, italics in original).

Finally, Pawson (2016) believes Porter (2015b) has misrepresented the range of realisms available and that he is trying to move researchers like Pawson to a 'critical realism' that he favours.

3.6 Research design

This section details the research design used for the studies undertaken as part of the realist evaluation of the LPG grassroots sport participation legacy. First, the data types used in this research will be identified. The methods used to collect the data will then be explained, with the strengths and weaknesses assessed. For each method of data collection that was used, validity and reliability will be reviewed.

3.6.1 Types of data used

Three types of data are available to a researcher: primary, secondary, and tertiary (Blaikie 2010). Primary data is data generated and analysed by the researcher, secondary data is data that have been collected by another researcher, and tertiary data is data, either primary or secondary, that have been analysed by another researcher (Blaikie 2010). Unlike secondary and tertiary data, primary data enables the researcher to collect and analyse data for the specific aims of the research (Blaikie 2010). Secondary data is less time-consuming than primary data, but the

researcher may not be clear on how the data was collected, which might limit the data analysis options available to the researcher (Blaikie 2010). Blaikie (2010) cautions that tertiary data, due to a lack of understanding of the quality of the data, may increase the risk of inferences from the data being biased or distorted (Blaikie 2010). This research utilises all three data types, with primary data forming the majority of the data used. Table 2 provides an overview of the types of data used as part of this research.

Table 2: Data types used in this research.

Sources of evidence used in the research	Data type		
	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary
NGB participant and membership data	✓		
Semi-structured interviews	✓		
Online questionnaires	✓		
Active People Survey		✓	
Published literature on the grassroots sport participation legacy of the LPG			✓
NGB produced literature			✓

Having identified the data types that have been used in this research, a discussion of qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods data forms will be the focus of the next part of this section.

3.6.2 Qualitative data

Qualitative data is the collection and analysis of words (Blaikie 2010). The aim of qualitative research is to explore social phenomena from the perspective of participants involved in the phenomena of interest and in their natural settings (Creswell 2013). Qualitative research is primarily concerned with theory emerging from the data, rather than theory being tested at the outset, as is often the case in quantitative research (Bryman 2012). Multiple research paradigms can incorporate the use of qualitative research, though research methods are not paradigm-specific (Blaikie 2010).

Qualitative data can be collected by a variety of means, but the in-depth interview is considered to be the most commonly used tool of the qualitative researcher (Bryman 2012). The in-depth interview involves a one-to-one conversation between the interviewer and the interviewee regarding the research topic (Kvale 2007). There are two broad categories of qualitative interview: unstructured and semi-structured interviews (Bryman 2012). Unstructured interviews involve the researcher discussing the research topic with the participant without the aid of an interview guide or a list of questions (Bryman 2012). There may be a single question that triggers the start of the interview, but the questions posed by the interviewer are framed in relation to the interactions and content that occur during the interview (Bryman 2012). Semi-structured interviews involve the use of an interview guide by the researcher, with certain questions asked during the interview, but the interviewee has the freedom to answer the questions in whatever way they deem best (Bryman 2012). Similar questions will be used for all interviews, but there can be scope for exploration of specific topics related to the particular interviewee (Bryman 2012). The interviewer is interested in exploring the views, meanings, and attitudes participants hold towards the social phenomena, and aims to elicit rich responses through open-ended questions (Brinkmann and Kvale 2015; Kvale 2007). There are a number of different type of interviews that are available (Bryman 2012), and the selection of an interview

method will depend on the aims and paradigmatic considerations of the research (Blaikie 2010). For example, researchers interested in understanding the life of an individual may opt for a narrative interview (Creswell 2013). On the other hand, if the emphasis of the research is on exploring the essence of the participant's experience of a social phenomenon, a phenomenological interview might be the best option (Creswell 2013).

Kvale (2007) outlined seven stages of the interview process. This includes: thematising; designing; interviewing; transcribing; analysing; verifying; and reporting. Thematising refers to the rationale behind the research and what method is best to achieve the ambitions of the research. The designing stage is intended to understand the seven phases of the interview process before the interview is conducted, in order for the interview to capture and analyse the appropriate themes relevant to the study. Interviewing only occurs at the third stage of the interview process, according to Kvale (2007). In this stage of the process, the interview is undertaken based on an interview guide, with the interviewee and interviewer involved in knowledge production. Transcribing follows the interview, as this is necessary in order for the fifth stage of the interview process, the analysing phase, to begin. At the analysing stage, the relevant analysis procedures that will be most appropriate for the interview material will be decided. Verification follows the analysis stage and this is where the researcher aims to corroborate and confirm the interpretations gleaned from the analysis stage. The final phase of the interview process is when the interpretations from the interview are reported and communicated to the relevant audiences (Kvale 2007).

Semi-structured in-depth interviews were chosen for the first study of this thesis as they were considered to be the best tool to understand the key mechanisms and contexts behind the sport participation legacy of the London 2012 Paralympic Games. In-depth interviews were preferred over focus groups for a number of reasons. First, individual interviews enabled an in-depth exploration into the specific mechanisms and contexts for the participant's perspective on the LPG sport participation legacy. With focus groups there is a danger some individuals may be crowded out or unable to voice their opinion in detail because of vociferous co-participants. This threat was removed by using the in-depth interview. Second, a wide-range of organisational viewpoints were required in order to get a balanced perspective of the legacy, which would involve individuals critiquing and commenting on other organisations' performance with regards to the sport participation legacy. This was far more likely to occur if individuals could be confident their confidentiality would be protected so they could praise or criticise other organisations without fear of it implicating on them or their own employees. This would not have been possible using focus groups due to the interaction with individuals. Finally, the in-depth interview enabled questions specific to the interviewee to be explored in more detail, rather than generic questions. Analysing specific organisational documents and literature ahead of the interviews uncovered specific questions that could be explored with certain individuals, a process facilitated with the use of in-depth interviews rather than focus groups.

Sampling in qualitative research is different to that of quantitative research. It is often very difficult or impossible to achieve random samples in qualitative research, due to the resources and time available to the researcher, and the complexity of the social phenomena under investigation (Bryman 2012). Instead, qualitative researchers often desire access to a diverse array of individuals about the topic of interest, in order to better understand participant meanings (Bryman 2012; Maxwell 2012). Qualitative researchers therefore select participants based on their ability to provide detailed understanding of the relevant meanings and processes of the research topic (Maxwell 2012). A variety of non-random sampling techniques are available for the qualitative researcher to use. Purposive sampling is often used in qualitative research (Bryman 2012). Purposive sampling involves the researcher deliberately selecting units of analysis that are optimum for addressing the research questions (Bryman 2012). There is no guarantee, however, that the ideal units will be selected, because the technique is not fixed and

is subject to contextual influences (Maxwell 2012). Purposive sampling differs from convenience sampling, whereby units are included because of their opportunistic nature to the research aims, because of its strategic orientation (Bryman 2012). Qualitative researchers adopting purposive sampling aim to include the units that provide the best accounts of the research topic and multiple viewpoints, in order to get a diverse and balanced perspective (Blaikie 2010; Bryman 2012). Purposive sampling should therefore entail clear requirements as to why participants have been selected and included in the research (Bryman 2012). Snowball sampling involves the selection of participants based on the recommendation of participants, and this process is repeated until the researcher has reached saturation (Bryman 2012). With the use of snowball sampling, the researcher would have the possibility of exploring participant networks of hard-to-reach populations that might otherwise have been difficult to obtain (Blaikie 2010; Bryman 2012). This approach does have the potential disadvantage of including only those participants that are receptive to voicing their opinion on the research topic, thus potentially ignoring marginalised or underrepresented voices. Furthermore, it is possible that a biased account of the phenomena is produced because of the reliance on participant connections, which might mean participants are from similar backgrounds and/or hold equivalent opinions. Thus, diversity of opinions may be an issue with the snowball sampling technique (Black 1999; Bryman 2012).

Sampling size, in itself, is less of a concern for qualitative researchers compared to quantitative researchers (Blaikie 2010). For qualitative research, it is much more important that the generation of multiple and detailed insights emerge, than to simply get as many responses as possible without regard for input (Blaikie 2010). A common rule of thumb for qualitative research is to include as many participants as needed until saturation has been reached (Bryman 2012). Saturation refers to the notion that generation of new insights or concepts has been reached (Strauss and Corbin 1998). It is important to be mindful, therefore, that attaining saturation in a sample will yield different sample sizes for qualitative research due to the nature of a phenomenon (Miles and Huberman 1994). The nature of the method used will also influence the units included within the sample. For example, life history interviews, whereby intensive exploration of the individual's life is necessary (Creswell 2013), may have less individuals included in the sample than a researcher using in-depth interviews. This is because the life history interview may be able to get enough detailed description and explanations from fewer interviews than might be the case with in-depth interviews (Creswell 2013). Bryman (2012) recommends that researchers be clear on how the sampling strategy is used, the rationale behind it, and justifications for the units included, rather than be too preoccupied with the size of the sample.

3.6.2.1 Qualitative data analysis

Miles and Huberman (1994) argue qualitative data analysis consists of three broad phases: data reduction, data display, and conclusions and verifications. Data reduction condenses the stream of data into abstract components as part of the sense-making process (Miles and Huberman 1994). This will include the application of codes to data. A code is 'often a word or short phrase that symbolically assigns a summative, salient, essence-capturing, and/or evocative attribute for a portion of language-based or visual data' (Saldaña 2016, p.4). Coding is not simply a mechanical process, but is a form of analysis in itself, because of the need for the analyst to attribute meaning in the form of the code to sections of the text (Miles and Huberman 1994). Once data reduction has taken place, Miles and Huberman (1994) believe displaying the data is a significant component of qualitative data analysis. A data display enables the reader to understand often complex data in an easier to digest visual format through either a matrix or a network (Miles and Huberman 1994). Data displays assist the analyst to make sense of the vast amounts of data at their disposal, which can inform the next stage of data analysis: verification of conclusions drawn from data analysis. According to Miles and Huberman (1994), conclusions

are made in an iterative manner during analysis, but the competent analyst remains critical and sceptical of the conclusions and inferences that have been made. In order for the conclusions to be trustworthy and credible, verification tactics need to be used, constituting a dynamic relationship between conclusions and verifications (Miles and Huberman 1994). The qualitative data analysis process is not linear; it is a continuous activity (Miles and Huberman 1994).

3.6.3 Quantitative data

In quantitative research, data is in the form of numbers. Concepts are operationalised into variables that can be measured by the research instrument (Bryman 2012). The goal of quantitative research is often to be able to produce generalizable findings from the research sample to the population (Bryman 2012). For social scientists, the purpose of inferential analysis is predominantly to use tests of significance to explore relationships and patterns in the data (Blaikie 2003). For researchers aiming to extrapolate findings from their study to the population, simple random sampling is the preferred sampling procedure. Simple random sampling is a sample randomly chosen from the entire population (Black 1999). This sampling technique is viewed as being the ideal method for generalisation, particularly if the sample is diverse and representative (Black 1999). Simple random sampling is only possible if a complete list of the population members is available (Blaikie 2003), which is unlikely to be the case for many pieces of social research. It can also be time-consuming and expensive to operationalise simple random sampling (Black 1999). An alternative to simple random sampling is stratified random sampling. This technique involves generating a random sample that includes sub-groups of the population (Black 1999). This sampling method enables specific population groups to be included in the study, but this procedure is much more complex than simple random sampling (Black 1999). Purposive sampling can be used to ensure the number of participants meet the specific aims of the study, as purposive sampling involves the careful selection of subjects based on specific criteria (Black 1999). Purposive sampling is not random and therefore claims at representation of the population are difficult to achieve with this sampling method (Black 1999).

Structured interviews and self-completion questionnaires are often the methods used to collect data for surveys (Bryman 2012). Structured interviews involve a schedule of questions the interviewer will use to obtain data from participants, with the intention that the same context of questioning is carried out in each structured interview (Bryman 2012). The results from the structured interviews can then be analysed together in a reliable way because of the application of similar context for participants (Bryman 2012). Self-completion questionnaires, on the other hand, place the burden on the participants to complete the questionnaire themselves (Bryman 2012). Questionnaires can be administered by post, person, or online. Online questionnaires are not limited by geographical constraints and therefore enable a wide coverage of participants to be included in the study (Bryman 2012). Online questionnaires can also facilitate a more attractive appearance than might be the case with the paper format (Bryman 2012). In addition, online questionnaires provide the researcher the opportunity to filter participants from completing specific questions (Bryman 2012). Online questionnaire may suffer from low response rates and excludes the participation of individuals without access to the internet (Bryman 2012). This could mean that marginalised or underrepresented groups might not be able to participate in the online questionnaire, potentially harming the representativeness of the sample.

The criticisms of quantitative research are usually applied from researchers with an idealist ontology and constructionist epistemology (Bryman 2012). As such, quantitative research has been critiqued for failing to understand the complexity of the social world and the role this has in the experiences of participants (Bryman 2012). Furthermore, the measurement of social concepts has been thought to be contrived and lacking in accuracy, as concepts for social issues

are assumed rather than fact (Bryman 2012). Self-completion questionnaires can prevent the participant from expressing their true opinion if there is no space for participants to expand upon their view due to the pre-set nature of options available for participants to select.

3.6.3.2 Quantitative data analysis

In quantitative research researchers are often aiming to generalise the findings from their sample to the population. A number of parametric tests are available to the researcher and are mainly used to either explore relationships between variables or to detect differences between groups (Pallant 2016). For exploring relationships, the chi-square of independence test and principal components analysis (PCA) have been used. Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) and analysis of variance (ANOVA) have been used to test for differences between groups. These tests will now be explained in more detail.

The chi-square test for independence is used for ascertaining the association between two grouping variables (Pallant 2016). Chi-square is a cross tabulation table and provides an expected frequency count for the categories if no relationship existed and compares this with the frequency count for the number of cases in each category (Pallant 2016). The chi-square test for independence therefore enables the researcher to understand whether the different categories are significantly associated and any strength of this association (Pallant 2016).

PCA is a data reduction method. PCA is primarily concerned with explaining the most amount of variance with the least number of variables possible (Pallant 2016). PCA condenses data into clumps and aims to group variables into common components that can explain the data (Pallant 2016). Factor analysis is a common data reduction method and has many similarities with PCA (Field 2013). In factor analysis, the researcher is concerned with discovering the factors that have caused the variables of interest (Tabachnick and Fidell 2013). Two types of factor analysis can be undertaken: exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis (Pallant 2016). Exploratory factor analysis develops theory by uncovering the factors that are thought to cause the outcomes, whereas confirmatory factor analysis uses theory to test hypotheses about the basis for the variables of interest (Tabachnick and Fidell 2013). PCA differs from factor analysis because PCA is an empirical summary of the components that are responsible for the outcomes (Tabachnick and Fidell 2013). Thus, 'components are simply aggregates of correlated variables' and are not theory laden; components are descriptions of variables that are associated empirically (Tabachnick and Fidell 2013, p. 615).

Pallant (2016) argues there are three main steps in conducting a PCA:

- An assessment of the suitability of the data for PCA;
- Component extraction;
- Rotation of components and interpretation.

An assessment of the suitability of a PCA is usually based on the size of the sample and the strength of intercorrelations present in the data (Pallant 2016). No agreed standard exists for the minimum size of a sample to be suitable for conducting a PCA, but it is generally thought that larger samples are better (Pallant 2016). Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) believe a minimum sample size of 300 is satisfactory for PCA, but Pallant (2016) argues that smaller samples can be used provided there are a number of high component loadings. PCA is dependent on variables being related to each other, therefore it is important that the inter-correlations between variables are greater than .3, otherwise it is unlikely that PCA is an appropriate analysis tool to use (Pallant 2016; Tabachnick and Fidell 2013). Extracting components is a crucial step in a PCA. A number of extraction methods are available, but principal components is a common extraction method used by researchers (Pallant 2016). A number of methods are available to aid the

researcher in determining the number of factors to extract. A common extraction technique is to use Kaiser's criterion. This involves only retaining components that have an eigenvalue higher than 1, with components scoring lower than 1 rejected (Pallant 2016). Kaiser's criterion has been criticised for retaining more components than is necessary (Field 2013). Catell's scree test (Catell 1966) is viewed as a more robust method for determining the number of components to be extracted. Each eigenvalue is represented on the plot and the researcher retains only the components that are above the elbow – the point at which the curve changes trajectory and become flatter (Pallant 2016). It can be difficult to locate the exact point on the plot where the curve has changed direction significantly, thus interpretation is required on behalf of the researcher (Field 2013; Pallant 2016). Parallel analysis offers an alternative way of understanding which components are the most important to retain (Pallant 2016). Horn's parallel analysis (Horn 1965) involves generating eigenvalues from a randomised set of data and comparing these values with the eigenvalues derived from the PCA (Pallant 2016). Only eigenvalues that are greater than the eigenvalues produced by the parallel analysis are retained (Pallant 2016). The final stage of PCA is the rotation of the components and interpretation. Two of the popular rotation methods are orthogonal and oblique rotation (Pallant 2016). Orthogonal rotation is used when the components are assumed to be uncorrelated and oblique rotation is used when one suspects correlation between components (Tabachnick and Fidell 2013). It is rare in the social world for components to be uncorrelated, therefore oblique rotation is likely to be preferable for social research (Field 2013). After the components have been rotated, the final components are interpreted by the researcher and are provided with labels to describe what the components represent.

MANOVA is a statistical procedure that analyses the variance of more than one dependent variables on a grouping of independent variables (Tabachnick and Fidell 2013). The MANOVA is therefore an extension of the ANOVA test (Pallant 2016). A one-way MANOVA is when one categorical independent variable is used, but two-way MANOVAs and factorial MANOVAs are possible too (Tabachnick and Fidell 2013). The inclusion of multiple dependent variables reduces the possibility of Type II error that might have occurred if multiple ANOVAs had been conducted (Pallant 2016). There is therefore less chance of obtaining an artificially manufactured significant result (Field 2013). Whilst the MANOVA is able to ascertain whether there is a statistical difference in the variance of the dependent variable amongst the groups of the independent variables, if more than two categories are used for the independent variable, the MANOVA will not be able to detect which group is statistically significant (Pallant 2016). In situations such as this, Pallant (2016) advocates the use of an ANOVA on the dependent variable that has suggested a significant result in order to detect how the groups differ on the independent variable.

3.6.4 Mixed methods

Research methods can be viewed as being on a continuum, with quantitative and qualitative at either end of the continuum, and mixed methods involves moving across the continuum to obtain the answers to the research questions (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009).

Mixed methods' strengths include the ability to address a range of confirmatory and exploratory questions at the same time, producing stronger inferences, and a greater opportunity for different views from research findings to arise (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009). It is important to be aware of the purpose for conducting mixed methods research; the research problem should justify the use of mixed methods research (Bryman 2006). Greene, Caracelli and Graham (1989) conducted a review of fifty-seven empirical mixed method evaluations and identified five common purposes for the production of mixed methods evaluations, which were the following: triangulation; complementarity; development, initiation, and expansion. Triangulation is the

main purpose for the use of mixed methods in this research, as triangulation aims to uncover convergence of results from different methods (Greene, Caracelli and Graham 1989). However, triangulation can produce findings that are divergent, and this can be a valuable finding in itself in explaining a complex phenomenon (Jick 1979; Teddlie and Tashakkori 2009). Triangulation has traditionally been viewed as a way of mixed methods being able to offset the weaknesses of one particular method, thus producing a stronger result through the strengths and weaknesses of quantitative and qualitative methods complimenting each other (Jick 1979). In using triangulation, it is important to ensure both the quantitative and qualitative components are used in significant ways (Jick 1979). It is possible for one of the methods to be slightly stronger than the other, but reasons should be provided in this case as triangulation's power may be decreased if the strength of one method is too weak compared to the other (Jick 1979).

This research follows the sequential exploratory mixed methods design (Creswell 2014). In this design the qualitative phase of the research first explores the topic which enables the quantitative stage of the research to test and refine the findings from the qualitative component (Creswell 2014). The semi-structured interviews were used to understand the outcomes as well as to unearth the main mechanisms and contexts behind the LPG sport participation legacy from a top-down perspective. With the rich information provided by the qualitative strand of the research, the quantitative stage was formed of two online questionnaires which probed the qualitative findings in more detail at the grassroots level in the form of VSCs and non-active disabled people. The qualitative phase thus informed the content and development of the questionnaires (Creswell 2014), enabling further refinement of the CMOCs gathered from the qualitative phase.

3.6.5 Validity and reliability

Researchers need to ensure their findings can be argued to be reliable and valid. Findings lacking in reliability and validity would have limited utility in furthering knowledge. Validity is predicated on the establishment of reliable measures as a measure that is not reliable cannot be claimed to be valid (Bryman 2012). Reliability is therefore the consistency in the measurement of a concept, whereas validity refers to whether the indicators used to measure the concepts are able to accurately measure the concept in question (Bryman 2012). An important component of reliability is whether the measure is consistent over time (Bryman 2012). Cronbach's alpha is considered to be the most common method for measuring the internal reliability of a scale or index (Blaikie 2003; Bryman 2012). Cronbach's alpha produces a coefficient that can range between 0 and 1, with high values suggesting strong consistency of the item when compared with the other scale items (Blaikie 2003). Items that score an alpha of 0.8 is generally thought to be an indication that an item is internally reliable (Bryman 2012). Face validity is the minimum level a researcher must achieve and is a basic guide for the validity of a measure (Bryman 2012). Face validity refers to whether the measure appears to successfully reflect the content of the concept (Ruane 2005). Face validity can be achieved by asking experts in the field (Bryman 2012). Content validity refers to the degree in which the operational measure reflects the nominal definition of the concept (Ruane 2005). Content validity is similar to face validity in that assessments of content validity are largely subjective (Ruane 2005).

In qualitative research, reliability and validity are often eschewed in favour of trustworthiness (Bryman 2012). Trustworthiness of data includes whether the interpretation of the data can be thought to be credible (Bryman 2012). To assess the credibility of the findings, researchers can request the participants to validate the interpretation of the researcher. If the participant agrees with the researcher's perspective, the data can be thought to be a credible account of the participant's voice (Bryman 2012). Whether the results can be transferrable is another component of trustworthiness (Bryman 2012). Qualitative research often is not able to

generalise findings to the population, but the transferability of the data can be significantly enhanced if detailed descriptions of the research problem are provided (Bryman 2012). The trustworthiness of data is increased if it can be judged to be dependable. Dependability refers to explicating the stages of data collection and analysis in a transparent and open manner (Bryman 2012). Fellow commentators are then able to critique the methods used by the researcher in producing the final account of the data (Bryman 2012).

3.7 Procedures

This section will outline the logic of the studies included in this research and how the data was collected and analysed.

3.7.1 Study 1: Views of senior managers from sport and non-sport organisations regarding the grassroots sport participation legacy of the London 2012 Paralympic Games: What happened and why?

The purpose of this study was to obtain a top-down perspective of the LPG sport participation legacy from a variety of different stakeholder groups. The intention was to understand the impact of the LPG on grassroots sport participation, as well as ascertaining the main mechanisms and contexts that facilitated a successful or unsuccessful LPG sport participation legacy. Having understood the top-down perspective, it would then be possible in studies 2 and 3 to add further specificity by probing different aspects of the grassroots domain. For studies 2 and 3 to occur, however, the top-down perspective needed to be mapped and understood.

Semi-structured in-depth interviews were used to collect the data; as in-depth interviews are well suited to exploring an underdeveloped phenomenon such as the sport participation legacy of the LPG (Kvale 2007). Data collection commenced in July 2015 and concluded in March 2017. An interview guide (Appendix 1) provided a generic framework for discussion about the impact and management of the sport participation legacy from the LPG. The average duration of the interviews was one hour. Seventeen of the interviews were conducted face to face, fourteen interviews were conducted either using Skype or by telephone due to geographic and financial limitations². Table 3 provides an overview of the participants included in the study.

Table 3: An Overview of the Sports Organisations and Non-Sport Organisations included in study 1.

NDSO ³	NSO	Non-SO	NGB	CSP	DSO
Cerebral Palsy Sport	English Federation of Disability Sport	Whizz-Kidz	Goalball UK	Tyne & Wear Sport	Disability Sport Worcester

² One participant was interviewed twice, due to time restrictions in the first interview. The first interview was conducted face to face, whilst the follow-up interview was a telephone interview.

³ *Note.* NDSO: National Disability Sport Organisation; NSO: National Sporting Organisation; Non-SOs: Non-sporting organisations; NGBs: National Governing Bodies; CSPs: County sport partnerships. The British Equestrian Federation is the NGB for equestrianism, but the Riding for the Disabled Association is the organisation that supports disabled people’s participation in equestrianism. The Lawn Tennis Association is the NGBs for tennis, but the Tennis Foundation is the organisation that supports disabled people’s participation in tennis.

Special Olympics Great Britain	Sport England	Disability Rights UK	Wheelchair Basketball	North Yorkshire Sport
UK Deaf Sport	Level Playing Field	Individual trustee	Volleyball England	Lancashire Sport Partnership
Dwarf Sports Association UK	British Paralympic Association		Boccia England	
LimbPower	Youth Sport Trust		Table Tennis England	London Sport
British Blind Sport			Tennis Foundation	Living Sport
WheelPower			England Golf	
			Rugby Football League	
			Riding for the Disabled Association	

The sample consisted of twenty-seven senior managers from a variety of sports organisations, and three individuals from non-sport organisations. For the purpose of this study, a senior manager was an individual who was in a position of employment within the sport organisation, and had responsibility for all or some of the sport participation for disabled people provided by the sports organisation. Sports organisations were chosen because of their fundamental role in increasing participation from the LPG (Collins 2010). The organisation type and the majority of the participants were purposively chosen, while some sport respondents, such as those from NGBs and county sport partnerships (CSPs), were identified following a snowball approach. The organisations included in this research comprised seven NDSOs, nine NGBs, five national sport organisations (NSOs), three non-sporting organisations (Non-SOs), five CSPs, and one disability sport organisation (DSO). The selected organisations enabled a wide range of stakeholder experiences of the Paralympic legacy to emerge. NDSOs were chosen in order to understand impairment specific issues, NGBs were the main organisation responsible for increasing sport participation, CSPs and the DSO supported and helped deliver the NGBs’ strategy at a local level, NSOs provided a range of national perspectives about sport for disabled people, and Non-SOs provided expert views regarding disabled people and associated disability issues.

The credibility and the trustworthiness of the interpretations of the interviewer were enriched by following the tactic suggested by Brinkmann and Kvale (2015); Kvale (2007), who suggested soliciting the verification of the respondent at the end of the interviews. Therefore, the interviewer summarised the main findings from the discussion and asked for the participant to provide their interpretation of the summary. The interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim. The data was then coded using first-cycle processes advocated by Saldaña (2016). In vivo coding was used on all interview transcripts. This included highlighting the participant’s quotes that were relevant to the broad themes of impact and management of the LPG sport participation legacy. Initial coding was used on the first nine transcripts to aid with key themes. This coding technique uses elements of in vivo coding and process coding, with the aim to reveal insights into the causes and consequences of the actions of the interviewees (Saldaña 2016). In addition, some transcripts were holistically and descriptively coded for generation of broad themes. This included reviewing ‘clumps’ of the transcript for themes in the case of holistic

coding and providing descriptive labels for the topics discussed during the interview in the case of descriptive coding. Codes were then categorised into key topic areas and further analysed. The broad categories that emerged from the data analysis were:

- Impact of the LPG on sport participation;
- Management of the sport participation legacy;
- Inspiration and Paralympians;
- Disability sport and stakeholder relations;
- Organisational development and challenges;
- Media coverage of the LPG;
- The influence of the external environment on the sport participation legacy.

Summaries of the participant data was then mapped onto a master table that contained all of the interview data under each of the broad categories. This enabled contrasts and comparisons to be made across the different stakeholders. To compliment the coding and categorising of the data, analytic memoing was used to record emergent thoughts and themes about the data during and after analysis (Saldaña 2016). The analytic memos were then reviewed in conjunction with the generated themes to further analyse the data. The researcher verified and discussed the initial findings with the researcher's PhD supervisor and this facilitated further development of the data analysis.

3.7.2 Study 2: The bottom-up perspective of the grassroots sport participation legacy of the London 2012 Paralympic Games: Views of voluntary sports clubs

This study aimed to investigate the impact of the LPG on the grassroots sport participation of disabled people amongst VSCs in England. In addition, this study sought to understand what the main constraints to leveraging the LPG for increased sports participation were for VSCs. By focusing on the experiences of VSCs, the findings from this study would enable a bottom-up perspective on the LPG sport participation legacy to emerge. The experiences of the VSCs at the ground level could then be compared with the insights provided by the top-down perspective obtained in study 1. By approaching the LPG sport participation legacy from both a top-down and bottom-up perspective, a thorough evaluation of the LPG sport participation legacy would be possible. Thus, the outcomes of this study enabled the findings from study 1 to be explored, whilst also providing an opportunity to compliment and augment study 1's findings. Consequently, the main research questions guiding this study were:

- What impact did the London 2012 Paralympic Games have on the sport participation of disabled people in voluntary sport club settings in England?
- Why did this impact occur? What were the main mechanisms and contexts that led to the sport participation outcomes experienced by the voluntary sport clubs?

Addressing this research question will build understanding and data needed to help answer two of the main research questions of this PhD thesis, which are:

- What impact has the London 2012 Paralympic Games had on the grassroots sport participation of disabled people in England?
- Why has the 2012 Paralympics succeeded or failed to increase the sport participation of disabled people in England?

The research design of this study will now be outlined.

An online questionnaire (Appendix 2) was designed to address the objectives of the research mentioned above. The online questionnaire was deemed to be the most appropriate research instrument for the aims of the study because of the large number of VSCs that could be included

in the study. There are a number of VSCs in England, therefore an online questionnaire enabled the best possible coverage of these clubs to be obtained. This is because online questionnaires are able to break down geographical barriers to data collection that might have been present with other research methods (Bryman 2012). The questionnaire resource tool, Bristol Online Survey (BOS), was used to design, host, and distribute the questionnaire to VSCs.

Population and sampling strategy

Only sports that were featured at the LPG were included in this study. This was in order to investigate the impact of the demonstration effect from the LPG, with the assumption being that the demonstration effect would likely have been most prominent amongst sports at the LPG. In addition, the limited time and resources available to the researcher ensured that it was not possible to include all sports in the population for this study, due to the labour-intensive process required to obtain contact information for VSCs (to be discussed in more detail shortly). Thus, the decision was made to concentrate the questionnaire on sports at the LPG alone. Table 4 provides a breakdown of the number of VSCs per sport that were included as the population for this study.

Table 4: An overview of the VSC population and sample for study 2.

Sport	Total number of VSCs	Eligible VSCs with contact details	VSCs that completed the questionnaire	Response rate compared to sports' VSCs contacted	Response rate compared to sample
Archery	830	760	99	13.03%	18.40%
Athletics and running	1,309	1,051	108	10.28%	20.07%
Boccia	71	70	12	17.14%	2.23%
Cycling	972	597	40	6.70%	7.43%
Equestrian	388	336	40	11.90%	7.43%
Fencing	251	243	25	10.29%	4.65%
Football	231	89	5	5.62%	0.93%
Goalball	30	28	4	14.29%	0.74%
Judo	583	488	33	6.76%	6.13%
Powerlifting	29	28	3	10.71%	0.56%
Rowing	289	276	26	9.42%	4.83%
Sailing	766	576	29	5.03%	5.39%
Shooting	400	309	20	6.47%	3.72%
Swimming	727	555	51	19.19%	9.48%
Table Tennis	159	153	14	9.15%	2.60%
Tennis	162	105	8	7.62%	1.49%
Volleyball	122	84	2	2.38%	0.37%
Weightlifting	110	110	2	1.82%	0.37%
Wheelchair basketball	105	84	14	16.67%	2.60%
Wheelchair rugby	16	16	3	18.75%	0.56%
TOTAL	7550	5958	538	N/A	9.03%

Information for the population of VSCs for this study was obtained using the VSC's respective NGB's website. To be included in this research, clubs needed to be listed on the website of their

NGB⁴. Only VSCs that had publicly accessible contact details in the form of an email address or a contact form were included in the study. Weightlifting was not a specific sport included in the LPG but powerlifting and weightlifting share similarities as sports. Therefore, it was decided to include weightlifting as there could have been people inspired by the LPG who participated in weightlifting because of the lack of available powerlifting clubs. In addition, running clubs were included alongside athletics clubs, as Paralympic Great Britain was successful in a number of running-based events at the LPG, thus the potential for the demonstration effect was strong for running clubs. Only English VSCs from the sports featured at the LPG were included. This is because the overall geographical setting for the research is England, therefore this approach is consistent with the wider research strategy.

A maximum of 1 response per VSC was allowed. Where publicly available contact information was available, club secretaries were selected to be the spokesperson for the club. This is because club secretaries have access to information about the membership structure and other details of the club that are relevant for the questionnaire. If no contact information for a club secretary was available, the questionnaire was distributed to the club email address. Where VSCs had no publicly available email addresses, contact forms provided on the VSC's website were used to distribute the questionnaire.

Procedure

Piloting of the questionnaire

As is convention, a pilot questionnaire was developed and tested before the final questionnaire was rolled out to the population of interest. Piloting serves many purposes for the researcher. Piloting enables the researcher to address questionnaire design issues, such as the length of the questionnaire, comprehension of the questions, and any spelling and grammar errors (De Vaus 2014). De Vaus (2014) recommends that piloting of a questionnaire should be with a population that shares similar characteristics to the actual sample that will be used. The sample used for the piloting of the questionnaire were non-English VSCs that are affiliated to the sports included in this study. As only English clubs were included in the final study, non-English VSCs were an available source for piloting to occur. This is because members of these VSCs are likely to be of a similar nature to the English VSCs included in the final sample. This population group therefore enabled important insights that benefitted the development and finalised version of the questionnaire. The pilot questionnaire was kept eligible to be completed for a maximum period of 2 weeks. Once ethical approval was granted for the pilot study, the pilot questionnaire was administered to 1,027 non-English VSCs, resulting in 44 responses. Analysis of the pilot data resulted in changes to the questionnaire being made. As a result of the changes, a fresh ethics application was submitted and granted by the School of Sport & Exercise Sciences Research Ethics and Advisory Group. This questionnaire was then distributed to 973 non-English VSCs, with 18 VSCs completing the questionnaire. Along with the questionnaire, the pilot sample were given the opportunity to provide their views on the questionnaire in the form of a feedback questionnaire. There was no obligation for the participants to complete the feedback questionnaire. If the participant agreed to provide their feedback, participants were directed to the feedback questionnaire, also hosted by BOS.

⁴ Due to information and resource constraints, this was not possible for equestrian, football, and tennis. The national organisations specifically responsible for equestrian and football, the Riding for the Disabled Association and the Tennis Foundation, respectively, were used as the source for the VSCs of these sports. For football, The Football Association's club directory contained a number of clubs beyond the scope of the author to obtain contact information for each club. Consequently, the decision was made to use a directory of disability specific football clubs (The Disability Football Club Directory n.d.).

Following the pilot testing and refinements to the design of the questionnaire, the questionnaire was sent to the eligible VSCs. The questionnaire was live for a maximum period of two months from when the English VSCs were sent the questionnaire. Due to the large number of VSCs included in the final study population, the questionnaire was distributed in 3 waves. Data collection therefore commenced on the 27th January 2018 for the first wave of questionnaire distribution, with the questionnaire closing for the 2nd and 3rd wave participants on 8th April 2018. Reminder emails were sent every 2 weeks to VSCs that had yet to complete the questionnaire. BOS was used to collect the data and to distribute the questionnaire.

Questionnaire content

The questionnaire was structured into the following 4 sections:

- Background information about the VSC;
- Impact of the LPG on the sport participation of disabled people at the VSC;
- Leveraging and constraints to leveraging of the LPG;
- Demographic information about the participant.

Background information about the VSC was obtained in order to facilitate a basic description of the sample. Information derived from this section would inform some of the independent variables to be used for complex analyses such as MANOVAs. Questions about the impact of the LPG enabled data to be obtained to address RQ1 of the overall research. Questions focused on the participant's rating of the LPG and its impact on the sport participation of disabled people of various ages, as well as other aspects of the club such as the workforce and equipment. This section also included information on the changes in the membership of disabled people at the VSC within the last 5 years. Though the outcomes of this question cannot be solely attributed to the LPG, the results do provide an indication of participation trends for disabled people at VSCs. The penultimate section of the questionnaire was designed to provide insights to answer RQ2 and to inform part of Research Question 3 (RQ3) of the overall research. This was achieved by focusing on the leveraging activities and constraints of the LPG by VSCs. Leveraging was chosen as it has been argued to be an important method of utilising the hosting of MSEs for increased sport participation (Chalip 2017 et al.; Misener et al. 2015; Weed et al. 2015). Furthermore, leveraging was thought to be essential if the demonstration effect, the main programme theory of the LPG sport participation legacy, was to be effective (Weed et al. 2015). The final section of the questionnaire provided insights into the characteristics of representatives of the VSCs who completed the questionnaire.

Data analysis

To prepare for data analysis, a codebook was developed of the variables that were to be recorded and the measurement of the variable. Using a codebook for the variables was developed to ensure a consistent source of reference could be used for the data input and analysis for the study. Data codebooks are a feature of best practice (Pallant 2016) and were therefore adopted. Data were exported from BOS into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), which was to be used for analysis of the questionnaire data. After inputting the data into SPSS, the data was spot-checked for errors. This was achieved by running a codebook report for the SPSS data and comparing the frequencies with the output that had been generated by BOS' data analysis tool. This process was repeated until the author was satisfied that 100% data accuracy had been achieved. In order to be cognisant with the basic trends of the data, frequencies and descriptives were conducted for the variables. Not only did the use of frequencies and descriptives in SPSS serve the purpose of familiarising oneself with the data, but the outputs were also used to address aspects of RQ1. Tests of normality were conducted on the data to assess whether the data was parametric or non-parametric. Having confirmed the data was parametric, and that a satisfactory level of description for the aims of the study had

been achieved, analyses exploring relationships were used. This consisted of using Chi-square of independence tests between categorical variables. This analysis was used to assess the relationship between VSCs that leveraged the LPG and membership changes within the last 5 years. Understanding the relationship between leveraging of the LPG and membership change was important in assessing the importance of leveraging. A PCA was conducted to ascertain the main constraints to leveraging that the VSCs experienced. MANOVAs were then performed using the components from the PCA as the dependent variables and a selection of independent variables. The MANOVAs were intended to reveal the influence certain independent variables might have had on the constraints to leveraging the LPG that the VSCs experienced. More information about the process undertaken to perform the PCA and the MANOVA is included in chapter 6.

3.7.3 Study 3: The bottom-up perspective of the grassroots sport participation legacy of the London 2012 Paralympic Games: Views of non-active or less active disabled people

This study was designed to delve deeper into the main constraints to more sport participation for disabled adults who are either inactive or less active. The research therefore sought to understand the main barriers to more sport participation and what role, if any, the LPG has had in barriers to increased sport participation. Consequently, the main research question guiding this study was:

- Why was the London 2012 Paralympic Games not able to increase the sport participation of disabled people who are either inactive or fairly active?

Addressing this research question built understanding and data needed to help answer one of the main research questions of the thesis, which is:

- Why has the 2012 Paralympics succeeded or failed to increase the sport participation of disabled people in England?

The research design of this study will now be outlined.

Research instrument

This study is in the form of an online questionnaire (Appendix 3). The questionnaire was designed and hosted using BOS's survey tool. Online questionnaires were deemed the most appropriate method for the aims of this study because of the large number of disabled people that could be included in the study. There is very little empirical knowledge that has been produced from the perspective of disabled people themselves (Pappous and Brown 2018), therefore an online questionnaire provided the best research tool to obtain as many views from disabled people as possible. In addition, access to this population is difficult, due to the difficulty in knowing accurate activity levels of disabled people, therefore the online nature of the questionnaire could transcend difficulties in finding relevant participants across the country.

Population and sampling strategy

It was not possible to determine the exact population for this study. This is because an electronic snowballing sampling technique was used, with disabled people's organisations (DPOs) acting as gatekeepers enabling access to the sample for the study. The gatekeepers were DPOs listed as being members of the pan-disability rights organisation, Disability Rights UK (DRUK). 403 organisations were listed as members of DRUK (correct as of 06.10.2017). For this study, only English DPOs were used, since the geographical setting of the study is England. The number of English DPOs was 372.

Only disabled people aged 16+ who were either inactive or fairly active were eligible for the study. The definitions of inactive and fairly active were taken from Sport England's 'Active Lives' report. Inactivity is defined as being 'less than 30 minutes a week' of activity, whilst individuals who are fairly active are active between '30-149 minutes a week' (Sport England 2017, p. 3). Inactive or fairly active disabled individuals were therefore the population of interest. It was not possible to determine a population figure for disabled people aged 16+ who were inactive or fairly active. Consequently, it is not possible to determine a response rate because the population is unknown. The findings from the study are thus not representative of the wider population but provide an insight into the experiences of some disabled people and the barriers to increased sport participation experienced by this population.

Electronic snowball sampling (Veal and Darcy 2014) was used. This is a technique that has been used by Darcy, Lock and Taylor (2017) and Darcy (2010). This sampling approach involved the eligible DPOs being sent an email with information about the study⁵ and a link to the online questionnaire. The DPOs, if they agreed to participate, contacted their membership promoting the study and the link to completing the questionnaire.

Procedure

The questionnaire was first piloted amongst non-English DPO members of DRUK. As only English DPOs were used as gatekeepers in the final study, the non-English DPOs were an available source for piloting to occur. The members of these DPOs were thought to be of a similar nature to English DPOs, thus could inform the development of the final questionnaire. To avoid the possibility of deception, the pilot population were informed that their responses would be for the piloting process only. To initiate the piloting of the questionnaire, the author emailed the non-English DPOs regarding their involvement in the pilot study. The email provided an overview of the study, my role within the research, and a participant information sheet. Informed consent was achieved by making it mandatory for participants of the questionnaire to indicate they agreed to the terms and conditions of the study. If participants indicated they did not agree to participate they were screened out of the study and directed to a page that explained why they were not able to participate. Only participants that agreed to participate in the research were able to complete the study. As part of the eligibility to participate in the study, only disabled adults that were either inactive or fairly active as defined by Sport England, and aged 16+, were able to complete the questionnaire. If individuals completed the questionnaire and infringed any of the eligibility criteria, they were screened out of the study and directed to the page described above, which explained why they were not able to complete the questionnaire. To ensure the participant's time was not unduly wasted, the questions to ascertain eligibility for the questionnaire were included at the beginning of the questionnaire. Along with the questionnaire, the pilot sample were afforded the opportunity to provide their views on the questionnaire in the form of a feedback questionnaire. There was no obligation for the participants to complete the feedback questionnaire. The participants were asked if they would like to take part in providing feedback regarding the questionnaire but were informed that they were under no obligation to participate in the feedback questionnaire. If agreement to complete the feedback questionnaire was provided, the participants were directed to the feedback questionnaire, which was also hosted on BOS.

The questionnaire for the pilot group was live for 2 weeks. A reminder email was sent to the participating DPOs after 1 week to encourage more disabled people to participate in the questionnaire. No responses were received from the pilot sample. Consequently, to ensure face validity was achieved, the pilot questionnaire was distributed to 5 academics who had

⁵ This included the following: consent form, participant information sheet, and a suggested email template for contact with members.

experience in MSE sport participation legacy research. Changes suggested by the academics were reviewed and incorporated where appropriate.

Only English DPOs that had publicly available contact details were included in the study. Of the 372 English DPOs that are members of DRUK, 164 DPOs had publicly available contact details. An email was sent to the eligible DPOs outlining the purpose of the research, a participant information sheet, and a web link to the final questionnaire hosted on BOS. Data collection commenced on 5th December 2017 and concluded on the 13th February 2018 at 10pm. During the data collection period, DPOs that had not responded to the initial email were sent a reminder email asking whether the organisation would be happy to participate or not. DPOs that confirmed they did not wish to participate were removed from potential consideration in the study and no further contact was made. A total of 5 reminder emails were sent to the English DPOs that had failed to confirm they did not wish to participate in the study. In total, 26 of the 164 DPOs confirmed to the author that they had sent the questionnaire to their membership, representing approximately 16% of the contacted DPOs. The final sample for the study was 81 disabled adults aged 16+. As mentioned before, it is not possible to determine a response rate for the population of inactive or less active disabled adults. Though the final sample might appear low, inactive or less active disabled adults are a hard to access population. It could therefore be argued that 81 responses to the questionnaire provides a more than adequate sample for obtaining an insight into the experiences of this population after the LPG, as very little data for this population currently exists.

Questionnaire content

The questionnaire was structured into 4 sections:

- Physical activity and sport participation of the participant;
- Demographic information;
- Participant's opinion of the LPG;
- Barriers that prevent the participant from participating in more sport

The first section of the questionnaire enabled only eligible participants to have the opportunity to complete the questionnaire. Questions about physical activity and sport participation were taken from Sport England's Active Lives report (Sport England 2017). This ensured the participants who completed were able to be classified as either inactive or fairly active based on the definitions provided by Sport England and the questions produced by Sport England to ascertain activity levels. This boosted the construct validity of the questionnaire as these questions have been developed and operationalised in previous studies. The next section also helped to filter participants that were not eligible to complete the questionnaire. In order to complete the questionnaire participants needed to be disabled and aged over 16+. The demographic questions ensured only individuals that met the minimum criteria were able to participate in the study. The questions for disability in the questionnaire were derived from Sport England's APS, increasing the construct validity of the questionnaire for the reasons mentioned above. The demographic information also provided descriptive insights into the sample. The aim of questions about the participant's opinion of the LPG was to understand how many of the respondents were positive about the LPG but were still not active. This would help inform RQ2 by understanding what barriers might be particularly relevant for these individuals. The section with the highest utility for the aims of this study was the final section of the questionnaire. This section focused on barriers to increased sport participation, with some specific focus on the LPG as well as wider barriers. A PCA indicated the main barriers that prevented participation in more sport for the respondents, which helped to answer RQ2 and RQ3.

Data analysis

The main purpose of this study was to gain an insight into the main barriers that prevented the sample of disabled people from increasing their sport participation. Descriptive analysis was undertaken to assess the opinion of the main message of the LPG to understand the scope of the appeal of the LPG. If the LPG was successful in promoting an interest in participation in sport, why have these disabled people not increased their participation in sport? To understand this, a PCA was conducted on the constraints to participation in sport. The PCA was intended to provide an indication of the main barriers inhibiting increased sport participation. Due to the low sample size the PCA was only intended to be indicative rather than a definitive conclusion of the barriers to increased sport participation. The barriers to increased sport participation were placed into different categories of constraint and then the mean was calculated for each item. The intention was to understand the strength of agreement of the barriers. It was not possible to perform a MANOVA as the data violated assumptions of normality.

3.8 Ethical considerations

There were a number of ethical considerations that needed to be understood before conducting this research. De Vaus (2014) suggests that there are five common ethical issues that are pertinent to survey research, but this can also apply to semi-structured interviews too. The main ethical considerations for this research are now discussed.

Voluntary participation

Participation in social research is voluntary and the participant should have the right to withdraw their participation at any stage of the research process. All interviewees were emailed a participant information sheet (Appendix 4) and consent form (Appendix 5) prior to the interview being conducted. This enabled potential participants to appreciate their rights as interviewees and reaffirm there was no obligation for them to undertake the interview. Furthermore, at the beginning of each interview the interviewees were verbally informed of the voluntary nature of their participation and that they could terminate the interview at any stage. For online questionnaires, De Vaus (2014) recommends making voluntary participation clear at the beginning of the questionnaire, which was the approach adopted for the two online questionnaires. Voluntary participation was made clear on pages one and two of the questionnaires (Appendices 2, 3). Respondents were also informed that they were able to withdraw from the questionnaire at any point. Participants needed to provide informed consent before they were able to complete the questionnaire. If the participant did not provide their informed consent they were screened out of the questionnaire with a message explaining that only participants that provided informed consent were eligible to complete the questionnaire.

Informed consent

Informed consent for the interviews was achieved through the signing and dating of the consent forms mentioned above. The consent form was always sent in conjunction with the participant information sheet before the interview took place. These enabled participants the chance to understand the nature of the interview and how their data would be used, thus equipping potential participants with information required to make an informed choice. Due to the lack of physical interaction with participants, understanding whether informed consent has been successfully obtained is not easy when using online questionnaires (De Vaus 2014). To provide the best opportunity at gaining informed consent, a number of measures were implemented. The overall purpose of the research and the content of the questionnaire was explained before the respondents were asked to complete any questions. This enabled the participant to understand how their data was to be used and the requirements placed upon the respondents in completing the questionnaire, limiting the possibility of deception or a lack of understanding as to the nature of the research. The researcher's contact information was provided at the

bottom of page one of the questionnaires, providing an opportunity for participants to seek further information if required. In addition, the identity of the researcher and the institution represented was provided on page one. This provided confirmation the questionnaire was not spam or potentially fraudulent, enhancing the authenticity of the questionnaire and knowledge that participants' data was handled sensitively.

It was not possible for participants to begin the questionnaire unless they provided their informed consent. Informed consent was determined by whether participants selected 'Yes, I give my informed consent' from the question 'Having read and understood your rights as a participant in this research, please confirm whether you are willing to complete this questionnaire'. This question was compulsory, ensuring that it was not possible for participants to complete the questionnaire without acknowledging their agreement to participate.

Anonymity and confidentiality

Anonymity and confidentiality are often used interchangeably, but there are crucial differences between them. Anonymity is when the 'the researcher will not and cannot identify the respondent' (De Vaus 2014, p. 59). Confidentiality refers to the fact that 'the researcher can match names with responses but ensures that no one else will have access to them' (De Vaus 2014, p. 59). Interviewees were provided with an identification number to ensure quotes could not be attributed to an individual. Where quotes discussed content specific to their organisation, quotes were assigned with 'respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality'. For the questionnaires no names were collected. Only the researcher and PhD supervisory team had access to the raw data. The data was stored using BOS and the researcher's cloud storage website, Box.com. Both websites are password protected and cannot be accessed without a password. Any physical copies of the data, such as print outs of data analysis, were kept in a locked draw. Once the hard copies of the data were no longer required for the purposes of the research they were destroyed.

Making the questionnaire accessible

It is important the questionnaire is as accessible as possible, as there was the possibility of a number of people with different impairments completing the questionnaire. The questionnaires adhered to the web content accessibility guidelines on BOS (W3C n.d.). In addition, large font was used for the questionnaire for users with a visual impairment, as well as using bold for emphasis. Italics and block capitals were avoided as this does not help people with visual impairment to view the content (EFDS 2014c). Sections and page breaks have been included in the questionnaire to avoid the questionnaire appearing to be cramped in style. Due to the available resources and expertise available to the researcher, the questionnaire was not adapted into an easy read version. It is possible, therefore, that some people who have learning difficulties may have struggled to complete the questionnaire. People with learning difficulties were not specifically targeted for inclusion in study 3's questionnaire, but a cognitive impairment may be a subsidiary or additional impairment for a disabled person. To make the questionnaire as intelligible as possible, explanations were provided in the 'More Info' sections. Furthermore, there was an attempt to use plain and simple English, as well as avoiding the use of jargon.

Participant information sheets

A study by Biggs and Marchesi (2015) found that most participant information sheets submitted to the Australian ethics council did not meet recommended guidelines for ease of understanding. Most were too long and were above the recommended reading age. Biggs and Marchesi (2015) recommended adopting Sharp's (2004) suggestion for limiting participant information sheets to a maximum of 1,250 words. This recommendation was adopted for both

questionnaires. This reduced the burden on the participant to comprehend the nature of the study when presented with lots of information. The participant information sheet for both questionnaires was short and avoided the use of jargon. The readability of the participant information sheets for the questionnaires were measured using the 'Readable.io' website. The participant information sheets were awarded a reading rate of A (Readable n.d.). It was therefore 'very easy' to read. The reading grade level was given as 8.4 (Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level = 7.2). The recommended grade is 'around 8' (Readable n.d.). The participant information sheets for the questionnaires were therefore comprehensible for most people.

3.9 Limitations involved with the research design

It is important to acknowledge the limitations of this research. Only VSCs of sports that were included at the LPG were included in study 2, with insights from non-LPG sports not collected. This resulted in a partial representation of disabled people's grassroots sport participation amongst VSCs, potentially ignoring valuable data. Whilst this was regrettable, the resources at the researcher's disposal necessitated a prioritisation of which VSCs could be included in the study, thus the decision was taken to include only VSCs from LPG sports. This was because the impact of the LPG was viewed to have likely been most apparent amongst VSCs of LPG sports, rather than non-LPG sports.

The small sample size for study 3 meant that the insights garnered from the study were limited to the sample. Due to the small size of the sample it was not possible for in-depth statistical analysis to be undertaken. The findings are therefore not representative of the wider non-active disabled population and provide a descriptive quality for that specific sample. Whilst this is regrettable, the author believes the findings have utility for the research and wider research community. The societal group of non-active disabled people is a hard to access population, thus little is known about the role of the Paralympic Games in individuals being non-active. With few sources of evidence for this population, the findings from this study provide an insight into some of the factors that might have constrained non-active disabled people. This is still an advance on the current body of knowledge for this population and the Paralympic Games, which is scarce and underdeveloped.

A comprehensive evaluation of the LPG sport participation legacy has been undertaken, but direct attribution of the LPG impact on the participation of disabled people has not been fully established. A before and after study measuring the sports participation of a sample of disabled people and focusing on the role of the LPG would enable a greater precision in the determination of the LPG's ability to positively affect sport participation. As this research was retrospective, tracking the influence of the LPG over time on the sport participation of a sample was not possible. The inclusion of multiple sources of evidence in this research has helped to mitigate the lack of direct attribution and enable a comprehensive evaluation to have taken place.

A variety of different stakeholder groups were included in this research but it was not possible to include representation from the organisers of the LPG. An understanding of how the LPG sport participation legacy was created and managed before the LPG from the perspective of event organisers would have enhanced the evaluation of the LPG sport participation legacy. Their contribution would have enabled a greater precision in the vagaries of the programme theory to have emerged, as well as enhanced clarity regarding the leveraging initiatives. It was not possible to include individuals involved in the organisation of the LPG sport participation legacy as the researcher was unable to obtain relevant contact details and communication with these individuals. The absence of event organisers has been mitigated by the inclusion of a diverse range of stakeholder groups in this research, enabling a detailed account of the LPG sport participation legacy to emerge. It was not always possible to obtain a detailed

understanding of the activities of the sport and non-sport organisations before the LPG. This was mainly because of the time in position of the participant at their respective organisation. It was rare for participants to have been at their organisation and in a relevant role from the time London was awarded the right to host the 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games. This is an unfortunate by-product of conducting the research several years after the conclusion of the LPG. Only 3 non-sport organisations were included in the sample for study 1 and the inclusion of more DPOs and impairment-specific organisations would have enriched the insights gained in study 1. Due to resource constraints for the author this was not possible to achieve.

The researcher was unable to elicit the participation of representatives from the NGBs for athletics, cycling, and swimming. Senior managers from the respective NGBs were contacted to participate in the study but none of the senior managers were able to participate due to time constraints for two of the individuals and being new in post for the other individual. Athletics, cycling, and swimming were the most successful medal-winning sports at the LPG, thus the demonstration effect is likely to have been concentrated most amongst these sports. Failure to obtain participation from these sports lessened the researcher's ability to probe the potency of the demonstration effect, the main programme theory behind the LPG sport participation legacy. The inclusion of sports originally developed for disabled people – boccia, goalball, and wheelchair basketball – did enable an examination of the demonstration effect to be understood from a different angle. By isolating sports that predominately have disabled people participating in the sport, an indication of the impact of the LPG could be appreciated.

Notwithstanding the limitations that have been highlighted above, multiple sources of evidence have been gathered for the LPG sport participation legacy. It is the author's belief that no other study specifically focusing on the sport participation legacy from a summer Paralympic Games has investigated a specific Paralympic Games in as much detail as this research has. Despite the limitations, this research provides the most detailed account of the strengths and weaknesses of using a Paralympic Games for increased sport participation of disabled people. This research therefore is an important contribution to the community of scholars operating in the Paralympic Games sport participation legacy field.

3.10 Chapter summary

This chapter has explained the logic of how and why this research was conducted. This research is guided by a depth realist ontology and neo-realist epistemology within a critical realist paradigm. The rationale for using the realist evaluation method was explained and details were offered on how this method was operationalised for the research. The main programme theory of the LPG sport participation legacy, the demonstration effect, was outlined. The use of a mixed methods exploratory design was explained, with detail provided regarding how each study was designed and conducted. Important ethical considerations pertinent to this research were highlighted and methods used to ensure ethical research was explained. Finally, the limitations of the research design and how the researcher attempted to mitigate these weaknesses were expounded.

Chapter 4: Not a game-changer for sport participation? The views of senior managers from sport and non-sport organisations regarding the grassroots sport participation legacy of the London 2012 Paralympic Games: What happened and why?

4.1 Introduction

This study aims to uncover the CMOCs of the LPG sport participation legacy, from the perspective of senior managers from a variety of sports organisations and non-sport organisations. The inclusion of multiple organisational types in this study enables a rich and detailed account of the LPG sport participation legacy to emerge. The insights from the senior managers will provide refined CMOCs and emphasise the mechanisms and contexts that have been important in the success or failure of the LPG sport participation legacy. This study addresses RQ1 and RQ2, with the findings enabling further interrogation of the CMOCs to be explored at a more granular level in the remaining studies of this thesis. The chapter begins with a recapitulation of the CMOCs discovered in the literature review. RQ1 is assessed using a variety of data sources. First, APS data is reviewed to understand the sport participation of disabled people in England. This is followed by a description of programme and membership data provided by some of the NGBs. The views of the interviewees regarding the impact of the LPG on grassroots sport participation is presented. RQ2 is then addressed through an exploration of the mechanisms and their associated contexts that have either enabled the LPG to increase grassroots sport participation of disabled people or not. The implication of the findings is then discussed, followed by a presentation of refined CMOCs based on study 1's data.

4.2 CMOCs guiding the study

The literature review in chapter 3 identified a number of hypothesised CMOCs for the LPG sport participation legacy. The nature of the current study means that not all of these CMOCs can be evaluated. It was possible, however, for a number of CMOCs to be reviewed as part of this study (Table 5). The authenticity of these CMOCs will be reviewed in light of the findings from the in-depth interviews. In addition, new CMOCs are likely to emerge as a result of the study's findings. The consolidated CMOCs will then form the basis for the next study. The results of the APS will now be reviewed to understand the sport participation rates of disabled people before and after the LPG.

Table 5: Hypothesised CMOCs.

Context	+	Mechanism	=	Outcome
Current adult participants		Organisations leveraging the demonstration effect from the LPG		Increased participation or activity switching
Recently active adult sport participants		Organisations leveraging the demonstration effect from the LPG		Increased participation frequency

Success of Great Britain Paralympians	Communication of the benefits of being active will increase consciousness raising and improved decisional balance of the individual	Increased contemplation and motivation of non-active individuals to participate in sport
Success of Great Britain Paralympians	Increase in media coverage of the sporting excellence of Paralympians raises the awareness amongst non-disabled people of the potential possessed by disabled people	Increased acceptance of disabled people in mainstream society and increased sport participation opportunities for disabled people
Inactive disabled people	Reduced confidence as a result of a perceived competency gap between the Paralympian and the inactive individual	No increase in sport participation
NGBs with...	A lack of expertise in how to provide appropriate sport participation opportunities for disabled people, due to a lack of commitment to mainstreaming prior to the LPG	Not enough suitable sport participation opportunities for disabled people after the LPG
NGBs with...	Limited experience of marketing their services to the general public, NGB clubs are not novice friendly, and the NGB delivery system being too reliant voluntary support	Not enough suitable sport participation opportunities for disabled people after the LPG
Individuals with severe impairments	Unable to identify with the achievements of Paralympians because the Paralympian's impairments are not relevant to the individual's sense of self and identity, resulting in an absence of synergy between experiences of the Paralympian and the individual	No increase in sport participation
Policy focus of sports organisations on children and young people	Sports providers' desire to maintain Sport England funding results in narrow focus of resource allocation	A lack of suitable sport participation opportunities after the LPG for disabled adults aged 50 and over
Sports with a low profile amongst disabled people	Lack of media coverage at the LPG results in limited awareness of the sport amongst disabled people	Limited sport participation increases
Sports providers with limited knowledge of disability	The desire of the IPC to increase the Paralympic Games' appeal and marketability to a mainstream audience, achieved by including impairment groups that are best able to demonstrate sporting	Sports providers are unaware of the totality of disability resulting in a lack of sport participation opportunities for

	excellence identifiable to a mainstream audience	impairment groups not included in the LPG
Media outlets perpetuating supercrip narrative	Provides distorted reality of disability for non-disabled people without prior knowledge of disability. Assumptions are made that disabled people should be able to emulate achievements of Paralympians	Less accommodating environment for disabled people that do not fit the supercrip ideal, potentially deterring some disabled people from participating in sport
Paralympics Great Britain's success at the LPG	Highlights what can be achieved if funding is able to support talent development. Incumbent government attempts to capitalise on 'feel-good' factor generated by the success and to ensure the political party appears to be inclusive and supportive of disabled people	Increased funding for elite Paralympic sport not matched at the grassroots level

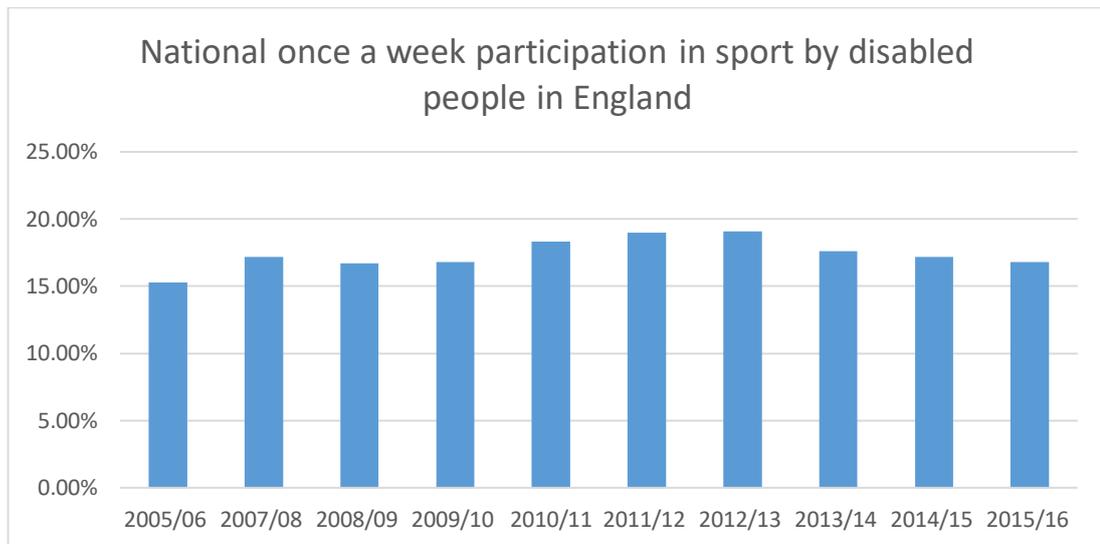
4.3. RQ1: What impact did the London 2012 Paralympic Games have on the grassroots sport participation of disabled people in England?

This section focuses on the impact of the LPG on the grassroots sport participation of disabled people in England. To orientate the discussion, an initial review of the APS data for disabled people's sport participation in England is reviewed. Data collected from NGBs concerning the participation of disabled people in NGB participation programmes, and disabled NGB membership data, is then assessed. Finally, this section concludes with the insights of the study participants on what the impact of the LPG has been on the grassroots sport participation of disabled people in England.

4.3.1 A review of the APS data regarding disabled people's sport participation in England

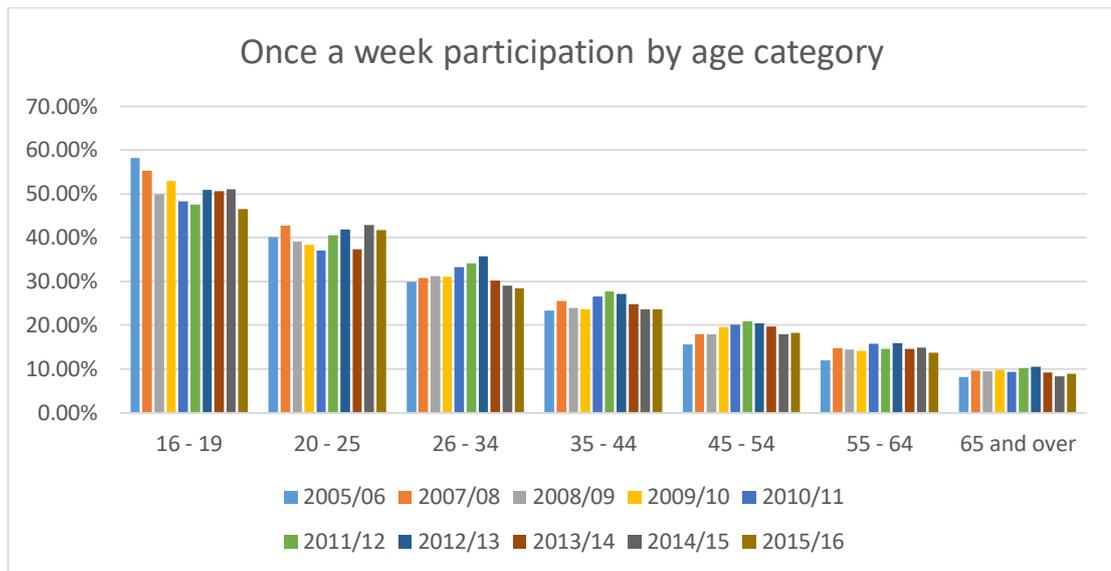
Evidence from the APS (Figure 2) suggests there has been a small increase in once a week sports participation of disabled people in England since 2005 (+1.5%) (Active People Interactive 2017). During the same time period, non-disabled people aged 16+ increased their once a week participation from 38.2% to 39.9%, a rise of 1.7% across the ten-year period. A peak of 19.1% of disabled people were participating in sport at least once a week in 2013, but this fell to 16.8% in 2016 (Active People Interactive 2017). The data indicates that the LPG might have been able to provide a short-term stimulus to once a week sport participation, but that this initial increase in once a week participation has not been sustained and has since declined.

Figure 2: National once a week participation of disabled people aged 16+ (Active People Interactive 2017).



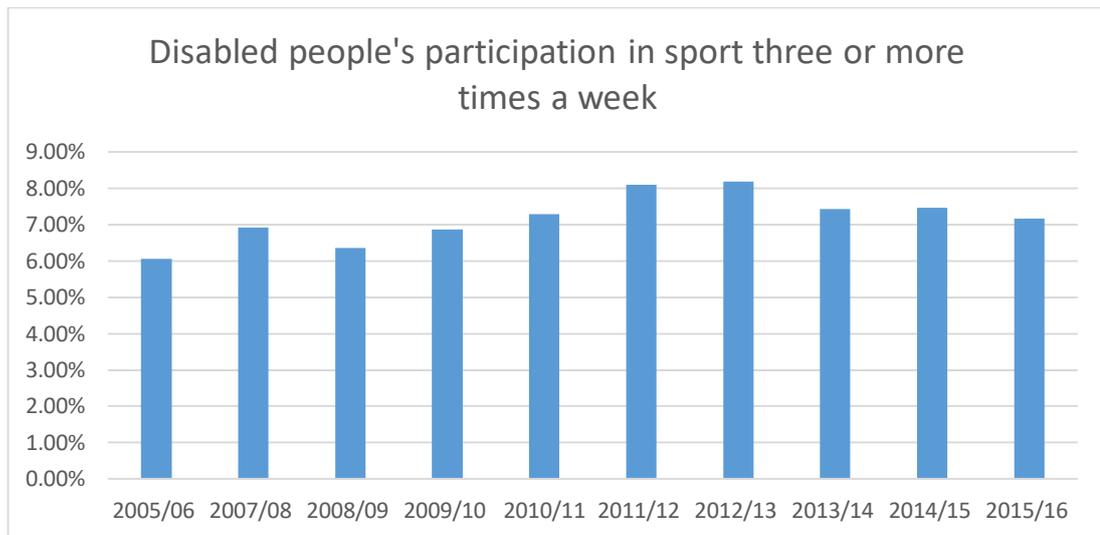
The once a week participation rates of disabled people by age category (Figure 3) reveals that the older a person gets, the less once a week participation occurs as a whole. The 16-19 age category has experienced the largest drop-off rate of any age category, with an 11.7% decrease in once a week participation in 2016 compared to 2006. The participation of this age-group was declining before the LPG, but the LPG might have provided a boost to the participation rates of this age-group for the three years immediately after the LPG, before falling 4.5% from 2015 to 2016. The majority of the age categories suggest there was a slight increase in participation in the APS wave the year after the LPG, in 2013. Only the 35-44 years-old and the 45-54 years-old age categories experienced a decrease after the LPG, but the decrease was negligible and of little significance, with a decline of 0.6% and 0.4%, respectively. Disabled people in the 26-34-years-old age category experienced the greatest decrease in participation since the October 2013 data, with a 7.3% fall in once a week participation. In contrast, the 20-25 years-old age category largely stayed at the same participation rate during the same time period, with a negligible decrease of 0.1% recorded. The findings from the age category analysis suggests the LPG might have increased, albeit marginally, the participation rates of most age categories. Since October 2013, one year after the LPG, participation rates of disabled people across all age-groups have declined.

Figure 3: National once a week participation of disabled people aged 16+ by age category (Active People Interactive 2017).



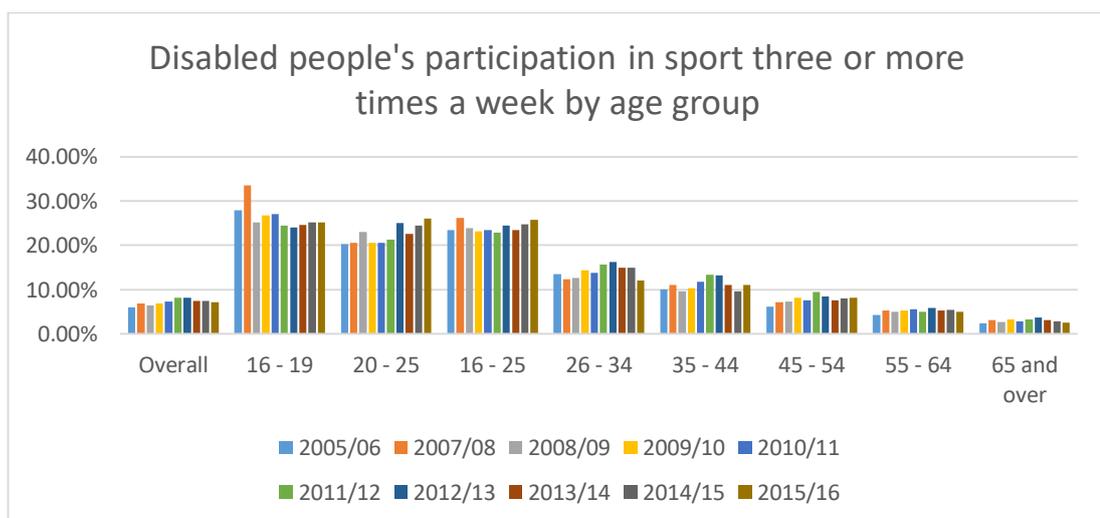
The hosting of the LPG may have encouraged those who were already active to participate more frequently (Figure 4). This is an assumption based on the likelihood of previously inactive individuals going from no sport participation to sport participation three or more times a week being unlikely. The proportion of disabled people who participated in sport at least three times was at its highest in October 2013, which followed the previous year’s high for three or more times sport participation in a week. The rates of three or more times a week participation has fallen slightly since October 2013 (1.02% in 2016), but the rates have remained relatively constant since October 2013. The overall increase since 2005, however, is not especially significant (1.1%), thus the participation rates have remained at a similar level for the past ten years. The LPG may have been able to inspire some disabled people to participate a bit more than previously, but the overall impact has been minor. The temporary boost to sport participation from the LPG may be apparent in the data for disabled people participating in sport at least three times a week in the North East. The North East region had one of the lowest three times a week participation rates in the country in October 2006 (5.52%). This figure increased to 9.41% in October 2013. In October 2016, however, the number of disabled people in the North East that were participating in sport at least three times a week fell to 4.55%, lower than the level recorded in October 2006. Three of the regions (East Midlands; North East; West Midlands) experienced lower levels of participation in sport at least three times a week in 2016 compared to 2006. On the other hand, the remaining six regions grew the number of people participating at least three times a week. The changes, in either direction, were minor, however. Since October 2012, all of the impairment categories in the APS recorded decreases in the amount of disabled people participating in sport at least three times a week.

Figure 4: National three or more times a week participation in sport by disabled people aged 16+ in England (Active People Interactive, 2017).



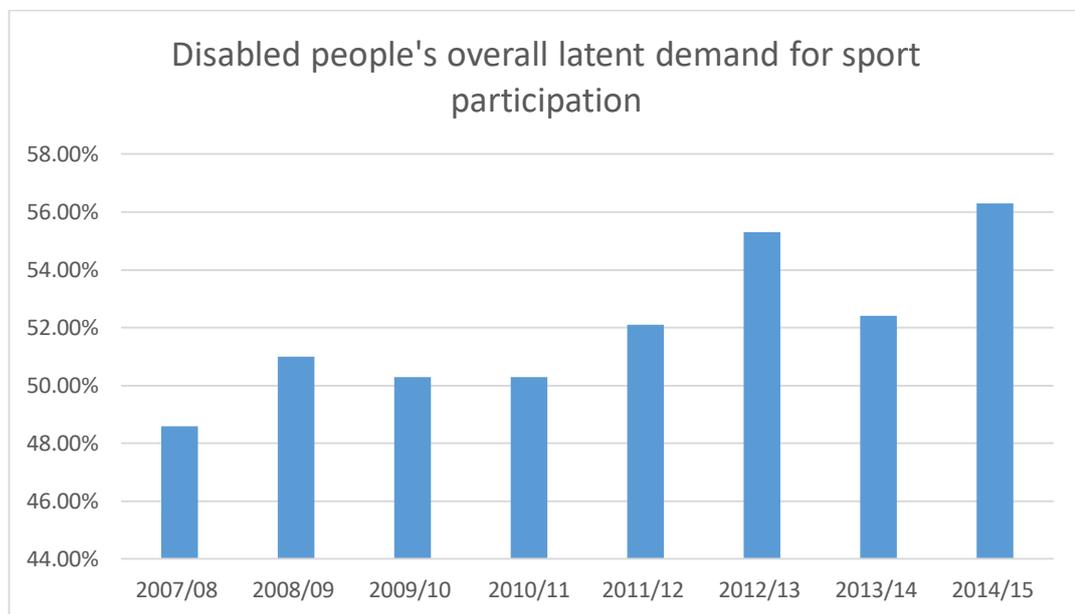
Most age categories have largely stayed at similar participation rates since 2006 (Figure 5), but three age categories have experienced slightly greater changes. Disabled people aged 16-19 years-old have participated in sport at least three times a week 2.7% less in 2016 than was the case in 2006. Disabled people aged between 20-25 years-old, however, have increased their three times a week participation by 5.8% over the same time period. In addition, there has been an increase of 4.7% in the number of disabled people aged 20-25 years-old participating in sport at least three times a week since October 2012. On the other hand, the number of disabled adults aged between 26 and 35 years-old participating in sport three times a week or more has decreased by 3.7% since October 2012.

Figure 5: National three or more times a week participation in sport by disabled people aged 16+ by age category (Active People Interactive 2017).



Demand for sport from disabled people has increased (7.6%) since it was first measured in October 2008 (Figure 6). The latent demand for sport participation figures for disabled people and non-disabled people is much closer than the respective participation rates. In October 2008, 48.6% of disabled people wanted to participate in more sport, compared to 54.8% of non-disabled people, a gap of 6.2% between disabled people and non-disabled people. In October 2016, however, the gap between disabled and non-disabled people’s latent demand for sport participation had narrowed, reducing from 6.2% to 2%, with 56.3% of disabled people keen to participate in more sport compared to 58.3% of non-disabled people. Despite similar levels of latent demand, the gap between disabled people (16.8%) and non-disabled people’s (39.9%) once a week sport participation is 23.1%. This suggests disabled people are being prevented from participating in sport more so than is the case for non-disabled people. It is possible that the LPG may have increased demand for sport participation amongst disabled people, but that this demand has not been converted into regular participation because of structural, societal, or individual barriers to participation.

Figure 6: Disabled people’s latent demand for sport participation in England (Active People Interactive 2017).



The increased latent demand amongst disabled people for more sport participation has been fuelled predominately by younger adults rather than older adults, particularly those aged between sixteen and nineteen. The 16-19 years-old age category has seen an increase of 17.1% in latent demand for sport in October 2015 since October 2008. During the same time period, and in the same age category, non-disabled people’s latent demand for additional sport participation increased at a slower rate of 14.5%. The peak in latent demand for more sport participation amongst 16-19 disabled year-olds (84.6%) was recorded in October 2014, which was 14.1% greater than that of non-disabled people. It is possible the LPG might have played a role in the increased latent demand for more sport participation amongst 16-19 disabled year-olds. The latent demand for sport amongst disabled people aged between 20-25 years-old was not as strong as those aged between sixteen and nineteen, but there is tentative evidence for the role of the LPG in stimulating demand for more sport participation. In October 2012, the latent demand for more sport participation for disabled people aged between 20-25 years-old was 73.2%, but this grew to 79.9% in October 2013, before subsiding to 71.7% in October 2014. These figures might suggest that the LPG was able to provide a temporary boost in demand for

more sport amongst this age-group, but that increased demand was temporary. The temporal nature of the increased demand might have been more prevalent for disabled people aged between 20-25 years-old than was the case for 16-19-year-olds, because the older age-group might be less respondent and receptive to inspiration from Paralympians than the younger age-group. This is because the relevance and congruence between the Paralympian and the older individual may be less potent.

In summary, the APS data suggests the LPG had, at best, a temporary positive impact on disabled people's sport participation. In the years after the LPG, however, disabled people's sport participation rates have declined, despite a general desire to participate in more sport. It would seem barriers to participation are preventing sustainable sports participation from being achieved, and that the impact of the LPG on sport participation was temporary at best.

4.3.2 Insights from data provided by NGBs

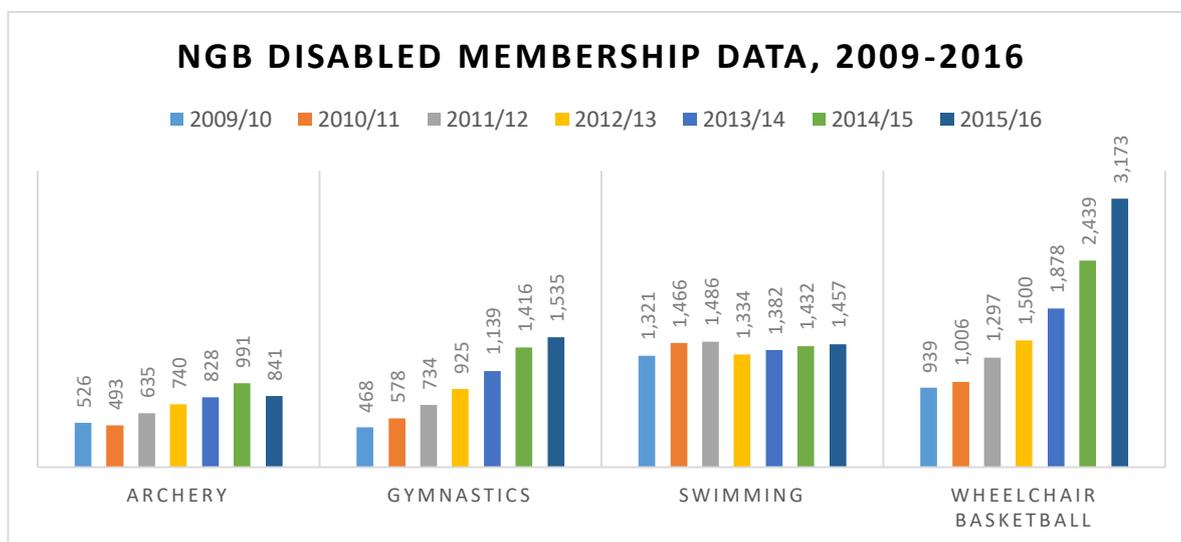
This section of the chapter reviews the data provided by NGBs regarding the participation of disabled people in their respective sport. Emails were sent to the forty-two NGBs in receipt of 2013-17 WSP funding⁶ from Sport England for grassroots disability sport participation, in order to obtain information regarding the number of disabled people participating in their sport during the time period of 2005-2016. This time period was chosen to reflect the date from the confirmation of London's right to host the LPG in 2005 to the date of data collection in 2016, which also represented a full Paralympic cycle after the LPG. The quality of the NGB data was variable in quality and detail. No NGB was able to provide full data sets for the original time period of 2005-2016. This was down to either the NGB not previously recording the data, or because previous data collected by the NGB was incompatible with their current reporting practices. Of the forty-two NGBs that were contacted, twenty-three provided some information regarding participation data. Four different types of data were provided by the twenty-three NGBs: membership figures ($n = 11$); participants engaged in the NGB's participation programmes ($n = 11$); affiliated disability clubs or teams ($n = 2$); monthly APS figures ($n = 1$). Two NGBs provided more than one data source: Archery GB provided both membership figures and affiliated clubs; England Golf provided membership and participation data. This is why the total number for the data sources is twenty-five instead of twenty-three, the sample size. Four NGBs provided membership data from 2009/10 to 2015/16, whilst just two NGBs were able to provide participant data for the same time-period. Two NGBs provided affiliated teams or clubs data for the same time period, whilst one NGB provided APS data for that time period. The remaining NGBs provided a range of data collected at different time points. Data provided by NGBs for their memberships or participant programmes for the time-period of 2009/10 to 2015/16 will be reviewed. This is to ensure tentative comparisons can be made between the sports. Consequently, just 6 of the 42 NGBs' membership ($n = 4$) and programme participant ($n = 2$) data will be assessed.

4.3.2.1 Disabled people's membership to NGBs, 2009/10 to 2015/16

The 4 NGBs have increased their disability membership, albeit at different magnitudes (Figure 7).

⁶ Whole Sport Plans are documents outlining how the NGB intends to use the funding from Sport England to meet specific Sport England objectives, including increased sport participation. Whole Sport Plans funding was awarded for the following time periods: 2005-2009, 2009-2013, and 2013-2017.

Figure 7: Disabled people's membership to the NGBs for archery, gymnastics, swimming, and wheelchair basketball, 2009-2015 (Personal communications: 28 April 2016; 20 July 2016; 01 December 2016; 21 July 2016).



Swimming has only seen a rise in their membership of 136 since the 2009/10 membership year. This is despite swimming being the sport with the highest overall medal tally at the LPG (Kirk 2016), as well as well-known Paralympians such as Ellie Simmonds. This is despite strong conditions for the demonstration effect to emerge for the Amateur Swimming Association (ASA). The reality at the grassroots level for the ASA, however, has been limited growth, which has amounted to stagnant membership figures in reality. Some of the interviewees attributed the limited growth in membership to be a combination of poor strategy from the ASA and closure of publicly affordable and accessible swimming pools:

“I don’t think any of us understand...what the ASA are trying to achieve. I think they don’t have a clear strategy for participation. They keep introducing programmes and then changing them...So you tend to find that they put the swimming in with the membership deal on their fitness programmes. And quite a lot of disabled people just don’t want to buy in to that or can’t afford to buy into those. Casual swimming, [which] used to be the bedrock of participation for disabled people, has gone.” (NDSO Three).

“We’re going through the transformational change programme now, which should really move the governing body on. So, I think we’re in a good place. We’re certainly not heading the league table of governing bodies, but we’re not swimming!” (NGB Eight).

“The aquatics officers for the ASA presented some of their research and insight...and they suddenly realised that all the sessions that go on in the swimming pool could be accessible for disabled people, and that maybe they should be a bit more inclusive with their approach. I just thought, ‘you know what, I’ve been banging on about this to you for 5 or 6 years’...And it’s got the facility to suddenly realise, ‘oh. We didn’t know we might have needed to put that additional rail in that shower cubicle so that people could stand themselves up’. How have you been operating as a commercial business, as a leisure centre, without knowing that information!?” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

Gymnastics and wheelchair basketball have experienced good growth rates in their membership figures, relative to their size (Figure 7). The number of disabled people who were members of British Gymnastics in 2015/16 (1,535) increased by 227.99% since the 2009/10 membership year (468). As of the 2015/16 membership year, there were more disabled people who were members of British Gymnastics (1,535) compared to the ASA (1,457). This is despite gymnastics not being a sport included in the LPG and the strong medal winning performance of the Great British Paralympian swimmers at the LPG. One interviewee suggested British Gymnastics were unable to respond to demand for gymnastics after London 2012, due to limited resources of the NGB:

“I would cite gymnastics as an ideal example of that. They were overwhelmed with enquiries for disability gymnastics after London 2012 and did not know how to cope with it. And weren’t equipped to cope with it.” (NDSO Three).

Despite British Gymnastics’ apparent struggle to respond to the heightened demand for gymnastics from disabled people after the LPG, they have been able to increase their membership more successfully than other higher profile sports, such as swimming. British Gymnastics may have started from a lower base figure than other sports, such as swimming, but they have been able to increase their membership figures year in year out. One of the possible reasons for the increase in gymnastics membership could be a transference from the success of gymnastics at the 2012 London Olympic Games. Some disabled people may have been ‘inspired’ by watching the gymnastics at the 2012 Olympic Games and decided to give the sport a go, which would be consistent with the evidence offered by the NDSO Three participant.

One NGB that was able to surpass British Gymnastics’ increase in membership was the British Wheelchair Basketball Association (BWB). Since the 2009/10 membership year (939), BWB have increased their membership to 3,173 members in the 2015/16 membership year, a rise of 237.91%. Wheelchair basketball, as a sport, may have benefited from having recognisable current and ex-players from the sport, such as Ade Adepitan. Wheelchair basketball may have also benefited from the presence of prominent individuals in Paralympic sport, such as the former IPC President, Sir Philip Craven, having strong links to the sport:

“[Wheelchair basketball] Always been pretty good; I think it [LPG] probably did have a fairly positive impact on participation for that sport. It looks great, they’ve got some recognisable players on the GB team, which helps, I think, and they’ve got quite a lot of exposure.” (CSP One).

Wheelchair basketball was not a medal winning sport for Paralympics Great Britain, but is commonly thought to be a sport synonymous with the Paralympics, as one interviewee highlighted:

“I would say that that’s a sport, again, obviously it does tend to get a good profile at events like the Paralympics. People are very aware of it. I would say that was the sport people were very aware of prior to 2012; things like 2012 have increased that.” (CSP Two).

BWB have been able to grow their membership significantly, which might have been helped by the original membership levels being low, but BWB’s rate of growth has still been substantial, especially compared to sports of a similar size:

“Since London, in terms of regular members playing, playing on a regular basis, we’ve doubled in size, in four years. Now, that’s an easier thing to do because of the level we started at, but we’ve still done that at a much more rapid rate than some other Paralympic sports or Olympics sports, that could have equally had that low level to start from.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

BWB has been able to grow their membership base substantially, and the LPG appears to have played an important role in this.

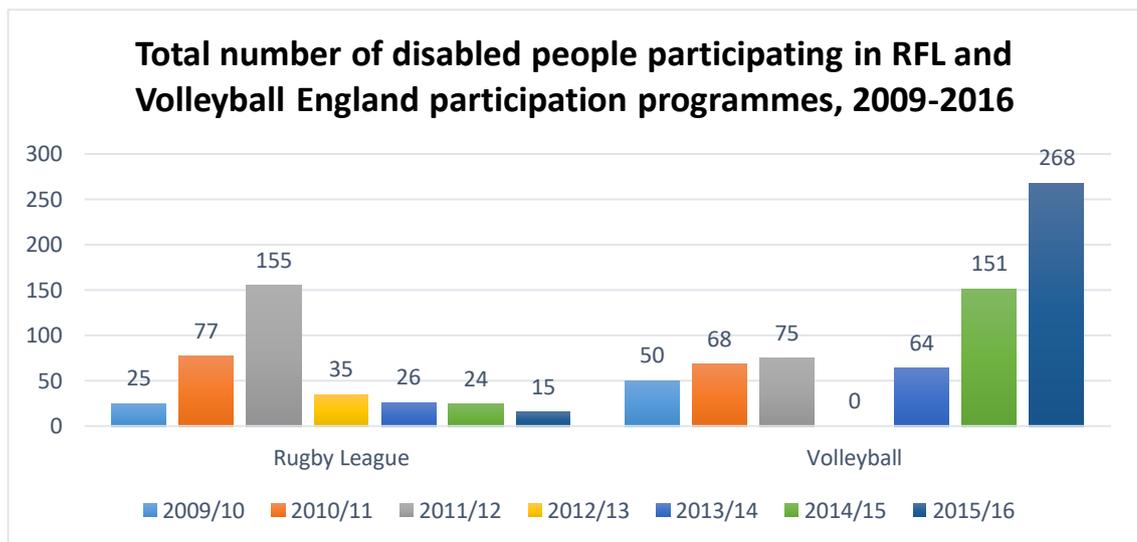
4.3.2.2 Disabled participant data from NGB-run programmes, 2009/10 to 2015/16

Only 2 NGBs, the Rugby Football League (RFL) and Volleyball England, were able to provide disabled participant data for their participation programmes for the timeframe of 2009-2016. For Volleyball England’s data, participant data for 2012/13 was absent because of how Volleyball England captured their data:

“We tracked a slightly different number and recorded the total number of people playing sitting volleyball, and not just those with a disability playing regularly, so unfortunately it’s not possible to give a definitive number”. (Personal communication, 20 April 2016).

This therefore makes assessing the impact of the LPG on the participant data for Volleyball England difficult. Difficulties notwithstanding, the participant data for disabled people participating in rugby league and volleyball is displayed in Figure 8.

Figure 8: Total number of disabled people participating in RFL and Volleyball England participation programmes, 2009-2016 (Personal communications, 24 May 2016; 20 April 2016).



Volleyball England’s participant figures were largely consistent before the 2014/15 and 2015/16 seasons, which has seen an improvement in the number of disabled people participating in volleyball. This increase in participants for Volleyball England is unlikely to be influenced by the LPG. Rather, the drive by the NGB to make the sport more accessible and inclusive for disabled people has been the main reason for the increase in participants:

“...Pre-London it was very much around getting people who fit a fairly specific disability profile, who could go on and play for a Great Britain team. Since London and since we’ve transitioned... is to say, ‘actually, they’re not the only people we care about playing sitting volleyball; there’s a whole host of other people that could play sitting volleyball or, in fact, any other forms of the game, but happened to have disabilities, so what can we offer to those people?’ So, a huge number of the people that are playing sitting volleyball regularly now are playing in a much more recreational, much more adapted

environment versions of the game.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

Volleyball was a non-medal winning sport at the LPG, and the LPG was the first Paralympic Games when a Great British team competed in sitting volleyball (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality). Thus, there was limited scope for the demonstration effect from the LPG to be utilised for increased participation in volleyball. The data and evidence for volleyball would suggest the direct impact of the LPG on the participation of disabled people in volleyball was inconsequential.

Rugby league was not a sport included in the LPG, but wheelchair rugby was a sport featured at the LPG. Though the two sports are very different, a possible crossover effect from wheelchair rugby's participation at the LPG to rugby league might have occurred. The evidence would suggest this was not the case and that the LPG had no impact on the participation of disabled people in rugby league. The RFL's participant figures went from 155 in the 2011/12 season to 15 in the 2015/16 season, a drop of 90.3%. It is important to point out that the RFL's participation figures at the end of the 2009/10 season was 25, and this has remained largely consistent, apart from the 2010/11 (77) and 2011/12 (155) seasons. The decline in participants was largely due to limited resource and funding for the wheelchair version of the sport. This was exacerbated by the reality that the wheelchair version of the sport was a low priority for the RFL:

“We don't receive any funding to develop the wheelchair offer...It's fair to say that without that funding it doesn't then become a priority. And as such we don't really have a whole lot of resource to go into it...The governing body resources wheelchair rugby league from sources other than the Whole Sport Plans.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

“In April 2013 our funding from Sport England reduced from £29.4m over four years to £17m – we cut 100 Community Rugby League Coaches and about 50% of our centrally employed staff. The League for All Programme, which covered Wheelchair RL - which would have generated the majority of these registrations, was significantly cut as a result.” (Personal communication, 25.05.2016).

Based on the RFL and Volleyball England's participation data, the LPG appears to have left no discernible trace for these sports.

What conclusions can be drawn regarding the impact of the LPG on disabled people's sport participation in the 6 sports highlighted in this section? The impact of the LPG on sport participation has been sporadic and of little consequence to the grassroots sport participation strategies of these NGBs. Only the sport of wheelchair basketball appears to have seen a boost in their sport participation linked to the LPG. As a disability-focused sport, this is perhaps not surprising. But, for sports that are not primarily designed for disabled people, the majority of the sports have witnessed no noticeable impact from the LPG. Disabled people's participation in gymnastics has increased significantly but, as a sport not included at the LPG, the role of the LPG in this increase is difficult to ascertain. There may have been a crossover effect from the success of gymnastics at the London 2012 Olympic Games, but the evidence for this argument is limited. In fact, the growth in disabled people's participation in gymnastics is likely to have been fuelled by British Gymnastics' 'I'M IN' programme (Personal communication, 6 September 2016). The LPG therefore appears to have had very little direct impact on the sport participation of disabled people in the 6 sports profiled.

4.3.3 Interrogating the demonstration effect: The role of the LPG in the participation of disabled people in medal-winning and non-medal winning sports

This section will focus on the impact of the LPG on disabled people's sport participation in 7 specific sports. Chapter 4 provides more detail on why these 7 sports were chosen, but the aim of choosing these 7 sports was to interrogate the demonstration effect from the LPG in more detail. By selecting specific sports, this analysis will enable a granular approach to the analysis of the impact of the LPG sport participation legacy. This specificity will provide greater detail about the circumstances in which the LPG was a success, for whom, and why. The section begins by reviewing the impact of the LPG on 4 sports that won medals at the LPG. Following this, 3 sports that did not win medals at the LPG will be assessed. The section concludes by reviewing the role of the LPG in the participation of disabled people in the 7 sports.

4.3.3.1 Medal-winning sports

4 of the 7 selected sports won at least a bronze medal at the LPG. Only 1 of the sports, equestrian, featured gold medal winning Paralympians. Boccia, table tennis, and tennis did not win gold medals, but Paralympians in these sports all won at least a bronze. The influence of the LPG in the sport participation of disabled people will be the focus of this section. The most successful of the 4 profiled sports, equestrian, is the first sport to be assessed.

4.3.3.1.1 Equestrian

Equestrian was the sport with the 4th highest total number of medals of all sports at the LPG, with a total of 11 medals won by equestrian Paralympians (Kirk 2016). Of the 11 medals, 5 were gold, making equestrian the 4th most successful sport by gold medal for Paralympic GB at the LPG (Kirk 2016). If the LPG was successful as a social programme boosting sport participation, it stands to reason that equestrian should be the sport of the 7 profiled to have received the most impact on sport participation as a result of the LPG. This is because the demonstration effect, the main theory behind using the LPG for increased sport participation, is likely to be most potent for sports that won gold medals. This is due to gold-medal winning Paralympians being the most likely source of the medal-winners to engender inspiration as a result of their achievements at the LPG, due to being the best athlete in their sport. In addition, the media coverage afforded to gold medal winners is likely to be more prevalent and concentrated than would be the case for silver and bronze medal winning Paralympians. Of course, some Paralympians may have a backstory that is appealing to the media narrative, thus this might result in some non-gold medal winning Paralympians receiving significant media coverage. Overall, however, gold medal winning Paralympians are likely to have been the strongest source for the demonstration effect to have operated.

It was not possible to obtain data regarding disabled people's grassroots participation in equestrian. From the in-depth interviews, it would appear that the Riding for the Disabled Association (RDA), the organisation that supports disabled people in equestrianism, 'were already oversubscribed anyway' (CSP One) before the LPG. Thus, the RDA was already operating at capacity, and therefore it would have been difficult for the RDA to have been able to take on additional participants at their riding centres:

"...We didn't see a dramatic increase in demand. It's a slightly interesting one for us...so there's far more demand than we can possibly meet for what we do, so it's quite hard for us to measure how much more [emphasis] the over demand has become. In 2011 and 2013, we still couldn't meet the demand, but we don't know how many more people there were that we couldn't find places for in 2013. So, it's not that there wasn't one, it's just that we didn't particularly notice it." (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

The LPG does not appear to have had any specific impact on attracting new participants to the sport. The RDA did, however, notice an increase in the number of existing riders that wanted to compete at a higher level:

“So, the number of people who wanted to ride [emphasis] didn’t jump up, but the number of people who already ride, but who want to compete, did. And we’ve had a big increase in the number of people with learning disabilities who want to compete more who feel anything from frustrated to cross that the Paralympics doesn’t involve them.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

This might lend some support to the demonstration effect theory, in that existing RDA riders may have been inspired by the LPG to want to either increase the frequency of the participation, or the intensity at which they participate. It is interesting that some people with learning difficulties were inspired by the LPG to want to compete at a higher standard, despite the lack of learning difficulties inclusion in para equestrianism. It is important to point out, however, that the vast majority of the RDA’s riders are people who have learning difficulties:

“...Just about three quarters of our riders have a learning disability, they have no physical disability...A vast number of our riders are school kids with learning disabilities who are brought on school programmes or educational programmes.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

It is therefore possible that it was riders with a learning difficulty that wanted to participate at a higher level, simply because that was the overriding segment of the RDA’s consumer base. The individual at the RDA did suggest there was an, albeit small, increase in the number of disabled people with a physical impairment who have taken up equestrian:

“I couldn’t tell you the relevance of it, and we never looked at it, but there was a slight increase in the number of people with physical disabilities coming to us after the Paralympics. Possibly that [LPG] was linked to it. And riders with physical disabilities tend to be slightly older...there wasn’t any obvious or significant change to the profile of people coming to us.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

Accompanying the increase in the number of existing riders that wanted to compete at a higher level, the RDA was able to increase the number of volunteers at their disposal following the LPG. The LPG does appear to have played a prominent role in the upswing in the number of volunteers the RDA has:

“We saw a very [emphasis] specific spike in the number of volunteers and, anecdotally, a lot of our centres picked up volunteers from the Games Makers’ programmes...So, in the immediate aftermath, our volunteers went from about 18,000 to 20,000. And now we seemed to have settled down at about just over 19,000. We were at between 17,000 and 18,000 volunteers for about the previous ten years, and we now seem to be at about 19,000, so we saw a definite up and then it dropped, but not down to the level it was at before...And a lot of those were volunteers with a different profile from the ones we’ve previously had.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

The increase in volunteers brought about by the LPG is particularly important for the RDA, as ‘...volunteers, funding, and horses are three barriers to growth’ (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality) for the RDA. In addition, the RDA benefitted from the LPG because ‘it gave us a huge shot in the arm’ as the RDA is ‘not a particularly well-known organisation outside of the horsey world, and it helped us push that up a bit more’ (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality). The LPG appears to have helped the RDA develop the organisation and increase its profile, as well as the income potential of the RDA:

“My comms team said to me, about three to four weeks ago, ‘just to let you know that we’ve got the BBC doing this, this and this’, and I was thinking, ‘fine’. And then I was laughing with my comms manager saying, ‘it wasn’t that long ago where if the BBC had phoned up and wanted to do something about us we’d have all got really excited, and now you’re just sending me an email to let me know it’s happening’...So the BBC know that if they want a credible source on a horse involving disability, or whatever, that they come to us and we’ll sort that out for them really quickly...And, ultimately, money; it’s [LPG] helped us increase and maintain a much higher income.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

The inspiration from the success of gold winning Paralympians, such as Sophie Christiansen, was apparent, particularly amongst younger disabled people. The Paralympian riders were role models for some young disabled people, particularly existing riders, who wanted to emulate the achievements of the successful Paralympians:

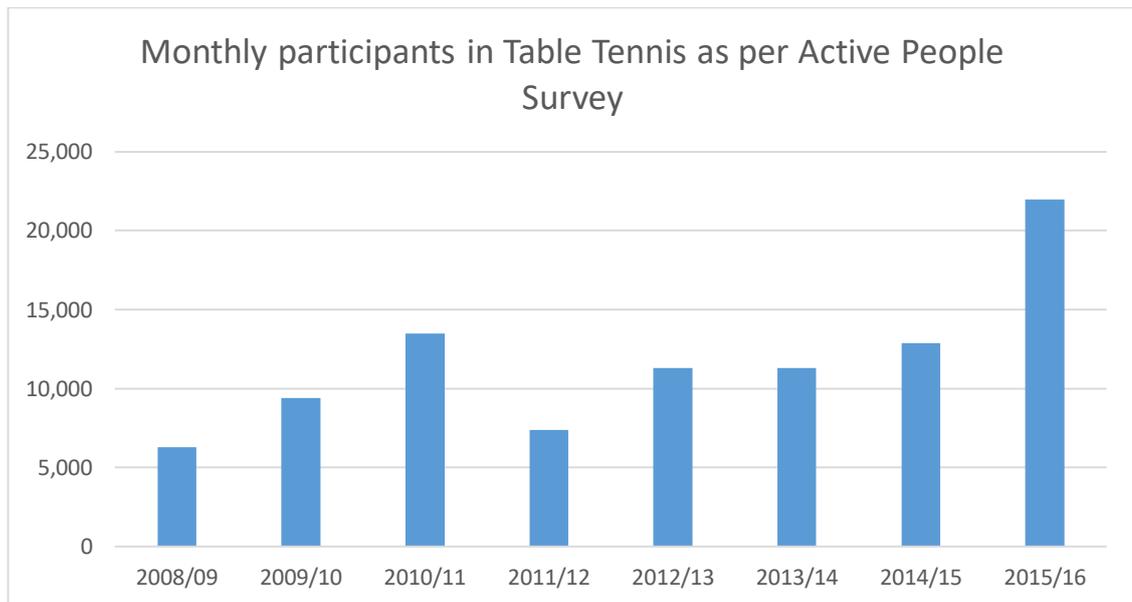
“I think it’s predominately younger people. I couldn’t say for certain and I guess I’m making big assumptions there. But it seems to be predominately for younger people...I know all of those riders are absolutely an inspiration to loads of young riders. We have canvassed examples of younger kids who are desperate to go and see, meet, watch Natasha, Sophie, whoever, do their riding, do their stuff.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

Overall, equestrian seems to have benefitted from the hosting of the LPG. The profile of the RDA has been boosted by the LPG, and this has played a part in helping to increase the income of the RDA. Some existing riders were inspired by the LPG to compete at a higher level than they were previously operating at. There has been a net gain in the volunteer numbers for the RDA since the LPG, which helps support participation endeavours. As the most successful LPG sport included in this research, the equestrian Paralympians appear to have been a source of inspiration to some disabled people, particularly existing riders and young riders. Despite the successes for the RDA, the LPG has not, directly, increased the number of new riders for the RDA. It is difficult to be certain whether this is a failure of the LPG, or due to a failure of data capture and monitoring. In any case, the LPG appears to have provided the RDA with indirect benefits to the organisation, rather than a direct impact on the number of new riders at the grassroots level.

4.3.3.1.2 Table Tennis

Until the 2015/16 APS wave, the APS data for table tennis suggests participation has been fairly flat between 2009/10 to 2014/15 (Figure 9). The final APS wave suggested participation in table tennis increased just under double the rate recorded in the previous APS wave.

Figure 9: Disabled people's monthly participation in table tennis (Personal communication, 05 December 2016).



The reasons for the flat participation rates of disabled people in table tennis could be attributed to failings of the NGB in their preparations for the LPG and a lack of insight into how disabled people consumed the sport. An in-depth interview with a senior manager at Table Tennis England revealed there was a lack of leveraging of the LPG by the NGB. In addition, the NGB had not made any deliberate plans to increase grassroots participation as a result of the LPG. Compounding the lack of leveraging of the LPG was the general absence of insight regarding disabled people in table tennis:

“A lot of the information was out of date, so in terms of people then phoning up clubs, and clubs not existing anymore or phoning up sessions and not having a table, and then they would come back to us and say, ‘where’s my nearest club?’. We are now just looking at a club database, so out of the 1500 table tennis clubs in the country, we’ve only got direct contact with 190 of them...In terms of it being the right session for that person, and for what their needs are, then I think they would have found it difficult, because they still are finding it difficult, if that makes sense?” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

In addition to the lack of insight, there also appears to have been a struggle for the NGB to be totally inclusive in how it is governed:

“I think the disability stuff, it kind of gets pushed to the back of people’s lists, I think. It’s seen as a nice thing to do as an extra, rather than a thing that we should be doing, and we should be making our programmes more inclusive.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

Table Tennis England went through an internal restructure after the LPG which is likely to have had an effect on what the NGB could do regarding grassroots sport for disabled people. The CSPs that were interviewed generally believed that the LPG has not had a major impact on the participation rates of table tennis. There appears to be an absence of a coherent grassroots strategy from the NGB, resulting in participation succeeding in pockets rather than being widespread:

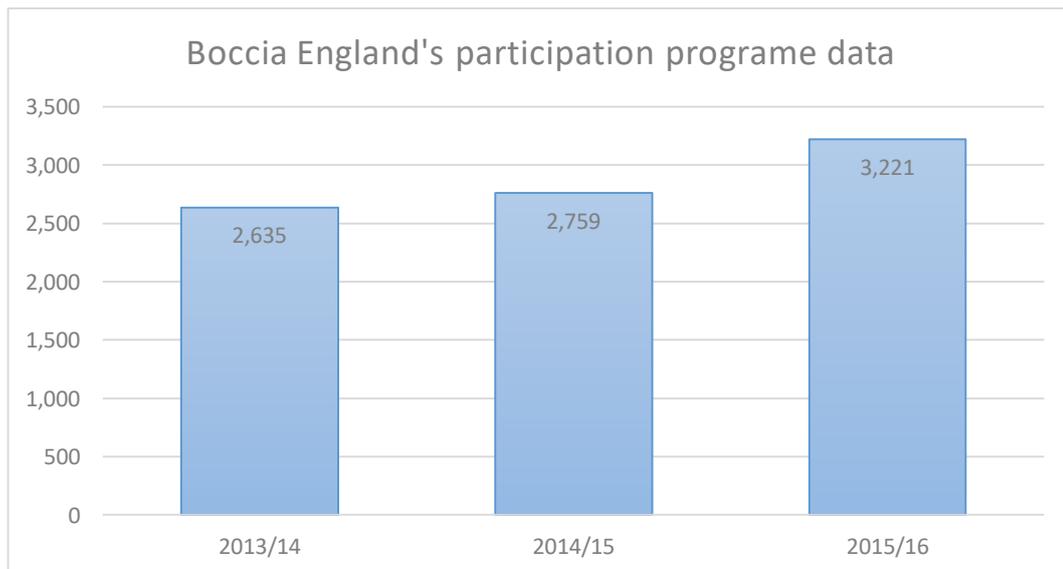
“I think table tennis, again, really struggled as an NGB anyway. So, when you’re struggling anyway, disability always comes to the bottom of the pile. Again, anecdotally, I know lots of little bits of table tennis, but not necessarily in a particularly joined-up strategic way... In terms of widespread changing, I don’t know it [LPG] made a huge amount of difference in [name of county].” (CSP One).

Table tennis won four medals in total at the LPG, with one silver and three bronze medals. The success of the sport’s Paralympians at the LPG, however, does not appear to have had a noticeable impact on the grassroots sport participation of disabled people in table tennis. At a local level, there appears to be sporadic table tennis participation. At a national level, the NGB did not have insight into disability participation. In addition, the NGB lacked knowledge of how to provide sport participation opportunities that were suitable to the motivations and requirements of disabled people. The lack of leveraging of the LPG is likely to have suppressed any potential demonstration effect from the LPG.

4.3.3.1.3 Boccia

Boccia England has been able to increase the number of participants that have taken part in their programmes each year since the beginning of their 2013-17 WSP (Figure 10).

Figure 10: Boccia England's participation programme data, 2013-2016 (Personal communication, 17 November 2016).



Boccia England have also increased the versions of the sport available to disabled people, with visually impaired boccia and pan-disability boccia supplementing their existing Paralympic offer. The decision to expand the versions of the sport was made as a result of the increased demand for the sport. Widening the potential pool of participants was viewed as a more effective strategy than only having a specific Paralympic version of the sport:

“...It put a pathway or structure and system to enable them to play to the national level, and those who wanted to actively compete and progress, it gave them that sort of pathway to do it, and they could see the progression to each level, so that really helped us because the interest was there, more people wanted to play, but we just needed to put programmes in place for it.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

For boccia, the LPG was thought to have boosted the profile of the sport and increased awareness amongst disabled people of the sport. As a small sport and a small NGB, boccia is a sport which hasn't traditionally been known by the general public, but the LPG has helped to raise the profile of the sport:

"People know what it is now. I said that in a flippant way, but I mean that. That is a major change for that sport...I'm not sure how structured it is. But there's lots of pockets of it going, definitely lots of pockets of boccia going on... But it's definitely been positive... Anecdotally, I think overall there's been a boost because of the exposure of the sport, really." (CSP One).

Though the profile has been raised, it is still a niche sport, as 'I don't think everybody's necessarily aware of it...I don't know if people would necessarily be aware of the other opportunities to play' (CSP Two). Despite being a relatively niche sport, boccia does appear to have been quite successful within local areas in England. Of the 7 sports profiled in this research, boccia seemed to have a consistent presence in the counties included in this study:

"Massive in this county. Before the Paralympic Games we had one small boccia club that was just started up by a parent that was developing nicely into a little club, but now we have three boccia clubs and we have a very successful county competition that feeds into the regional competition for schools." (CSP Three).

"Oh, boccia's been integral within the county from word dot, pretty much. We...promote and develop boccia as a matter of course within the county, and that profile's raising and raising. We're including more and more clubs or we're supporting more and more clubs to set-up within the county. (CSP Six).

"Boccia clubs have been running a number of years, so [name of boccia club] has been running five or six years. [Name of boccia club] was set up on the back of the Inclusive Sport Fund that was received from Sport England. And because there's been steady numbers attending and such like; it's carried on. That's now started with the [name of boccia club] entering the regional competitions for the first time." (DSO One).

The hosting of the LPG has enabled boccia to become more established at the school level than was the case before the right to bid the Games was confirmed in 2005. Boccia was one of the sports that was included as part of the inclusive offer for the School Games. This has helped to increase the exposure of the sport at a regional level for a younger audience. This is unlikely to have been possible without the inclusive offer in the School Games, which was an intervention linked to the LPG:

"If you talk to that governing body [Boccia England] they will say the School Games has really driven a huge growth in participation in their sport...So, sports like boccia, table tennis, sitting volleyball, goalball in many cases, have featured in the School Games, and they would never have been county level competition before the right to host the London Olympic and Paralympic Games. And, of course, if it's in the level three, that means it has to be delivered at level two, which means it gets introduced to children at level one." (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

"In [name of county], Boccia has become much more established within the [name of county] School Games programme, and has expanded and now runs its own stand-alone event)." (CSP Four).

The School Games have been beneficial for boccia, certainly in terms of exposure and raising the profile, but it might not have provided regular participants as much as the NGB would have desired:

“The numbers of people playing the sport are huge, numbers of schools and people doing the sport, great. It’s a great way of raising the profile and making people and kids understand what boccia is...I think sometimes in the School Games they need an inclusive offer at their School Games, whatever level they’re at, and boccia’s a very easy one to put on sometimes. So therefore, they’ll then just put it on and say, ‘here’s our inclusive offer; it’s boccia’, and they’ll get lots of people playing it. Great, can’t complain about that, but it doesn’t necessarily allow people who want to focus and try the sport properly to see it first-hand.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

Boccia won two medals at the LPG, one silver and one bronze, but the direct impact of medal success on participation was difficult to ascertain:

“There’s always an initial interest after London 2012. I think a lot of people were suddenly interested and hyped by the Games. Whether or not that materialised into actual participation is difficult to actually know because we couldn’t jump on every request of people wanting to set up and do stuff, we had to carefully and strategically manage where we wanted to go and set up.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

The interviewee from Boccia England believed David Smith, an individual and team medallist at the LPG, was a source of inspiration, particularly for people with severe impairments:

“So, someone like David Smith...he has the power to inspire other players who have similar impairments to go on and achieve something, because they can see it and go, ‘yep, he can do it, so can I’...The type of people and the athletes we engage with there isn’t any other sport for them to play. Our guys, at the Paralympic level; boccia is their sport. It’s designed specifically for them to fit their quite severe physical impairments. People being able to relate to that and see people getting any success and exposure to the media, all that sort of stuff, I think definitely inspires people to then drive on and do it themselves.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

The inspiration from David Smith was thought to be particularly resonant with disabled children:

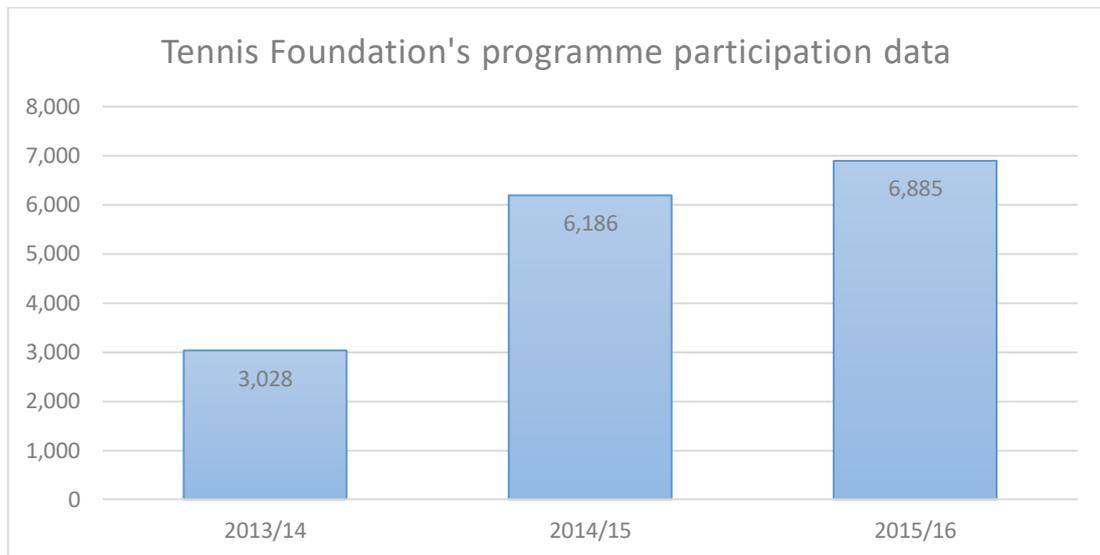
“With him just being able to come down and show people a gold medal, the kids going, ‘oh my god! That’s amazing! That’s a gold medal from the Paralympics’. He’s like a role-model to them in boccia, therefore he can kind of show them the way of what they need to do, or tell them about what things to expect, and things like that, and inspiring them and talking to them and saying, ‘you can do it. You just need to put your mind to it and focus’. So, yeah, it’s a big influence on kids.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

Whether the success of boccia at the LPG influenced the increase in participants and clubs that are available is difficult to tell. What does seem to be more definitive is the effect the LPG has had on boccia’s profile and the wider awareness of the sport amongst disabled people. It is difficult to be sure, but without the LPG, boccia may not have received a boost to their profile in the same way as they appear to have had.

4.3.3.1.4 Tennis

The number of monthly participants as part of the Tennis Foundation’s grassroots participation offer has grown at a substantial rate (Figure 11). At the end of 2014, the number of monthly participants was 3,028, but this has risen to 6,885 at the end of 2016, an increase of 127.38% over the time period. It would appear, therefore, that ‘...there’s far more people playing tennis now [emphasis] than there was ten years ago, particularly wheelchair tennis’ (CSP Five).

Figure 11: The Tennis Foundation's programme participation data, 2013-2016 (Personal communication, 11 May 2017).



Wheelchair tennis was a sport in which Paralympics GB won two medals in at the LPG, a silver and a bronze. The interviewee from the Tennis Foundation did not think the LPG was an effective method to increase participation. In their opinion, it is much more important to get the basic participation experience right, rather than hope there will be a transference of inspiration from the elite to the grassroots level. Instead, the LPG provided impetus for the Tennis Foundation to develop their grassroots offer at a structural level:

“We’ve taken the inspiration as much as we can, but it’s been very much about making sure that, if you are disabled and you’d like to get involved in the sport, then this is how you do it...I think the gold dust from 2012, as I said, created the context. But that was about performance athletes, and there’s a limited link between performance athletes and grassroots. It’s [LPG] only really an inspirational role and going out and holding camps and clinics and wheeling them out, if you like, and being involved. I don’t think you can stretch it further than that.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

The Tennis Foundation did not have a grassroots structure in place before the LPG. Instead, the Tennis Foundation was primarily concerned with producing elite athletes for the sport. Thus, there would have been less scope for the Tennis Foundation to engage in specific leveraging activities targeted at the grassroots domain:

“...What it [LPG] highlighted to us was that, you know, we had like an inverse pyramid. We had a performance programme, you know, actually where is the base camp, if you like, for a foundation like the Tennis Foundation? You know, 90% of our work is around working with young people and doing the things that charitable foundations do, using tennis as a route to market, and then saying, ‘how do we use sport, in our case tennis, as a vehicle for having a greater impact on people?’” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

The strength of the Tennis Foundation, as an organisation, and the strategy they employ to provide opportunities for disabled people to participate, have been the principal reasons for the growth in disabled people’s participation in tennis. For most CSPs, ‘working with the Tennis

Foundation has been really good' (CSP Three), because of the support the Tennis Foundation provide for disabled people's participation in tennis:

"...To be honest with you, they [Tennis Foundation] do a good job. They're very good at supporting, both financially and in terms of resource and activity. So, I'd speak very highly of them; they do a very good job." (CSP Two).

"Yeah, they've [Tennis Foundation] got a really good team there, really dedicated. They are more strategically minded; they have more resources to get more disabled people playing...With tennis, the fact that they have the Tennis Foundation and such...dedicated work in [name of county], and the buy-in there at a senior level because of the chief exec and directors and stuff, has made a fairly profound difference. Whether that's because of the Paralympics is a different question." (CSP One).

As hinted by the CSP One participant, the LPG is unlikely to have been the driving force behind the good grassroots work for tennis. It is the strength of the Tennis Foundation and the resources they are able to plough into their work, that have been the principal reasons for the positive participation figures. The LPG, however, has probably helped to raise the profile of wheelchair tennis, allied with the increased presence and status of wheelchair tennis at the Wimbledon tennis championships, and the recent elite success of wheelchair tennis players:

"...I would definitely say that the Paralympics, coupled with things like Wimbledon, have helped to raise the profile of it [wheelchair tennis] ...That is one sport where I'd definitely say it seems like there's a bit of a head of steam behind it... progressing over the last four/five years, and is definitely moving in the right direction in terms of participation and people's awareness of the sport." (CSP Two).

A barrier to participation in wheelchair tennis 'is the actual access to sports wheelchairs' (CSP Two), 'and the expense of sports wheelchairs' (CSP Six). Access to sports wheelchairs is required if the individual wishes to participate to a good standard. Thus, the cost and access to sports wheelchairs can make it difficult to establish consistent activity in some areas of the country. Overall, however, participation in wheelchair tennis appears to have increased. The role of the LPG in this growth seems to have been one of numerous reasons for the growth in the sport. The LPG was likely most important in raising the profile of the sport and of the elite athletes that participate in the sport. The increased grassroots participation is most likely the result of factors other than the LPG. These include the financial resources at the disposal of the Tennis Foundation, the strategic nature of the Foundation, the focus on providing compelling participation experiences by building a strong structure at the grassroots level, and the strong profile of the sport as a result of wheelchair tennis' increased exposure and prominence in the Wimbledon championships.

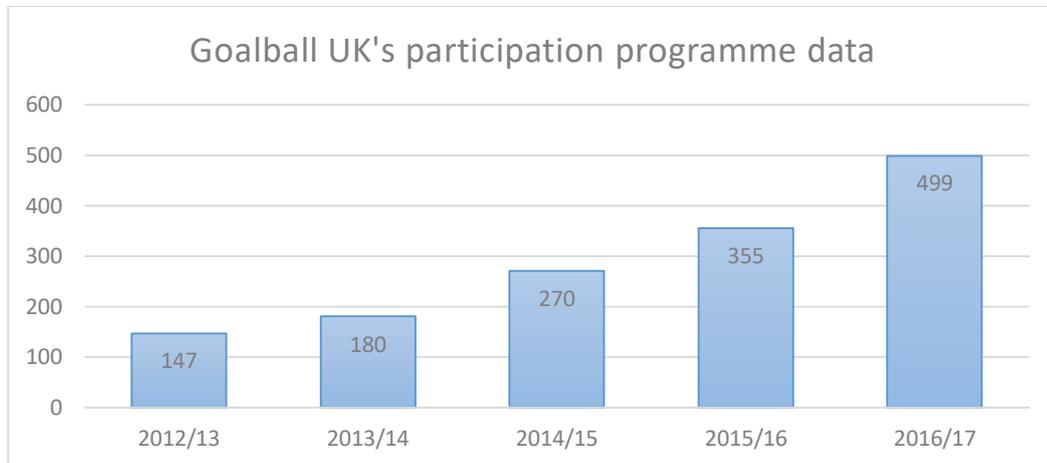
4.3.3.2 Non-medal winning sports

Having reviewed the 4 medal-winning sports at the LPG, this section will now focus on the 3 non-medal winning sports included in this study. Of the three non-medal winning sports, only wheelchair basketball is likely to have been known amongst the general public before the LPG. The LPG was the first time that sitting volleyball featured a GB team at the Paralympic Games (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality), whilst goalball is a sport with a limited profile in England (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality). The impact of the LPG on grassroots sport participation could therefore be limited for goalball and sitting volleyball.

4.3.3.2.1 Goalball

Like boccia, goalball has been able to increase the number of people participating in the sport, albeit at a lower number, and has had a boost to its profile since the LPG (Figure 12). Whether that is a direct result of the LPG is up for debate.

Figure 12: Goalball UK's programme participation data, 2012-2017 (Personal communication, 17 May 2016).



The funding Goalball UK received as a result of the 2013-17 WSP was probably more influential in developing the sport at a participation level than the LPG itself. Whether the WSP funding would have been received if it were not for the LPG, is also difficult to ascertain:

“...Post-London 2012 we were lucky enough to...be awarded the four-year funding cycle from Sport England and, arguably, that could be from the positive impact London 2012 had on goalball and that there was actually a need [emphasis] for more goalball, so that probably helped us gain funding from Sport England. That has obviously led to a huge [emphasis] increase of participation, particularly in goalball, and the participation rate increased at such a level between 2013 and 2014 that, at the end of 2014, we were awarded extra funding from Sport England for our good work over the past two years before. So, in terms of that, I think it's [LPG] worked really, really well.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

The profile of goalball likely did increase as a result of the LPG, but its profile probably has not increased to the same extent as that experienced for boccia. This is mainly due to the sport being limited to one impairment group, visual impairment, rather than being for multiple impairment groups:

“I don't know much about goalball. We haven't done a huge amount with them, which maybe speaks volumes. Again, I think more people know what it is. I suppose goalball is very specific to one impairment group, as you have to be blindfolded and be visually impaired to do it. But I do think that for visually impaired people, the effect of the Paralympics is that lots of other sports or clubs are trying to adapt what they're doing, to improve their offer. So, then goalball isn't the go-to only sport that people are doing.” (CSP One).

The participation in goalball has been dependent on the contextual conditions within the local areas, with some areas performing better than others. The specific nature of the sport presents some difficulties in being able to increase participation. Local success is dependent, to some extent, on the prior history of goalball activity in the area, and specialist visual impairment (VI)

colleges being in the area to enable participation to occur amongst a concentration of people with visual impairments:

“Goalball, again, massive in this county...We are quite lucky in this county. I have a good relationship with sensory services for [name of county], and the local association for blind, [name of local organisation], and by putting those two together and by putting different people to network together, we’ve been able to find a lot of people with a visual impairment. So, we can signpost them to places like the goalball club. That’s been really beneficial.” (CSP Three).

“There is a concern with goalball. I mean, it’s increased since 2012. We’ve developed a club in the [name of local area] and the [name of local area], but we’re quite a rural community, and because it’s a VI specific impairment that the sport’s targeted at, then there’s very much you need a concentration of people with the same impairments to get clubs up and running, for example...We’ve got geography against us here in [name of county].” (CSP Six).

For one CSP, the LPG was not able to make any difference to the participation in goalball because the sport is still an unknown entity for many people with visual impairments in this locality. The profile of the sport may have increased, but not enough to engage enough people with visual impairments to participate in the sport in this county:

“Personally, in [name of county], I don’t think the Paralympics has made any impact on participation, in terms of most of the visually impaired groups that we engage with, some of them had some awareness of it, a lot of them didn’t have a clue what the game was...It didn’t seem the Paralympics had, in any way, increased the awareness. We were working directly with disabled organisations for people that are blind or visually impaired, and even they [emphasis] weren’t particularly aware of the game.” (CSP Two).

Despite the limited awareness of goalball, the sport has benefitted, like boccia, from being included as one of the inclusive sports in the School Games. Their inclusion in the School Games has enabled the reach of the sport to be extended county-wide at a young age, which would not have occurred without the School Games (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

It would appear the LPG has certainly helped Goalball UK, perhaps indirectly, develop itself as an organisation and the development of the sport. Goalball UK, like Boccia England, is a new NGB, having only been established in 2010 (Goalball UK n.d.), therefore it may take time for the NGB to be able to develop the grassroots structures of the sport throughout England. The profile and awareness of goalball appears to have increased, but not to the extent whereby people with visual impairments are mostly aware of the sport throughout England. Despite the lack of medal success at the LPG, some of the interviewed CSPs did provide some evidence of the importance of goalball Paralympians in being able to set up clubs and develop participation in the local areas. Participation in goalball is in specific local areas in the country and is not yet consistent across the country. The LPG appears to have had little direct impact on disabled people’s participation in goalball.

4.3.3.2.2. Sitting volleyball

Volleyball England’s participant data has been discussed in section 5.3.2.2, therefore no further discussion on the figures is required. Instead, this section will explore the role of the LPG on the grassroots participation of disabled people in sitting volleyball. Generally, interviewees believed the LPG did not make a meaningful difference to the participation of disabled people in sitting volleyball:

“I don’t think 2012 seemed to have a huge impact at the time, or the legacy of the Paralympics has had a huge impact, especially on disabled people doing volleyball.” (CSP One).

“It’s not a massive sport in this county at all. We have tried in the past to set up some sitting volleyball, and we do actually have one of the 2012 Paralympians for sitting volleyball in this county, and we use them a lot in Sporting Champions, but we’ve never been able to set up a sitting volleyball session.” (CSP Three).

“I wouldn’t say the Paralympics has made any significant impact on participation in [name of county] for sitting volleyball. It’s not something we’ve looked to do...I don’t think [name of county] is really a priority area for them, and because of that I would say impact is very minimal.” (CSP Two).

“I don’t think there’s that many people that saw Paralympic sport at the Paralympics in London and, as a direct result of it, are now playing sport more regularly than they were prior to London. Now, I might be wrong on that, but I haven’t seen a huge benefit of that. A few people. A relatively small handful of people that I’ve interacted with that that would be the case for.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

The LPG might not have been able to make any significant impact on grassroots sitting volleyball participation, but there was a feeling that sitting volleyball’s awareness has improved, and that the LPG may have helped to increase the awareness of the sport:

“I would say people are very aware of sitting volleyball. Again, it’s one of those sports that does tend to get highlighted with the Paralympics et cetera.” (CSP Two).

“...Going back ten years, nobody, really, in the volleyball world would have known of sitting volleyball. Whereas now, I would say virtually everybody does, which clearly in itself is quite significant change...If it wasn’t for London, sitting volleyball probably still wouldn’t exist in this country. So, in a sense, there’d be an argument that every disabled person who’s currently playing sitting volleyball in this country, is playing it as a result of London. Now, it wasn’t necessarily the Games itself and it wasn’t built on the Games, but if London hadn’t been announced we wouldn’t have the sport here.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

The LPG has therefore been important in raising the understanding of the sport amongst the general public. The inclusion of sitting volleyball as part of the inclusive component of the School Games has also helped raise the sport’s profile. This is because sitting volleyball ‘would never have been county level competition before the right to host the London Olympic and Paralympic Games’ (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality). The increased awareness of the sport amongst the general public might also have been aided by prominent media interest in one of the GB sitting volleyball players. This individual was a survivor from the 7/7 bombings in London 2005, and was selected as part of the GB sitting volleyball squad for the LPG:

“They [the media] used that story really well, I think, to say, ‘here’s a sport you’ve probably never heard of’, and she wasn’t the best player or the most successful player, but they used her story to really publicise that sport. And I suspect, I don’t know, but I suspect there’s quite a few disabled people who go, ‘oh, that sounds quite fun, you know, that’s something I’d have a go at’. So, when it then next hits their lives, you know, it comes up as an opportunity; it’s not a completely crazy thing that they’ve never heard of.” (NGB Four).

Before the right to win the 2012 Games was confirmed in 2005, sitting volleyball did not exist as a sport in England. It was the requirement to have an elite sitting volleyball team fulfil the host nation spot at the LPG that prompted the development of the sport:

“So, it was a top-down approach, rather than the other way around...All the focus pre-London, had [emphasis] to be around getting teams able to compete, certainly from our perspective. We didn’t even have sitting volleyball teams; we didn’t have a women’s team until 2010. So, to turn a women’s team around from creating a team, getting them prepared, getting them to the Games; that had to be the number one priority, because, otherwise, it would have ruined the competition, apart from anything else! So that had to be the priority.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

Grassroots work was therefore neglected because of the pressing need to have an elite squad ready for the LPG. This was compounded by the fact that the NGB had little resource it could dedicate to sitting volleyball, which meant that there was less scope to focus on the grassroots before the LPG. Volleyball England lost funding for their performance programme, which impacted on the grassroots delivery because of the top-down structure of sitting volleyball:

“...After London we lost UK Sport funding so...because of the way we’d been structured previously in terms of the top-down approach...if you take out the twenty-five players that are playing in the Great Britain programme, if they decide to walk away because there’s no Great Britain programmes, actually you haven’t got a huge number of people that are playing everywhere else. So, it created a lot of instability in the short-term, well actually probably medium-term after London.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

It is only in recent years that the NGB has been able to focus on the grassroots elements of sitting volleyball, which might help explain the lack of meaningful impact on participation from the LPG. Volleyball England has made the sport more inclusive in recent years, which has enabled the NGB to increase the number of participants playing the sport. Previously, participant numbers were low because of the need to focus on people eligible to qualify for the elite team in order to ensure that domain of the sport was ready for the LPG:

“Since London and since we’ve transitioned, and this is something that has probably happened in the last two years since we’ve got ourselves in order, is to say, ‘actually, they’re not the only people we care about playing sitting volleyball...So, a huge number of the people that are playing sitting volleyball regularly, now, are playing in a much more recreational, much more adapted environment and versions of the game...So that’s been a big change and...that’s worked pretty well.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

The LPG appears to have had little direct impact on grassroots participation in sitting volleyball. An indirect consequence of the LPG, however, was the establishment and development of the sport in England. It is doubtful sitting volleyball would have the profile it currently does were it not for the hosting of the LPG. The awareness of sitting volleyball may still be comparatively low, but more people are likely to be aware of the sport now than they were before the LPG. The LPG seems to have had more of a structural influence on the sport, in terms of development, rather than any direct impact on participation, as sitting volleyball is still limited to specific areas of the country.

4.3.3.2.3 Wheelchair basketball

BWB's membership data has been discussed in section 5.3.2.1, therefore no further discussion on this data is required here. This section will instead focus on the specific role of the LPG in the increased membership experienced by BWB.

Wheelchair basketball is a sport that seems to have benefitted from the LPG. BWB has clearly been able to grow their membership significantly since the LPG (Figure 7). One CSP made this point by stating there 'definitely [has been] an increase within [name of county]' (CSP Six). Wheelchair basketball was viewed as one of the sports to have benefitted from the LPG in terms of their grassroots participation:

"I would say that [wheelchair basketball] was the sport people were very aware of prior to 2012; things like 2012 have increased that. It is a sport that we have had some success with in [name of county]. We've now got three wheelchair basketball teams in [name of county]; they cover most of the county...There's a lot of different factors, but I would say 2012 has had an impact on, particularly, wheelchair users." (CSP Two).

"Always been pretty good, wheelchair basketball. I think it [LPG] probably did have a fairly positive impact on participation for that sport...There's just a lot of good clubs. A lot of clubs do it well, they do it mixing basketball, wheelchair basketball, making it a real priority...It's probably more of a success story, perhaps, than some of the other sports have been." (CSP One).

"...Most of our stuff goes through [name of local sports provider] ... but wheelchair basketball's been really successful there. They've [name of local sports provider] got loads of chairs, regular sessions, coaches, and loads of disabled people taking part. So that's been really positive." (CSP Five).

The positive impact of the LPG on disabled people's participation in wheelchair basketball stems from BWB's leveraging of the LPG. BWB engaged in deliberate LPG legacy planning by developing a network of junior clubs in each county in England, in order to be able to respond to any increased demand:

"...Our plan was to make sure there was a junior club in every county in England... whilst still developing senior clubs at the same time. Trying to put the infrastructure in place so, come [emphasis] London, we had the right structure that could work...And since London, in terms of regular members playing, playing on a regular basis, we've doubled in size, in four years...I put it down to that investment in the first four years, so '09 to '12, of making sure we had a structure in place, and that we've continued to do that." (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

BWB was different to most of the profiled NGBs in having deliberate and intentional plans in place to leverage the LPG. This was an exception, rather than the rule. Funding from Sport England in the form of the 2009-13 WSP certainly aided BWB's plan to develop their network of clubs, but BWB also benefitted from investment they received in 2007. This investment seems to have occurred as a result of opportune circumstances, rather than a deliberate ploy by Sport England:

"...We only started to get funding from Sport England in 2007. And that was legacy from London, because I was in a meeting [anonymised to maintain confidentiality] ...and Tessa Jowell was on stage and she was being asked very difficult questions, by people that were local to London, about London funding and sport, and that the Games were coming and, yet, there wasn't all this development going on in London. And I turned to [name of individual] and said... 'from a development perspective, we receive no money at all'...And, as a result, we were then introduced, at the correct level, to Sport England and I think that they were influenced in speaking to us...we weren't given the money

there and then; we had to demonstrate what we could do. Luckily...we were able to show several programmes which were succeeding in growing participation.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

This anecdote highlights the lack of strategic planning from Sport England, as it was only because BWB proactively asked the question of why there was an absence of grassroots funding, that they were able to be provided the opportunity to receive funding for grassroots work from Sport England. Had BWB not been proactive, potentially there would not have been grassroots funding at this early stage for BWB until the 2009-13 WSP cycle.

Wheelchair basketball was not one of the sports to win a medal at the LPG. Despite this, they have been able to grow participation in the sport significantly. Planning and leveraging were vital to this, but the LPG does also appear to have inspired some disabled people to become members of BWB. The interviewee from BWB commented on how ‘our data tells us 10% of our members were inspired to come into the sport because of major events, such as the Games’ (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality). Most of the members were, ‘anecdotally, young people’ (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality) that indicated they had been inspired by events such as the LPG. Wheelchair basketball, as a sport, was able to inspire some people to become members of BWB, despite the absence of medal success. This could be because wheelchair basketball ‘looks great’ and have ‘...some recognisable players on the GB (Great Britain) team’ (CSP One). Indeed, the interviewee from BWB highlighted the popularity of the sport:

“...The first game that was shown in wheelchair basketball in London was GB versus Germany, and it got 3.2 million viewers. The Olympics, for the equivalent game, got 120,000. I know that if they show the games people will watch it, and then if people see it, they’ll be enthused.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

In addition to the dynamic nature of the sport, and the existing high profile before the LPG, the use of inclusion as a way of generating more participants to try the sport has been successful:

“...The great thing about the game of wheelchair basketball is that they don’t exclude; so, they have the point system. So, for different impairments, it allows everybody to participate in the game.... So, I think the openness of wheelchair basketball has made it very successful...” (CSP Two).

The inclusivity of wheelchair basketball was thought to have been an important reason for the success of BWB’s grassroots participation programmes, particularly BWB’s university programme:

“...We’re inclusive, as well, and we use inclusion to increase the disabled participation...We’ve seen a 300% increase over the last couple of years of disabled participation in our university programme...Wheelchair basketball as a sport for able-bodied is getting more people in with disabilities, and other people to enjoy sport, participate, get healthier. And that’s the model we’ve used in schools in a different way with inclusive zone basketball, where you’re playing the running game on the left-side and the right-side, but you must [emphasis] engage with the wheelchair users.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

Wheelchair basketball has been one of the sports to have benefited from the hosting of the LPG for its grassroots participation. The effectiveness of the NGB and its planning and leveraging before the LPG helped to fuel the growth that has occurred since the LPG. Wheelchair basketball also benefitted from having an existing high profile as a sport for disabled people before the LPG, which is something that boccia lacked to an extent, and certainly goalball and sitting volleyball did not have. Ensuring the sport is inclusive and open to all has been a successful and

important tactic for BWB in increasing participation. But the LPG has also been able to inspire some people to become members of BWB, despite the lack of medals won by the men and women's GB wheelchair basketball teams at the LPG. For BWB, the LPG has helped to accelerate the growth in the grassroots participation of wheelchair basketball in England.

4.3.3.3 What conclusions can be drawn from the role of the LPG in the grassroots participation of the seven sports?

At the local level, there does not seem to have been any noticeable difference in the grassroots participation of medal winning sports compared to the non-medal winning sports. This is supported by one interviewee who, when asked if there was any difference between medal and non-medal winning sports, stated 'not in [name of county], no' (DSO One). The sports have demonstrated varying levels of growth in the participation of disabled people in their sport. Possible inspiration derived from medal winning Paralympians does not appear, however, to have been the most important factor in which sports have been the most successful in achieving growth:

"I certainly wouldn't have thought the four you mentioned around medal success has had any more growth than the others. For me, it hasn't made a difference in our patch, in terms of them getting medals and what their participation levels would be, from my perspective." (CSP Five).

Wheelchair basketball, for example, was one of the most successful of the seven featured sports, but the GB wheelchair basketball teams did not win any medals at the LPG. The success of the participation efforts in that sport is a result of many different factors, with the LPG being one of them, but not the only one. The main role of the LPG for these seven sports has, in the main, been a more developmental benefit, rather than direct participation increases. This is to say that the awareness of the sports has generally improved, and the LPG has helped to increase the funding the NGBs have received, as well as understanding where their existing grassroots offer for disabled people may fall short of what is required. Thus, the LPG appears to be most productive for grassroots participation at a system and structural level, and a general awareness of the sport, rather than confer direct participant increases.

It is important to point out that the profiled medal winning sports have a lower profile, and won less medals, than sports such as athletics, cycling, and swimming. It is possible that inclusion of these sports might have revealed the influence of the LPG to be greater than the profiled medal winning sports, due to the success of GB Paralympians in athletics, cycling, and swimming. If the winning of medals was such an important factor in the participation of disabled people at the grassroots level, it is likely there would have been a clear upsurge in disabled members for the ASA, but this has not occurred.

The LPG has been important for the non-medal winning sports included in this research. Without the hosting of the LPG, the development of goalball and sitting volleyball is likely to have been stunted in comparison to what has occurred to date. Sitting volleyball was established in this country as a direct consequence of the LPG and the need to have an elite team take up the host nation slot. Goalball is a niche sport and its profile has been aided by the coverage the sport received at the LPG, as well as inclusion in the School Games, an initiative influenced by the LPG. Both sitting volleyball and goalball have benefited from increased exposure and awareness, though there is still some way to go for these sports, as they are still very small in terms of participant numbers. Wheelchair basketball was already much more established as a sport in England before the LPG compared to goalball and sitting volleyball, but also had significantly more resources at its disposal than was the case for Goalball UK or Volleyball England. BWB was in a position to leverage the LPG, and the decision to leverage the LPG helped grow the

participation of the sport at a much more significant rate than occurred before the LPG. The LPG was important in the growth of wheelchair basketball, but it was not the only factor.

The main programme theory behind the LPG was that, through the demonstration effect, the LPG would be able to inspire more disabled people to be active and participate in sport. The analysis of the seven featured sports suggests that the LPG has not been able to increase participation, directly, but has helped the development of the sports at a systems and structural level. There was some tentative evidence for wheelchair basketball that some new members joined as a result of being inspired by events such as the LPG, but the evidence is not strong. There was also some evidence for existing participants to either increase their participation frequency or intensity, as evidenced by findings from the RDA. The main benefit for the seven sports from the LPG has not been a direct impact on sport participation. Instead, the most important benefit from the hosting of the LPG for the 7 sports has been increased awareness of their sport amongst the general public, and the structural developments that have taken place.

4.3.4 Insights from senior managers at sports and non-sports organisations regarding the impact of the LPG on the grassroots sport participation of disabled people in England

Having obtained a specific insight into the impact of the LPG on the grassroots participation in seven sports, this section takes a broader view as to the impact of the LPG on disabled people's grassroots sport participation. The results reported in this section are based on the findings from 30 employees from a range of sports and non-sport organisations. This section therefore presents opinions from employees across a diverse range of stakeholders (please refer to section 4.8 for more information on the sample). Evidence from these stakeholders will further inform the CMOCs for the LPG grassroots sport participation legacy.

4.3.4.1 An initial increase in demand for sport participation, but the increased interest did not last

A common view of the LPG's impact on the grassroots sport participation of disabled people in England was akin to a stronger 'Wimbledon effect'. This is to say that the LPG, like the Wimbledon tennis championships, may have inspired some people to participate in sport, but the initial enthusiasm subsequently subsided. Indeed, many of the interview participants suggested there was a surge in interest after the LPG, and that this did last for some time, but this interest was not sustained:

"It certainly had an impact on it, but it's not been sustained. So, we saw on the run-up to the Paralympics a lot of interest in it...And we also saw a rise in people attending events, which peaked around about the actual event and carried on for, I would say 9 months after the event you saw a rise, part of the athletes got a peak, and now down the other side of it. We did see a peak, but it's not been sustained." (NDSO Two).

"...I think initially there was a really big impact. But I think it's dropped off a bit and people have gone back to what they do, but I think it did make a huge impact for a number of people." (CSP Three).

The demand for sport participation prompted by the LPG can be highlighted by the amount of web traffic the Parasport website⁷ received after the LPG. Though it cannot be definitively

⁷ Parasport is an online directory of available sport participation opportunities for disabled people in Great Britain. The website is operated by the British Paralympic Association and supported by Deloitte. Parasport was established in 2007. More information about Parasport can be found on <https://parasport.org.uk/>.

proven, increased volume of visitors to the Parasport website could be one indicator of a desire to seek out sport participation opportunities. There was a noticeable increase in visitors to the Parasport website in the months of August and September in 2012 (Table 6). Visitors to the website reduced significantly in October but was still nearly double the number of visitors received in July. This might hint at a continued demand for sport after the initial surge due to the extensive media coverage of the LPG.

Table 6: Number of visitors, from July to October 2012, to the Parasport website (Personal communication, 11 April 2017).

Month in 2012	Number of visitors
July	5,193
August	23,359
September	30,590
October	9,433

The impact of the LPG on demand for sport participation may also be reflected in the number of annual visitors to the Parasport website, which increased dramatically in 2012 compared to 2011 (Table 7). 2012 represented the peak for the number of people visiting the website, but the years since the LPG have all been significantly higher than what was experienced before the LPG. This suggests there has been an increase in the demand for sport since the LPG and, though the levels of 2012 have not been maintained, neither has demand dropped off to pre-LPG levels. Furthermore, the second highest year for annual visitors to the Parasport website was during 2016, the first Paralympic Games since the LPG. The fact that there was a significant increase in apparent demand for disability sport in 2016 compared to 2015, might suggest that the LPG was able to instil a fairly robust desire for Paralympic sport, if not necessarily grassroots sport. Of course, it is not unexpected that the highest number visitors to the Parasport website was in the years of the Paralympic Games, but it is noticeable that the enthusiasm for the Paralympic Games does seem to have been maintained after the LPG. In 2008, when there was the Beijing Paralympic Games, there was only 26,761 total visits to the website, but in 2016 this was 91,827 for the Rio Paralympic Games. The fact that the number of visits to the website did not revert back to pre-LPG levels may indicate that the LPG helped sate the interest for disability sport during a Paralympic Games year, regardless of where the Paralympics might be hosted.

Table 7: Total number of annual visitors to the Parasport website, 2007-2016 (Personal communication, 11 April 2017).

Year	Number of annual visitors
2007 (July onwards)	9,250
2008	26,761
2009	27,450
2010	25,526
2011	27,890
2012	105,744
2013	77,845
2014	48,649
2015	56,526
2016	91,827

The LPG was thought to have limited utility in being able to support sustainable increases in participation. Instead, it is much more important that there is a robust underlying structure for

grassroots disability sport in place, to ensure sports providers are able to supply compelling sport participation experiences:

“...you have to put in something that’s sustainable, underneath that, yeah it might have helped when they go out and try it for the first time, but whether they sustain and build an interest depends on the offer and the reception they get.” (NGB Seven).

“It’s all very well being inspired by those people [Paralympians], but actually in the local area if they can’t do the sport or activity; we’re back to square one. Having the resources in the local area to actually make these things achievable for people to actually attend.” (CSP Three).

“...it would have been very interesting how many people were inspired by sport after London 2012, only to find the opportunity was not available to them easily or sustaining [emphasis] it was not available to them easily because of the structures not being in place.” (NSO One).

The main utility and scope of the LPG, and a Paralympic Games in general, was to stimulate possible demand to seek out sport participation opportunities. Whether the individual then converted this into regular participation depends on structural and societal factors outside the control of the LPG. Thus, the LPG is likely to have served, and have been able to fulfil, a limited role and capacity in terms of increasing the number of disabled people participating in sport.

4.3.4.2 Tentative support for the demonstration effect

There was some tentative evidence to support the demonstration effect encouraging some disabled people to participate in sport. One of the NDSOs reported an increase in the number of people participating competitively in the sport that a prominent Paralympian competes in. The interviewee from this NDSO believed some of this increase was linked to this particular Paralympian and their exploits at the LPG:

“We definitely have a lot of members who, you see it all the time; if [name of Paralympian] can do it I can do it, sort of thing...So I do think that the success they had, had a positive knock-on effect on that for sure, yeah. And we’ve seen a steady rise in people interested in competitive [name of sport] and I’m sure some of that is the [name of Paralympian] effect, yeah.” (NDSO Two).

The interviewee did highlight that this Paralympian’s successful performance at the LPG was not the sole reason for the increase in competitive participation in the Paralympian’s sport. The involvement of the Paralympian in the community that the NDSO represents and the interaction with some of the NDSO’s members also played a role in the increase in participation. There was therefore a connection that had been built between the Paralympian and some individuals through interaction at events. Thus, these people may have been receptive to ‘inspiration’ because of having a personal connection with the Paralympian:

“[Name of Paralympian] is very visible within our membership as well; [name of Paralympian] does come to events, people get to meet [name of Paralympian], so they may know [name of Paralympian] personally as well. So [name of Paralympian] actually, as an individual, probably gets to about 2 or 3 events a year if you tell [name of Paralympian] that. And [name of Paralympian] really makes an effort to try and get to our [name of NDSO event]. I don’t think it’s only the effect of the media, I think it’s that people actually get to meet [name of Paralympian] as well.” (NDSO Two).

The ‘inspiration’ of the Paralympian’s successful performances played a role in the increase in participation, but it was not the only reason. The involvement of the Paralympian in the

community seems to have played an important role in 'priming' some people to be receptive to the Paralympian's success at the LPG. People who responded to the success of the Paralympian were likely to have already been interested or had participated in sport before the LPG. Therefore, these people might have been the 'low hanging fruit...that were gonna be got, if the right set of circumstances or opportunities were put their way' (NSO Four).

The belief in the demonstration effect was in evidence with some of the NGBs, probably more so than for any other stakeholder group included in this study. There was a belief that some of the Paralympians had the power to inspire people to participate in sport because these Paralympians had demonstrated what was possible:

"For someone like him, he has the power to inspire other players who have similar impairments to go on and achieve something, because they can see it and go, 'yep, he can do it, so can I'." (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

This interviewee believed it is the nature of boccia, and the fact that it might be the only Paralympic sport available for people with certain impairments aspiring to compete at a Paralympics, that was important. Consequently, the performances of boccia athletes such as David Smith might have resonated with these individuals because of the congruence between the individual's personal circumstances and that of the Paralympian. Like boccia, goalball is a Paralympic-specific sport with no mainstream equivalent. The interviewee from Goalball UK highlighted an example of how two members of the LPG goalball team established a club, which has subsequently become one of the largest goalball clubs in England. The interviewee believed the Paralympian aspect was a crucial element in the success of this club:

"We've got a club...which was set up by two Paralympians...and they have just created this club from scratch, and now they've got over thirty members in their club, which is one of the biggest clubs we've got in the country...Whether you're young or old, I think that's a truly inspirational thing to have a Paralympian, and to be able to play [name of sport] with them, or even talk with them. So, I think it's had a really positive impact on the sport and I always see them walking around with their London 2012 kit on, although it's been four years! But everybody's still fascinated by it and wants to know about how the Paralympic Games were and how it felt, and what it was like to play in front of a huge crowd." (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

The examples of successful participation increases as a result of the demonstration effect was limited and mainly anecdotal. These increases were likely limited to individuals who were already enthused by sport or were an already active or recently active participant in the sport.

4.3.4.3 Participation in sport is a more realistic option for some disabled people

It was thought the LPG elevated some disabled people's perception that participation in sport was a realistic option that they could pursue. This is to say that before the LPG there was perhaps a feeling from some disabled people that sport was not for them, but that the LPG might have played a role in potentially altering that perception. This was a common theme amongst many of the interviewees:

"...Perhaps a really important one from what you're getting at, was the ability for disabled people to realise that [name of sport] was something that was on offer to them." (NGB Four).

"...It just put sport and disabled sport on such a huge scale across the country, and people being able to see and relate to it, it really did show that they can, anybody can do it, sort of thing." (NGB Six).

“...I think Paralympic sport became so much more aware in the consciousness of parents, but Joe Public on the street as well...I think it increased the awareness, of both young people and also their parents of what may be out there.” (NDSO Three).

This increased understanding of some disabled people that sport participation could be a realistic leisure pursuit, may have helped to make inactive or less active disabled people more contemplative of participating in sport. This does not mean that these individuals would have then participated in sport, because there still might have been many barriers preventing participation, but that awareness of sport participation may have been bolstered by the LPG amongst some people:

“But before, I’ve got lots of friends who are [name of impairment], who have said, ‘I hadn’t thought about doing sport, and I’m still thinking about doing sport; I’m contemplating doing sport, but it wasn’t something I thought I could [emphasis] do until the Paralympic Games’...The Games isn’t gonna make somebody go out and buy a pair of trainers and say, ‘that’s it; I’m gonna take up running, or swimming’, or whatever, but what it can do is show them the possibilities, and only time and then growing their confidence...is actually gonna make that happen.” (NDSO One).

There was a suggestion, albeit a tentative one, that the LPG might have helped to breed a confidence amongst some disabled people to challenge organisations to provide more suitable participation opportunities:

“...There’s an element of, since the Paralympics, why shouldn’t disabled people go to their local providers and be confident to check and challenge them, and to get them to change and provide for them.” (NGB Three).

“We’ve seen a significant uplift since London in people looking for disability specific sporting opportunities, presumably based on the uplift they got in awareness and possibility from London. But it was also emboldening their desire to, you know, approach sport and to see sports clubs as facilities that should be for them, and not just for the mainstream non-disabled population.” (NSO One).

The increased receptiveness to sport participation engendered by the LPG may not have led to actual participation, because of potential systemic, individual, and societal barriers inhibiting participation. Thus, it is unclear whether the elevated awareness of sport participation has been sustained in the face of barriers, or whether it has remained in the consciousness of these individuals who might previously not have been inclined towards participating in sport. This is unclear, but there is a belief from many of the interviewees that the LPG helped to shift perceptions of sport participation amongst some inactive or less active disabled people. This might have been in the form of going from no contemplation of sport participation prior to the LPG, to contemplation of sport participation subsequent to the LPG.

4.3.4.4 The profile of some sports amongst disabled people was increased due to the LPG

The success of the LPG, as an event, played a role in increasing the profile of some sports amongst disabled people. This was particularly evident for sports originally designed for disabled people, such as boccia, goalball, and wheelchair basketball. The increase in profile brought about by the LPG was not limited to the aforementioned sports, however, with mainstream sports also benefitting from the LPG. The LPG provided a platform for sports to gain national exposure that they might not have been able to achieve without the LPG:

“...It puts our sport, which is a small sport, on the map for some people...You ask most people what boccia is, wouldn’t have a clue, so being able to put boccia on a mass scale

to thousands of millions of people, really raised the profile of it and helped us spread the word about our sport and who it's for and who can play it." (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

"London 2012, the gold dust that came from it, was a great context, and at the time it was brilliant and, if you like, that helped us over the last few years to really raise the profile of the sport and so on." (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

"Although we've been in the Paralympics since the mid-70s, not many people have actually heard of goalball and know what goalball is. Whereas, post London-2012, there was definitely an increase of awareness of the sport." (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

"Prior to London, we didn't get spectators to our international events. We just held the Europeans, where we got over 6,000 paying spectators in 2015; that would never have happened. We just held an event in Leicester, two weeks ago, where we had over 3,500 people to watch the games. In fact, quite a high proportion of those paying, we had a thousand kids at one game, which were free, but you wouldn't have got a thousand kids from primary schools to come along to watch a game before London; just never happened. You would be lucky to get a dog and the owner of the dog! Maybe that was our marketing power, but we had marketing officers at that time; we just couldn't do it. But London changed that." (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

Disabled CYP, certainly in mainstream schools, have been exposed to inclusive and disability-specific sports that would not have occurred before 2005, when the right to host the 2012 Games was confirmed. Sports included in the School Games, an initiative closely linked to the LPG, enabled lower profile sports to be delivered at a regional level, which is unlikely to have been possible without the School Games:

"So now you'll see on the school curriculum things like boccia, and sitting volleyball, which you never would have before...So sports like boccia, table tennis, sitting volleyball, goalball in many cases, have featured in the School Games, and they would never have been county level competition before the right to host the London Olympic and Paralympic Games." (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

The increased profile of disability sport has also helped the development of the organisations that support disability sport. Increased income has been possible for some of the organisations because of the heightened awareness and status brought about by the LPG:

"...The BBC know that if they want a credible source of someone doing something on a horse or involving disability, or whatever, that they come to us and we'll sort that out for them really quickly, and that kind of helps us create, you know, continue that wave of awareness and momentum. So that side of it has been really important for us. And, ultimately, money; it's helped us increase and maintain a much higher income." (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

The LPG has been able to increase the awareness and profile of sport amongst disabled people in England. This might not have led to direct participation gains, but it has helped to develop the organisations involved in disability sport. This might be able to assist future sport participation efforts, with these organisations now better placed to provide compelling participation experiences for disabled people.

4.3.4.5 The focus on disability sport as a result of the LPG helped develop the management structures of the NDSOs

The NDSOs have been one of the main beneficiaries of the LPG, in terms of organisational development. Many of the NDSOs were founded by volunteers because they, or their family members, had not been able to access sport participation to suit their needs: ‘... disability sport is often generated from frustration; people that have tried mainstream sport and not been very successful, so set up their own’ (NSO Two). Thus, the volunteers who established the NDSOs did so out of enthusiasm and a desire to provide opportunities for participation. The NDSOs might therefore not have had the necessary business skills needed to govern the organisation (NSO Two). It is not surprising, therefore, that there was a lack of professional structures in place at some of the NDSOs before the LPG, and poor governance and financial management was not uncommon:

“There was no business plan. There was a draft business plan that hadn’t even seen the Board. But there was some draft business plan. So, there was no business plan, no strategy, no real tight budgeting. It was haemorrhaging £50,000, a year.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

“We were established because the governance within [name of organisation] at the time wasn’t, not that it wasn’t strong, but people weren’t confident in it. It wasn’t as transparent as it could be. There were some people worried that ‘where does that money go?’. There was no money being pilfered, but it was just, they didn’t produce accounts, they didn’t do anything, you know.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

With the increased focus on, and development of, disability sport since the LPG, the NDSOs have been able to improve the management of the organisation and become more professionalised organisations:

“We’ve done really well. When I took over [Name of NDSO] (in 2011) we had less than three months running costs in the bank, I had one member of staff, and I was working two days a week because they couldn’t afford a CEO full-time. I now have 10 staff, I have just under a year’s running costs in the bank.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

“It’s driven some more money into their organisations. It’s driven more volunteers to help support them. The majority of them are in a far more sustainable position than they ever were... so you now have these organisations that are professional bodies.” (NSO Three).

The NDSOs have become much more professional in the management of the charity and have grown the size of the organisation. The NDSOs’ role is of a strategic enabling function, whereby the NDSOs are able to use their expertise to advise and influence providers such as NGBs. Thus, the development of the NDSOs, which has been boosted by the LPG, has an indirect benefit to the grassroots sport participation of disabled people.

4.3.4.6 The LPG has helped develop the grassroots system for disability sport

The LPG has played a prominent role in the development of the grassroots structures of the disability sport system. As has been mentioned previously, some of the sports that have been included in this research would have either unlikely been established in England today, or be further behind in their development than is currently the case, if the LPG had not been hosted in 2012. The LPG was thought to help provide ‘the permission and the context to get on with it’ (NGB Seven):

“What the Games did was massively [emphasis] raise awareness of both the ability of disabled people and the need to ensure that those opportunities are available for everybody, which kind of, in turn, stimulated the demand [emphasis] for new services, new products, and therefore the marketplace has now got more movement in it around, whether it’s, as I say, equipment, training, whatever it happens to be.” (NSO Four).

Prior to the LPG, most NDSOs did not receive investment from Sport England until 2011, with all of the NDSOs either increasing the amount of funding they received or gaining it for the first time in the second round of funding in 2014 (Brown and Pappous 2018b). Before the LPG, eleven of the forty-six NGBs had plans for increasing participation of disabled people in their 2009-2013 WSPs (Sport England 2013a). The eleven NGBs included Paralympic-specific NGBs such as BWB, thus the number of mainstream NGBs receiving funding and being measured on disability participation was probably a single digit number. It was the NDSOs, without funding from Sport England until July 2011, who were often the main providers of sport for disabled people in their respective impairment groups. Provision of sport for disabled adults by local authorities was variable and dependent on the resources and expertise of the individual local authority (Thomas and Smith 2009). There was a sense that the grassroots structure for disabled people was under-developed prior to the LPG:

“The system, probably wasn’t set-up enough. If you go back to 2005, the NDSOs would have been voluntary-led organisations. If you think about the likes of Paralympics GB and stuff like that, much smaller organisations, really those organisations, the system we hadn’t invested in at all until then...We first funded the NDSOs 2011...but, the likes of BBS, Deaf Sport, CP Sport, would have been very small voluntary-led organisations, so the system wasn’t there, really, to support people to make a business case.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

For the 2013-17 WSP round, forty-two NGBs received funding based on targets regarding disabled people participating in their sport, as part of their 2013-17 WSPs (Sport England 2013a; Table 8). It is not possible to obtain accurate funding figures for the time period before the LPG, but the funding from Sport England has certainly increased significantly following the LPG. Sport England invested £91,477,960 into 42 NGBs in receipt of 2013-17 WSP funding for grassroots disability sport participation targets (Table 8)⁸.

⁸ The funding awarded to NGBs from Sport England have been listed into three categories: “Paralympic NGBs – awards in this category were made to the recognised Paralympic NGB. Dedicated programmes – awards in this category were made to dedicated disability programmes. Inclusive delivery – awards in this category were made to programmes which included disability participation as part of a broader offering.” (Personal communication, 07 November 2016).

Table 8: Total investment made by Sport England as part of their 2013-17 Whole Sport Plans grassroots disability sport participation funding for 42 NGBs (Personal communication, 07 November 2016).

Sport	Disability Programme name (if not inclusive)	2013-17 Disability Dedicated Investment Confirmed (if known)	2013-17 Disability Inclusive Investment
Paralympic NGBs			
Boccia	Paralympic NGB	£1,300,000	n/a
Goalball	Paralympic NGB	£750,000	n/a
Wheelchair Rugby	Paralympic NGB	£1,166,740	n/a
Wheelchair Basketball	Paralympic NGB	£2,000,000	n/a
Totals		£5,216,740	
NGBs with Dedicated Disability Programmes			
Badminton	Para-badminton	£287,468	£0
Canoeing	Paddleability	£123,929	£0
Cricket	Hit the Top	£2,000,000	£0
Equestrian	Participation growth for disability	£609,110	£771,455
Football	Growth Disability –	£0	£18,296,902
Golf	Disability participation	£355,708	£7,651,488
Gymnastics	Disability	£154,530	£0
Judo	Disability	£40,000	£703,559
Rowing	Rowability	£328,603	£1,610,271
Rugby Union	Reaching disabled people	£350,000	£1,500,000
Sailing	Sailability	£800,000	£1,440,000
Shooting	Disability Shooting Project	£220,000	£206,000
Squash	Disability	£42,000	£182,000
Tennis	Disability	£560,000	£1,238,000
Volleyball	Sitting Volleyball	£100,000	£604,630
Totals		£5,971,348	£34,204,305
NGBs delivering inclusively			
Angling	Inclusive	N/A	£133,887
Archery	Inclusive	N/A	£135,000
Athletics	Inclusive	N/A	£13,000,000
Baseball/Softball	Inclusive	N/A	£75,000
Basketball	Inclusive	N/A	£460,000

Bowls	Inclusive	N/A	£707,630
Boxing	Inclusive	N/A	£1,223,444
Cycling	Inclusive	N/A	£15,174,293
Fencing	Inclusive	N/A	£67,831
Handball	Inclusive	N/A	£142,240
Hockey	Inclusive	N/A	£1,767,438
Lacrosse	Inclusive	N/A	£1,500,500
Mountaineering	Inclusive	N/A	£1,705,100
Movement & Dance	Inclusive	N/A	£601,488
Netball	Inclusive	N/A	£11,686,024
Orienteering	Inclusive	N/A	£830,540
Rounders	Inclusive	N/A	£129,750
Rugby League	Inclusive	N/A	£5,821,829
Swimming	Inclusive	N/A	£713,494
Table Tennis	Inclusive	N/A	£347,720
Triathlon	Inclusive	N/A	£2,279,085
Water Ski & Wakeboard	Inclusive	N/A	£575,364
Weightlifting	Inclusive	N/A	£8,000
Totals			£46,085,657

Since the LPG, therefore, inclusive and specific sport for disabled people has received a lot more investment and focus than was the case prior to the LPG. The LPG played an important role in the development of the disability sport system:

“...It would only have been getting the Games that started [emphasis] to invest in that system, to support disabled people, to support athletes on a pathway, and/or to support people into participation.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

“I think it would have been much more limited if sport hadn’t had the investment that the government put in to growing grassroots as well as performance, and bodies, such as our own, hadn’t thought ‘well, this is a great opportunity, we must anyway develop the opportunities for disabled people at grassroots’.” (NGB Seven).

“I mean obviously as society moves on all sorts of things have, you know, attitudes and perceptions change, but the Games, in my view, without a doubt has shifted, you know, 15-20 years ahead of where it might have been.” (NSO Four).

The success of the LPG and the clear demand for Paralympic sport, as evidenced by the sell-out crowds for the LPG, may have helped to focus the minds of some of the sports organisations to reflect on how they provided for disabled people. The LPG may have also helped increase awareness of disability amongst mainstream organisations, a market which some mainstream sports organisations might not have been aware of or understood previously. This is because there was a feeling that Sport England, let alone NGBs and CSPs, did not ‘...ever really fully understood what the market was, till 12/13’ (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality). Another potential reason for the development of the disability sport system could have been a response to the lack of regular sport participation amongst disabled people after the LPG (NSO Two). The LPG was a fantastic event that was viewed as being the best ever summer Paralympic Games to be staged (Degun 2012), yet participation in sport by disabled people had not increased significantly.

Though there has been a lot more involvement from NGBs and CSPs in grassroots disability since the LPG, it was thought by some that it might not have been the LPG that prompted the increased involvement of NGBs. Instead, it was believed to be the pressure from Sport England and the associated funding implications that encouraged some of the NGBs to take their grassroots disability work more seriously:

“I have seen a seismic [emphasis] shift in NGBs understanding [emphasis] that they need to work with organisations, such as ourselves, to get that grassroots delivery and to increase participation. But that didn’t come straight after the Games. That came when Sport England changed their strategy and said, ‘you’ve now got to have a disabled element to all of your Whole Sport Plans’. And even then, there was some resistance. I’ve only really seen that shift, across the NGBs, I would say some of them picked it up and ran with it straight away, but very few, really, in the last 18 months.” (NDSO One).

The LPG was thought to be unlikely to have been able to sustainably increase the sports participation of disabled people. Instead, the LPG was viewed by one interviewee as ‘...the beginning of a journey for the Paralympic Movement and disability sport, rather than the pinnacle’ (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality). Thus, achieving the desired positive change in participation is a long-term project, which requires much more resource than what the LPG was able to provide. This is because creating sustainable participation increases is ‘...not a 1, 2, 3-year job; this is like, you know, 15-20-year job’ (NGB Seven):

“If you take it as being the bid and then the preparation, it took ten years to prepare for London 2012. So, at the very least, we should be looking ten years before we assess its impact, you know. That’s the point. What did it start? What did it shift? What’s got a longer-term agenda attached to it in terms of legacy?” (NSO One).

“Going back to that comment that was made to me a couple of years ago that we shouldn’t have NDSOs, that it should just be intrinsic into the NGB programmes, and I agree. I totally agree with that. I don’t think NDSOs should necessarily exist. They exist because there is a gap, and they will continue to exist for some time.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

It would appear the LPG played an important role in bringing investment into the disability sport system to ensure it is fit for purpose. Previously, the grassroots structures for disability sport were under-developed. The funding and development that have gone into grassroots disability sport have started to address these issues, but disability sport still has ‘mountains to climb’ (NDSO One) in order for disabled people to have the best sport participation experiences and opportunities possible.

4.3.4.7 The LPG has had less impact for disabled people with impairments not included in a Paralympic pathway

Some interviewees believed disabled people with impairments that are not included in the Paralympic Games were ignored by some NGBs. This was particularly evident for people with complex impairments who did not fit into the Paralympic impairment classifications. Indeed, the LPG is unlikely to have been able to communicate and raise awareness of the full range of disability:

“The problem with using the Paralympics to raise people’s awareness of disability is it raises awareness of disability of people that are elite sportspeople, and only in certain classifications, whereas disability is a far, far, wider remit.” (NSO Three).

Sports organisations were often looking to increase participation amongst disabled people that fit into possible performance pathways. Thus, talent was being used by some NGBs as a way of increasing participation:

“So, what governing bodies are doing is they’re using talent to drive participation. So, if you understand the sports development pyramid; it’s an inverted pyramid. So, by targeting the very few, small groups, they’re hoping to get more people, and that doesn’t work.” (NDSO Five).

The focus on talent by sports organisations is evidenced by one of the specific programmes associated with the LPG, Playground to Podium. The notion behind this project was to identify disabled people that might have the potential to represent Paralympics GB at the LPG:

“So, there were two things going on. When we got the notice that we got the Games in 2005, there is enough time to find [emphasis] Paralympians who will compete in London...So, it was both the bigger agenda of the Paralympic team, as well as recognising when we started the School Games, ‘gosh, this is how weak [emphasis] the pathways are for disabled people. We can’t even fill eight lanes on a track in a particular event because we don’t have those athletes coming through’.” (NSO Four)

As a result of Playground to Podium, however, there were NGBs who were only interested in disabled people that were eligible for the LPG. This helped the NGBs to meet their aims of having successful elite teams and was consistent with the Playground to Podium ethos. The fallout from this programme, however, was that people with impairments that did not meet the criteria the NGBs were looking for, were often turned away:

“A governing body, that will remain nameless, wasn’t happy that a number of the young people that were attending were learning disability. Because they wanted physical and visual impaired athletes, because there was no real Paralympic pathway for somebody with a learning disability... the Playground to Podium programme was very specific in who did what.” (NDSO Five).

“There were instances where you’d get 200 kids and 5 of them would be wheelchair users, a high proportion being behavioural problems, so not under the traditional disability sport framework, which is what it was about.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

Learning disabilities was one of the impairment groups included in the LPG, but the number of events people with learning disabilities were eligible for was limited to three events: athletics, swimming, table tennis (The Guardian 2012). Thus, most Paralympic sports did not have a pathway available for people with learning disabilities to progress to the LPG. Consequently, the LPG was thought, by some interviewees, to have had little impact on the participation of people with learning disabilities:

“For learning disability, I would say that it’s [LPG] had a pretty minimal impact, generally. Because there were so few learning disability athletes there and they were in so few sports, although there was coverage of them, I think it tended to kind of get lost among everything else that was going on...Part of the issue here is that when you talk about the elite level of learning disability sport you are inevitably talking about the least disabled people. The people who pretty much just fall into the classification. But I think, for the vast majority of people with a learning disability, or their parents, or their carers, they would look at any of the GB learning disability Paralympians, and they’d hear them interviewed and go, ‘well, they’re clearly much more able than my son or daughter is, or I am’...So, I think in participation terms, it [LPG] made very little impact.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

“The big loser is learning disability... and it seems to me that they’re getting left behind a bit, and we need to pull that forward a bit. As I said, in most sports they’re not included in the Paralympics anyway, so I don’t know if that [LPG] has an impact.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

Deaf people and people with hearing impairments were also a population group that was thought to have ‘lost out’ in comparison to impairment groups included in the LPG. With Deaf people not included in the Paralympic Games, this meant that it was much more difficult to encourage NGBs to provide sporting opportunities:

“If your funders, Sport England, UK Sport, DCMS, are turning around and saying, ‘it’s Olympic/Paralympic’, why are you gonna put a lot of effort into the Deaf community? Because you’re thinking, ‘well, I’m not actually being measured on this’. So those governing bodies that see themselves as whole sport really grab it. Those that, their disability programmes are really more, you know, para-sport programmes, we struggle a little bit.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

The difficulty in getting available opportunities for Deaf and hard of hearing people was compounded by a lack of knowledge about Deaf sport. This was highlighted by the experience of one interviewee, who recalled a story of the shadow sports minister not being aware of the fact Deaf people are not included as a specific impairment category within the Paralympic Games:

“I met with the Shadow Minister for Sport, Clive Efford, in the last parliament, so middle to back-end of last year. And I said, ‘look there’s no categories for Deaf athletes in the Paralympics’. He said, ‘isn’t there?’ And that’s the Shadow Minister for Sport [who] didn’t know there was no categories. With that level of knowledge at that level no wonder he’s never questioned his own funding policies or those of the opposition, you know...Because he believes what the media has led it to believe, which is disability sport is Paralympic sport. And they’re two things poles apart.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

It would seem the scope of the LPG to make a positive difference to disabled people’s sport participation appears to be concentrated primarily on impairment groups included in the Paralympic Games.

4.3.4.8 The LPG has had more impact on the sports participation of disabled children and young people compared to other age-groups

The LPG was thought to have had more impact amongst disabled children and young people than for other age-groups:

“The junior surge was really big, particularly in the 11-18 bracket, at that time...I guess they saw some of the Paralympians who were maybe 16/17 years of age, not that much older than some of them, thinking maybe two/three years’ time, if I work hard maybe I can be representing my country...But, in adults, we got a lot of enquiries. It was more enquiries of people just wanting to get into sport.” (NDSO Six).

“Someone who got a gold medal at London in 2012 was suddenly much more interesting. And I found this, in terms of just really little things, so organising talks at my kids’ school, where in 2008, at Beijing, schools just being, ‘oh yeah, fine. Ok. It’d be quite interesting to have a Paralympian’, whereas in 2012, you know, both my kids’ schools, and they know what I do, were like beating my door down and saying, ‘can we get a Paralympian!? Can we get a Paralympian!?!... there’s this kid, who was almost quite

angry about the fact that he wasn't allowed to compete in the Paralympics, because it sounded really cool. Well, you're not impaired enough; in fact, you're not impaired at all." (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

For disabled CYP, there appears to have been more dedicated preparation and leveraging occur than was the case for disabled adults. The dominant culture of the sport sector before the LPG appears to have been to view inspiration from the LPG as being predominately for young people. Thus, disabled adults were largely ignored in terms of leveraging:

"I don't think we recognised as a sector early enough how much more prevalent disability was with age. Because, obviously, a lot of Sport England's funding has been geared towards young people for the last four years...which didn't give as much scope for working with older people". (CSP Two).

"Well, the interesting thing was that the focus of all the development, originally, was around children...All the funding's always really gone into children and young people. And, obviously, the legacy of the Olympics and Paralympics is changing society, a healthier nation, so starting with young people. Plus, the other thing is that, if a national governing body's looking for talent, they're looking for young people. They don't want somebody in their 40s necessarily. They do in certain sports, but not in predominately team sports and individual sports." (NDSO Five).

Disabled young people appear to have benefited from increased focus on leveraging and preparation of a network of sport opportunities than was the case for disabled adults. Allied to the impact of the demonstration effect, on its own, appearing to be most effective amongst people with a younger learning age, then disabled young people appear to have reaped the most benefits from the LPG. This is because there was a combination of programme resources, in terms of what sports organisations provided, as well as young disabled people being more predisposed to respond favourably to Paralympian excellence and want to emulate their accomplishments. As a result of the increased focus before the LPG, the LPG was thought to have helped shift the development of sport for CYP significantly:

"I would describe it as incredibly powerful. Transformational for the generation going through our schools at the moment...I think for that generation that came through; transformational, without a shadow of a doubt. If you're a disabled child in our schools from, you know, if it took us a few years to get things up and running, anywhere between 2008 and today, you've had a completely different experience." (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

Despite the improved access to quality PE and school sport, some disabled CYP were not being given access to PE and school sport:

"PE teachers can often struggle to adapt or to know how to adapt PE lessons; so, they are the kid that gets taken out to do their physio, rather than do PE lessons." (NDSO Three).

"There's still a number of kids that aren't getting, you know in PE at school, they're not getting given participation. They're not getting given an option. Which I still hear from some young people that I work with." (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

The frequency of disabled children not being able to be included in PE and school sport is thought to have lessened, but still occurs:

"Some of the kids that I come into contact with, they're saying how their school since then has been miles better and have seen options.... But then I still speak to some kids

now that aren't getting that, they're not getting options of what to do. They're still either sitting out PE or doing something tokenistic, rather than schools actively [emphasis] trying to get someone in to do something with them." (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

"I'm not sure I can give you the answer to that, because I don't know, if I'm perfectly honest. I do know that I still come across examples of it. I do know that there are nowhere near the, that's not common practice anymore...Definitely reduced, without a shadow of a doubt." (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

The talent-centric participation strategies of the NGBs, coupled with a lack of understanding of disability, resulted in a lack of opportunities for disabled people unable to meet the Paralympic classification requirements. This was particularly the case for disabled adults, especially older adults over the age of 50. With disabled adults less likely to become Paralympians, they were often not the focus of most NGBs before the LPG:

"I sometimes think adults are maybe an afterthought, particularly of the older age bracket. A lot of sports funding these days is for maybe people aged either as a child or in that 18-25 bracket. So particularly for a wheelchair athlete who's looking for funding a sports wheelchair, it becomes very difficult once you reach a certain age, which has become a real challenge. There's not many organisations that will fund adults, you know, whereas there are numerous ones for children and young adults...There are plenty of opportunities for non-disabled adults [emphasis] to maybe go and take part in regular participation sports, but I don't know if there's the same opportunities for disabled adults...Recreationally, I'm not sure there is that level of opportunity that there is for non-disabled adults [emphasis]." (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

For the vast majority of disabled people that were not eligible for the LPG, the resulting impact of the LPG on their sport participation habits was thought to hold little relevance:

"...If we're thinking about people over the age of thirty or forty, some people have never had any choice in their life about how they're active. Like, not once have they been asked about it, so that message [inspiration] is going to mean nothing to them, really. It might be great for them to watch it, but I'm not sure they would kind of apply it to their own lives and think, 'oh, I'm gonna go out for a run now' or 'I'm gonna join a team', because they wouldn't have that support to do it, so they wouldn't even consider it." (Non-SO Three).

"I think there's almost too much of an assumption that [LPG] would give participation a massive surge. The reality of it is, you know, a lot of the people that have been inactive, that have a disability, that have been inactive for a long time, it's gonna take much more than just seeing someone running on the television or swimming, or whatever, to get them active... at the end of the day, in terms of looking at meaningfully sustaining participation with some of the people that are kind of the furthest removed from that behaviour change model from taking part, I think it will have made zero impact on them, if I'm honest with you." (CSP Two).

To increase the number of disabled people participating in sport, naturally, you require inactive individuals to become active. The LPG, however, appears to have had minimal impact on these people and is unlikely to have 'inspired' these individuals to participate in sport. The lack of relevance the LPG held for inactive disabled people suggests the idea of using the LPG to increase the number of disabled people participating in sport was flawed. Much more than watching the LPG is required for most disabled people that are inactive to participate in sport. The next section

of this chapter explores the mechanisms and contexts for the outcomes of the LPG sport participation legacy highlighted in this section.

4.4 RQ2: Why did the London 2012 Paralympic Games succeed or fail to increase the grassroots sport participation of disabled people in England?

This section evaluates the main mechanisms and contexts that contributed to the outcomes of the LPG sport participation legacy identified in section 5.3. Mechanisms and contexts that have supported some of the positive outcomes of the LPG sport participation legacy observed for specific sports will be the focus of the first part of this section. The focus is then directed at the reasons for the national decline in disabled people's sport participation recorded in the APS (Active People Interactive 2017). Finally, this section concludes with a revised set of CMOCs for the LPG grassroots sport participation legacy.

4.4.1 Why have some disabled people increased their sport participation as a result of the LPG?

In general, the impact of the LPG on disabled people participating in sport was thought to be minimal. Some interviewees, however, indicated the LPG was successful in increasing the sports participation of disabled people in sport in certain situations. This section explores the reasons why the LPG was able to influence some disabled people's sport participation.

4.4.1.1 The demonstration effect resonated with an individual's self-efficacy

The demonstration effect was inspirational to 'sporty' disabled people, in particular, because their exploits chimed with their self-efficacy and instigated a feeling of 'I want to be like them'. The inspiration engendered by the demonstration effect was thought to be most keenly felt by younger disabled people. This is not to say that disabled adults were not inspired by the LPG. Instead, inspiration from Paralympians was felt to be less powerful compared to young disabled people, who theoretically could aspire to become a Paralympian:

"For a 40-year-old male he might not be as inspired by a young 20-year-old racer because he thinks, 'well, those days are beyond me'. However, if he sees someone of a similar age playing a sport at his local club, enjoying it, getting fitter, making new friends, he thinks, 'well, actually, I'm a similar age to him'. That's actually more of a role-model to him than a Paralympian would be. So, I think it depends on the age-group. I think for young children and young adults; Paralympians are fantastic role-models because they can relate to them. However, for the older generation, you're maybe looking at those club athletes, just those general guys who go down their gym three times a week and keep fit. Just as big a role-models for certain people as a Paralympian would be to a young person." (NDSO Six).

"Disabled people were on billboards, they were on TV, they were on adverts, it was on live TV, so people could really relate to other people like themselves and sort of see, actually, that they can do sport and achieve sport, and there are a variety of different sports out there for people to try and do. So, it gave them the opportunity to actually see things and go, 'right, actually, I can do that', or to be like other athletes, really. All kids want to aspire to be like Ronaldo or Messi, it gives disabled people the chance to aspire to one of their heroes. So, participation wise, it certainly drove an increased number of people wanting to try out the sport as a result." (NGB Six).

As suggested by NDSO Six, for disabled adults, the demonstration effect is likely to be less potent than might be the case for young people. Instead, peer role-models might be more inspirational because of the increased synergy between the individual and the peer role-model:

“...If a ‘This Girl Can’⁹ type campaign could be run for disabled people, and it shows that everyday people still participate in sport and physical activity, then the person that’s inactive can look at that and go, ‘I could do that’. There is that massive [emphasis] benefit in participating in physical activity, and I think if role-models can be seen as ‘everyday people’, for want of a better word, then that can be really inspirational as well.” (DSO One).

The way a Paralympian can inspire a young person was believed to be different depending on the learning age of the child. Simply watching the successful achievements of Paralympians were suggested to be more effective the younger the learning age of the child, whereas there would need to be some more interaction between the Paralympian and the individual the older the learning age of the child. This is because understanding the backstory of the Paralympian and how they were able to achieve what they did is more powerful than simply viewing their sporting performance. This is probably a result of the Paralympian’s achievements appearing to be more tangible and the individuals being more appreciative of how success is possible to attain, and that challenges can be overcome. It is the interaction with the Paralympian, however, that is thought to be important for older children:

“The younger the learning age of the child, the less young people understand their own parameters...who are less inhibited by experience and by view of their own limitations, are massively inspired by those role-models. Just their presence and the fact that they are someone like me, you know, an Ellie Simmonds to a child who’s got dwarfism is like, ‘wow! [emphasis] I could do that!’ The older children, just that mere physical presence and seeing them as like me, doesn’t have the same impact. What we tend to see for older children is it’s the story...When those athletes talk about those things, it has a profound impact on older students, it tends to be. But if you send out Paralympians just to hang medals round people’s necks or hand out certificates in assemblies, it has a very different [emphasis] level of impact on older children than it does younger children.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

To recap, the demonstration effect seems to have operated in a number of different ways in different contexts. Disabled people who are already participating in sport who are interested in sport, the LPG may have been able to boost their self-efficacy towards participation in sport in order to either participate more competitively or frequently, or to recommence their sport participation. The demonstration effect seems to be most effective amongst young disabled people because of the aspirational qualities the demonstration effect can invoke, which is more applicable to younger people in possibly emulating Paralympians. But the demonstration effect needs to be leveraged through an interaction with the Paralympian and their backstory for children of an older learning age.

4.4.1.2 Leveraging the demonstration effect increases the net gains for sport participation

Leveraging of the LPG was largely absent from the organisations that were interviewed, though there were two organisations that appeared to have prepared and leveraged the LPG. As a result of their planning and preparation, these organisations have been able to benefit from the LPG in different ways. One sport was able to increase participation in their sport because of the

⁹ A marketing campaign from Sport England profiling everyday women being active. Further information about the scheme can be found on <http://www.thisgirlcan.co.uk>.

planning and preparation that had been undertaken before the LPG to ensure there was a junior VSC presence in every county in England:

“Our plan was to make sure there was a junior club in every county in England...whilst still developing senior clubs at the same time. Trying to put the infrastructure in place so, come [emphasis] London, we had the right structure, or we had a better [emphasis] structure, or a structure that could work...generally, our clubs saw an increase in participation, across the board...I put it down to that investment in the first four years, so ‘9 to ‘12, of making sure we had a structure in place, and that we’ve continued to do that.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

By actively building an underlying framework to support initiatives linked to the LPG, this NGB was able to provide a base from which to increase participation in their sport at a rate quicker than similar sized sports. With the structure in place, the demonstration effect can be channelled more strategically to support the enhanced interest in sport. As one NGB suggested, providing compelling participation experiences is reliant on a robust underlying structure being in place:

“...Sport still has to create the framework to do this, otherwise all that happens is they go and try something, don’t think much of it, don’t like the reception they get and don’t bother. So, you have to put in something that’s sustainable, underneath that, yeah it might have helped when they go out and try it for the first time, but whether they sustain and build an interest depends on the offer and the reception they get.” (NGB Seven).

“...We can’t latch the success of the increase of grassroots participation on a 10-day event. We just can’t. There’s got to be structures in place that enable us to work through that, and just use that as a tool for awareness. That’s really what the Games is about, from my perspective.” (NDSO One)

One participant commented on how the preparation before the LPG was vital to ensuring there were more participation opportunities for disabled CYP:

“There’s no doubt in my mind that what we did before the Games is the petrol in the engine that’s now still running...those things would not have worked had we not got six years of building a system, educating people, generating some momentum, creating some role models for young people, so that when the legacy things landed, they were able to, as I say, be activated [emphasis] by this engine that was already running. (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

The LPG provided the platform for follow-up programmes for young people to be more successful than would have been the case if there had been no leveraging. This is particularly important in appealing to disabled young people that might not ordinarily be enthused or interested by sport. By laying the groundwork before the LPG, the programmes run after the LPG gained greater traction with young disabled people:

“You already had a generation of young people that started to get their heads around Paralympic sport and started to understand the ability [emphasis] of their disabled peers. What the moment of London did was made that sexy...To some degree, what you’d done before the Games is you’ve captured the low-hanging fruit. You’ve captured the first cohort of young people that were gonna be got, if the right set of circumstances or opportunities were put their way. What London did was just took it out to a wider audience and therefore the inclusion programmes that we run, were even more successful post the Games. But if we’d waited for the Games and then thought, ‘right, now let’s do something off the back of it’, you would have been able to do something,

you wouldn't have been able to have created the step-changes that we have got.”
(Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

Leveraging the LPG enabled organisations to strategically utilise the ‘buzz’ generated by the LPG to align with their participation programmes. In addition, leveraging the LPG before 2012 enabled organisations to ‘prime’ individuals to respond to excitement prompted by the LPG. These individuals therefore already had experience of sport participation and an understanding of the opportunities available to them. Demand for sport participation had therefore already been built before the LPG, rather than relying on the LPG to build the demand for sport participation. The LPG could therefore act as the ‘cherry on top of the cake’ for these organisations.

4.4.1.3 Making a sport inclusive is important in increasing sport participation

Some sports have been able to increase their sports participation by making their sport more inclusive to disabled people. This is to say that these sports have made the sport available to everyone rather than just specific Paralympic impairment classifications. Making the sport more inclusive broadens the pool of potential participants available to participate in the sport and makes the sport less restrictive. This was borne out by the experiences of two CSPs, who found it much easier to get disabled people active if the sport is inclusive:

“And I quite like the fact...disability sports or inclusive sport, is just that; it's not just for disabled people, and it can be for anyone, and that's a really positive thing. Or something like wheelchair basketball, you know, it's actually a really fun, difficult sport, really challenging. But anyone can play that. So, I think that was a positive and important thing that happened.” (CSP One).

“I think the more open a sport can be to different impairments; the greater impact it can have. I think if you restrict it like wheelchair rugby, for example, we struggle to get any interest for that because you're dealing with such a small select group, then you've got to find people within that select group that have an interest in having a go at it. You're just dealing with such a small number of people that it just makes it difficult to get that activity and participation happening.” (CSP Two).

Being inclusive enables a sport to increase the pool of prospective participants at their disposal. Making a sport more inclusive is productive because it enables disabled people to participate alongside non-disabled friends. In addition, including non-disabled people and a wide range of impairments enables the sport to become ‘mainstream’ and potentially to become more accepted within the sports environment. If more non-disabled people are aware of the sport and have enjoyed playing the sport, then that can help future efforts at setting up VSCs, increasing the workforce, boosting the profile, and so on. Making the sport inclusive helps a sport to tap into any latent demand from people with impairments not included in the Paralympic Games, to participate in the sport:

“One thing that we realised was, actually, a lot more people wanted to play [name of sport] and participate in [name of sport] and, therefore, we widened our reach and scale of what we wanted to do by allowing a wider range of people to take part in the sport.”
(Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

Paralympic sports which focus only on the impairment classifications included in the Paralympic Games risk narrowing their potential field of participants. Having an inclusive offer or versions of the sport for a number of different impairment groups provides a sport with more opportunities to increase participation in their sport. The awareness and interest that a Paralympic Games can provide for a sport would appear to have a better chance of being

converted into participation if there are a number of pathways into the sport for disabled people. If a disabled person's interest in a sport they have viewed at the Paralympic Games is piqued, then being inclusive may be a more conducive tactic for sports to employ than if they are restricted to the Paralympic impairment classifications.

4.4.1.4 Highlighting sport's social benefits encourages some inactive disabled people to participate in sport

Some of the sports have been able to get more disabled people participating in their sport by focusing on the social benefits of sport, rather than the competitive element. These sports have stressed the positive impacts sport can have on the health and well-being of the individual:

"Our mission statement is to transform people's lives...So when we do new sessions it's very much like 'have fun and come along and meet other people, who have a similar experience to yourself, young or old, it doesn't really matter, just come along'. And it's kind of more like a social group, as opposed to a sporting training session. Yes, you do have some clubs that are very much talent, talent, talent, whereas the majority of our clubs it's more just a social hub for [name of impairment]. So that's kind of how we try and get inactive people to take part is, actually come along, get out of the house for two hours, have a bit of fun. And, yes, we'll play some [name of sport], but it's not essentially like a sport, it's more come along and have fun." (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

The focus on the social benefits of sport rather than competition appears to have been a more effective strategy at engaging inactive disabled people. For previously inactive disabled people who are perhaps lacking in confidence and usually put-off by the competitive connotations of sport, this has been productive for some sports:

"Our purpose as an organisation, primarily, is to alleviate suffering for people with lower limb impairments; it's not to run a league, to run national teams. So that's part of our value base and our ethos. And I think that helped us. One, with our passion for growth and support. But, two, we're then actually delivering." (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

"We've just recently done a survey across quite a lot of our players, and one of the main messages that has come through is the fact that it has helped them improve their social skills, and has made them friends across the country, and also improve their confidence and independence." (NGB One).

The approach by some of the sports to focus and communicate on the benefits of sport to health and well-being has helped to get some inactive individuals participating in the sport. This has been achieved because, for these inactive disabled people, their interests in being more active lies in the benefits it might have with their social skills or health, and how this might translate to their daily life. It is less about the talent or competition elements of sport that appeals to these inactive disabled people, but rather the possibility to broaden their social skills and improve their well-being. Focusing on the traditional facets of sport, such as competition and talent, is unlikely to be attractive to the core motivations that inactive disabled people that have previously not been 'sporty' are interested in. For disabled people not usually predisposed to being 'sporty' or active, emphasising the social and well-being benefits a sport can provide appears to have been more effective at being congruent with the motivations for some inactive disabled people, rather than inspiration from Paralympians.

4.4.1.5 Increased acceptance of disabled people in sport and society by non-disabled people

The success of Paralympic GB at the LPG was thought to have been important in attempting to change the attitudes of non-disabled people regarding disabled people in society and sport. This is because non-disabled people may realise the ability and potential of disabled people as a result of the LPG, leading to increased acceptance of disability and difference in society. Unless individuals have a personal connection to disability, some non-disabled people may not have been exposed to the capability of disabled people. With the media coverage that the LPG received, the LPG may have been able to communicate the excellence that can be achieved by disabled people. This was suggested by one of the participants, who provided the following anecdote:

“I had a builder working for me at the time and he just happened to be building me a bathroom right the way through the Games, obviously he knew I was involved, so I’ll be coming home from work every day, and he would say, ‘I’ve watched this, I watched that last night’ and he said to me, ‘I started crying yesterday’. And I said, ‘why’s that?’ and he said, ‘because I felt really ashamed that I wasn’t aware [emphasis] of the possibilities of somebody who’s disabled’. And I thought that was quite amazing, I’ve got this grown burly man in my house telling me he cried because of his lack [emphasis] of understanding of disability.” (NDSO One).

The reference to non-disabled people engaging in self-reflection regarding their attitudes towards disabled people was mentioned by other participants.

“I think as a whole, as a nation, I think it’s made people a lot more aware of disability, and I think it’s a lot more accepting around differences. I think the actual outlook of people; you see more disability on the TV.” (NDSO Five).

“I mean obviously as society moves on all sorts of things have, you know, attitudes and perceptions change, but the Games, in my view, without a doubt has shifted, you know, 15-20 years ahead of where it might have been.” (NSO Four).

“[It] Has certainly raised the profile of disability sport and encouraged non-disabled people to recognise that disabled people can and do play sport to a high level.” (CSP Four).

“...Certainly, one of the key things as well has been attitudinal things. So, people that watched a lot of the Paralympics in 2012 I think were amazed and surprised by seeing the athletes and what they could do...in terms of disability rights and disabled people having, you know, less discrimination in society, I think it was quite eye-opening for a lot of people...predominately those who don’t come across disabled people in their everyday life.” (CSP Five).

The increased acceptance of disabled people within society by non-disabled people was thought to benefit the sport participation of disabled people. One way this attitudinal change can help participation was through senior managers within sports organisations recognising the need to provide opportunities commensurate with disabled people’s needs:

“I think it’s done good things in terms of disability. I think the impact has been on changing mind-sets; ‘I have to look at an athlete-centred approach’, so a national governing body now is a little bit more aware of, ‘Ok, I can’t just do a ‘Run England’ programme for a wheelchair user, because they don’t run, they push’. So, Push England was created and that was a direct result of them thinking differently and thinking about the language and terminology...So I think, you know, it’s been beneficial in terms of changing people’s attitudes in that way.” (NDSO Seven).

“...For somebody who’s on reception about how they might be treated if a disabled person goes in and asks to take part in sport, I think from that perspective then a lot more people that are working in sport and in the general public, are a lot more knowledgeable and aware of, you know, that disabled people are just the same as anyone else, they’ve just suffered either an injury or something through birth, but it doesn’t mean they can’t take part in sport or achieve at a high level. So, I think from an attitudinal point of view that barrier, which I believe is one of the main ones for disabled people, will have reduced.” (CSP Five).

Increased positive perceptions of disabled people from non-disabled people can aid participation opportunities by encouraging VSCs and NGBs to offer more inclusive participation settings. As mentioned earlier, sports which have used inclusion for their grassroots participation have been successful in generating participation increases than they otherwise might have achieved. Thus, the impact of the LPG on creating positive attitudes regarding disabled people can be with the recognition of the need for inclusive sport opportunities to become more commonplace:

“The real silver bullet here, if there is one, is attitudinal change...actually, the thing that’s gonna make a difference, if you’re looking more medium-term, is a shift in attitudes across society that will enable disabled people to see sport as available to them. That’s in local authorities, it’s in local clubs, it’s in the very views [emphasis] of those people responsible for delivering it. Because if you take a local rowing club in Bristol, and you say, ‘what’s really holding them back from creating opportunities for any disabled person that turns up wanting to learn to row?’ It’s not really programmes that are driven through British Rowing. It’s actually gonna be whether, on the ground, that club has both physical accessibility and the ability of its volunteering, it’s coaching, to actually deliver something meaningful for that disabled person. And a lot of that is to do with people’s mind-set and their ability to engage in that activity.” (NSO One).

As evidenced, there were some participants who believe there has been positive changes made to the attitudes of some non-disabled people regarding disabled people. Whilst this may be the case, it is also true that hate crime against disabled people and characterisation of disabled people as benefit scroungers has also occurred during this timeframe:

“Another interesting statistic to look at is disability hate crime, that’s also, if you look at how that’s been correlated into the negative news stories that’s, you know, the rates of disability hate crime have soared, and it’s a really worrying statistic. I think that’s directly correlated with all these kind of negative media portrayals of disabled people.” (Non-SO One).

Despite the hate crime and negative attitudes towards disabled people, one participant believed the success of the LPG was able to highlight where negative attitudes against disabled people had no place in society. The LPG, therefore, was suggested to be able to insulate the positive attitudes formed by watching the LPG against erroneous negative media stories:

“What London 2012 created was an opportunity to demonstrate where those attitudes are wrong and where those attitudes are failed, and also it clearly [emphasis] demonstrated that we have a lot to do as a society to move the situation, and that we are in the foothills and not the summit. If there’s any sort of sense of what we might be able to be optimistic about, is a view that London 2012...creating more positive perceptions at a time of when they’re formed, as opposed to when they’re having to be challenged among young people. And therefore, a generation will grow up who, attitudinally, have a different approach...But London 2012 supercharged people’s

understanding [emphasis] of the Paralympics, and through that the opportunity that was given to us to create this wider agenda.” (NSO One).

“I believe had we not had the Paralympic Games, there might not have been such a counterbalance to the negative side...I think if you were to look at as a maths sum, you know, what you’ve got is a much bigger B than an A and, therefore the overarching position we’ve ended up in is I think society understands disability more, therefore is more able to make its own judgements and decisions rather than rely on populist news stories or whatever.” (NSO Four).

Formation of positive attitudes towards disabled people amongst non-disabled people is an important mechanism of the LPG. But this mechanism has occurred within certain contexts. For this mechanism to be prevalent in more contexts, more time is required in order for societal attitudes to be positively shifted to aid the participation of disabled people in sport.

4.4.2 Why have some disabled people not increased their sport participation as a result of the London 2012 Paralympic Games?

Having explored the mechanisms and contexts in which the LPG was successful in increasing sport participation of disabled people, this section will explore the reasons for the decline, nationally, in disabled people’s sport participation since the LPG. A number of possible reasons for the decline in sport participation were offered by the interviewees, suggesting the role of the LPG is a multi-dimensional one. The findings reflect the complexity of attempting to use a MSE such as the Paralympic Games to increase disabled people’s sports participation.

4.4.2.1 Limitations of Paralympians as role models for the rest of the disability community

An impediment to the effectiveness of the demonstration effect was a perceived competency gap between the individual and the Paralympian. Although not exclusively, this was thought to be more prevalent amongst disabled adults compared to young people. The disparity between an individual’s sporting ability and that of the Paralympian may have added to regular participation not being sustained, exacerbated by unrealistic expectations of novice’s abilities by mainstream clubs:

“There was just this expectation that they’d just be able to do it straight away... And suddenly they were being told, ‘you can become an elite athlete’. And I think that had a bit of a knock-on”. (DSO One).

For some disabled people, particularly those with high support needs or complex impairments, there can be an incongruous relationship between themselves and a Paralympian, stemming from the disparity in daily life experiences. Relying only on inspiration to increase sport participation failed to acknowledge the structural barriers that prevent some disabled people from being active in society:

“Not only is some of it off-putting to some people because they think, ‘well, if that’s what sport and physical activity means, then I’m not gonna even bother [emphasis] thinking about it because it’s so far from what I’m ever going to achieve’. But then it’s also this thing about, well, ‘also I don’t feel I have the personal resource to do it and you’re telling [emphasis] me that I can, but I can’t”. (Non-SO Three).

Inspiration on its own is unlikely to be sufficient because ‘if it’s just abstract; it’s nonsense’ (Non-SO One). Service quality was thought to be of more fundamental significance to maintaining regular participation than deriving inspiration from Paralympians:

“...Whether they sustain and build an interest depends on the offer and the reception they get...Those things are much more important, fundamentally, to sustaining interest than, you know, multiple Paralympic Games.” (NGB Seven).

Peer role-models were thought to be more resonant to an inactive person’s sense of self, and would help encourage inactive disabled people to be physically active:

” ...The person that’s inactive can look at that and go, ‘I could do that’...And I think if role-models can be seen as ‘everyday people’, for want of a better word, then that can be really inspirational”. (DSO One).

Peer role models were thought to be most effective at engaging inactive disabled adults, but there was a feeling that Paralympians were most relevant to CYP, due to Paralympians potentially being closer to an individual’s sense of self. Paralympians, in the main, will be more appropriate sources of leveraging for young disabled people, and disabled people already participating in sport or who hold an interest in sport. Disabled adults without that investment in sport are unlikely to be sufficiently inspired to sustain their participation beyond the initial ‘buzz’ generated by the event.

4.4.2.2 Lack of leveraging and an overreliance on the demonstration effect

There was a lack of leveraging from the organisations included in this study. Participants believed legacy outcomes were poorly defined and lacked clarity, leading to an absence of a coherent strategy:

“The legacy element...just felt more woolly, if you like, in terms of what we were trying to achieve. A big lesson for me would be to say, ‘ok. What do we want to do with that?’ And then properly plan accordingly to do it.” (NGB Two).

Underpinning this lack of focus was the perception that event delivery was of more importance to event organisers than the fostering of a legacy from the LPG. As the time for hosting the LPG got nearer there was a feeling that delivering a world-class event was prioritised at the expense of the sport participation legacy:

“I think we paid a little bit of lip service to legacy until it became important to measure. I think in the build-up... it was more about the Games than the legacy of the Games, and kind of then had the Games and a little bit of the planning really kicked in about legacy”. (NDSO Seven).

It was thought sports organisations such as NGBs and CSPs were not prepared, despite the seven-year gap between confirmation of host status and the staging of the LPG, to be able to sustainably increase the participation of disabled people in sport. The success of the LPG, therefore, appeared to take sport organisations by surprise, with NGBs, NDSOs, and mainstream VSCs not in a position to respond accordingly to increased demand after the LPG:

“It had a huge impact and I just don’t really think we believed how successful it was going to be, and we could have done a lot more off the back of it that we just weren’t prepared for; because we weren’t asking the right questions”. (NSO Two).

“I suspected all along that the infrastructure was not strong enough to support the interest that would be generated. And because the foundation wasn’t in place, we probably weren’t prepared to try and keep that sustained level country-wide, not just for us, country-wide, to be able to sustain it. (NDSO Two).

An overreliance on the demonstration effect resulted in insufficient demand for sport participation being created amongst disabled people before the LPG:

“I think there was an assumption that if you have a very successful Paralympic Games, then suddenly lots of people with disabilities will want to do sport and physical activity... The hardest thing is getting people with disabilities to want to do sport and physical activity in the first place. And that’s [emphasis] what the legacy should have been, it should have been the engagement of people with disabilities themselves. And there wasn’t really anything, or not much, concrete, around that...They [voluntary sport clubs] probably didn’t get any people with disabilities knocking at their door because we hadn’t done that demand focused stuff” (CSP One).

Due to the lack of leveraging and disjointed planning that occurred for the sport participation legacy, enthusiasm to participate in sport had not been established sufficiently for disabled people not already predisposed to sport. Consequently, the impact of the LPG on these people was not strong enough to override existing barriers to participation. In addition, poor participation experiences for disabled people may have limited the potential of the demonstration effect. Inadequately trained staff and an understaffed workforce were likely to have led to some people experiencing poor service quality:

“...People were inspired to go, ‘I want to do that’, but then there’s no point if you have a six-month waiting list to join a club. And that, I think, has happened quite a lot with certain sports”. (NDSO Three).

It is important to point out that two of the interviewed NGBs experienced internal restructuring issues within their organisation, and this might have influenced their capacity to leverage the LPG. This internal upheaval meant that these NGBs were unable to provide adequate attention and resources to the provision of sport for disabled people after the LPG:

“After London we lost UK Sport funding so there was a period of, probably a year or so, possibly even slightly longer, of real instability, in terms of not knowing what that then meant for the sport at the highest level, and then, almost by nature, because of the way we’d been structured previously in terms of the top-down approach, if then the top wasn’t gonna be there, how did that then make a difference?” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

“We went through loads of changes 2 years ago... As we went through our restructure, EFDS were told to leave us alone, basically, until we were sorted...We’ve only just got a membership database up and running, so we’ve only just got figures and things...we haven’t been in the position previously to track insight and things, which is difficult to then know what’s working and what’s not working, if that makes sense?” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

Notwithstanding the importance of contextual circumstances of some of the NGBs, generally, the NGBs and other sports providers did not effectively channel the post-LPG ‘buzz’ and momentum. Instead, the main sports organisations struggled to react to the immediate demand in a manner conducive to achieving sustainable grassroots sport participation for disabled people in England.

4.4.2.3 Most NGBs lacked an inclusive culture

Prior to the LPG, there was a general lack of inclusive culture within most NGBs and CSPs, with most NGBs lacking a history of mainstreaming their sport for disabled people (Thomas and Smith 2009). Most mainstream NGBs did not fully embrace the principle of inclusion in how they

governed their sport (Brown and Pappous 2018a). This is highlighted by the experiences of one of the senior managers at a mainstream NGB:

“...It’s on the back of people’s lists, really. So, it’s a lot of nagging from me... if it wasn’t a directed target from Sport England I think it might be a bit of a harder sell, in that respect.” (NGB Nine).

Due to most NGBs not having experience in providing sporting opportunities for disabled people, knowledge and understanding of disability was often weak. Awareness of how to provide accessible sport participation opportunities for disabled people was often absent:

“It’s a big culture change for NGBs and everyone that’s now supposed to be on this journey... [NGBs were] Not interested in anything else, absolutely not interested, with one or two notable exceptions, in doing anything around disability [before the LPG].” (NDSO Four).

The lack of inclusive culture meant that some NGBs did not understand how to offer compelling participation experiences to disabled people and how best to promote sport participation opportunities. Most NGBs and CSPs were not aware of how to access and engage with hard-to-reach disabled people, consumers who did not fit their typical target market, as ‘it’s not like a natural fit’ (Non-SO Three). Making disabled people aware of available sport participation opportunities was a challenge for some providers:

“...Still people don’t understand that there are so many sport opportunities out there, and that they can actually attend them and it is for them, rather than thinking it is for someone else....we’re still at the point where people are still saying, ‘but we didn’t know that was there’”. (CSP Three).

Some NGBs lacked specific disability officers, which meant that the time available to disability sport participation was often in competition with other NGB priority areas:

“Some of the NGBs, they have a member of staff who’s charged with disability, but it’ll be part of another role, so their main role will still be non-disabled sport and then they’ll have disability sport as a bolt-on. So, it’s very hard to dedicate too much of your work time to one area when you’ve got other targets as well.” (NDSO Six).

Some NGBs have the capacity to have specific disability teams, with a dedicated disability officer driving the disability work for that sport, but the majority of NGBs do not have the resources to do this. Not having a specific disability officer meant that some NGBs devolved responsibility for providing for disabled people, stating each of their employees have a responsibility for disability when, in reality, it is low on the list of their priorities.

4.4.2.4 Tensions in the relations between the NDSOs and NGBs

The resistance from some NGBs to being more inclusive created tensions between them and other stakeholders, particularly NDSOs. NDSOs are dependent on NGBs in delivering national sport participation opportunities for their target market (Brown and Pappous 2018b). The NGBs, as a resource for the NDSO, can be considered to be of critical importance and high magnitude for the NDSOs’ ambition to achieve their organisational objectives (Pfeffer and Salancik 2003). NGBs were ‘not interested in anything else, absolutely not interested, with one or two notable exceptions, in doing anything around disability’ (NDSO Four). This meant that NDSOs who attempted to engage with NGBs were ‘... knocking against closed doors because people were going, “well, we’re not ready for this, we don’t have to do it, we’re not doing it”, kind of thing’ (NDSO Four). NDSOs were thus attempting to overcome resistant attitudes that permeated the

sport sector prior to the LPG. This created asymmetry in power relations between the NDSOs and NGBs, with the role of NDSOs undervalued by most NGBs (Brown and Pappous 2018b). The dependency of the NDSOs on NGBs for their involvement in increasing sport participation caused frustration amongst some NDSOs:

“I’m passionate about what I do, and believe in what I do, but the frustration is that you’re trying to change hearts and minds. . .this happened to me only 3 or 4 weeks ago, talking to a Governing Body about ‘what plans could we do for your sport?’ I mean I’m still having those conversations now [emphasis], and we’re near the end of the project, 2017, and it was very much, ‘oh, we’re writing our disability project now . . . we’ll come back to you’.” (NDSO Five)

Some of the NDSOs reported using the status and power of Sport England to increase the involvement of NGBs in disability participation:

“Some of them [NGBs] were the big players and people that represented Paralympic sports as well, who were a bit more resistant. But that was fed back to Sport England and I wasn’t the only NDSO who fed that back.” (NDSO One)

The NDSOs are not equipped as organisations to deliver sport participation opportunities nationwide. If the NGBs and CSPs did not enter into an exchange of resources, then the NDSOs would still be able to function, but their delivery would be minor and local:

“A lot of the NDSOs are either doing the work themselves to run activity, or doing it locally with a local NGB, or regional NGB, rather than a national, which then affects strategy, really, because you don’t embed it into the organisation.” (NDSO Five)

The NDSOs’ outputs are made up to a strong degree regarding the involvement of NGBs and CSPs cooperating and opening their participation networks to athletes the NDSOs cater for. The NGBs and CSPs are therefore critical to the NDSOs because their position in the disability sport sector is not to deliver, and they lack the resources to do so nationally in any case (Brown and Pappous 2018b). Thus, the initial reluctance of some NGBs to fully engage with their disability commitments through cooperation with NDSOs, allied to a lack of inclusive culture within NGBs, is likely to have played an important role in the momentum generated by the LPG failing to be channelled effectively. Moreover, the dysfunctional relationships that some NDSOs and NGBs had with each other is likely to have further hindered efforts to increase disabled people’s sport participation.

4.4.2.5 Focusing on numbers not sustainability

Some respondents believed the focus on APS targets produced a myopic approach to sport participation. Participation programmes may have been successful in achieving participant numbers, but this did little to encourage sustainable participation:

“The next four years we delivered on our participation targets, job done. If I’m honest, do I think, you know, we’ve done a particularly good job, in terms of creating a lasting legacy specifically around the Games? Not especially”. (NGB Two).

Indeed, the focus on targets has been labelled by some respondents as evidence of a ‘tick-box’ culture in Sport England, and Sport England being focused on ‘quick wins’. This was detrimental to sustainable participation because it didn’t address barriers and long-term behaviour change,

but was likely to be a result of the need for Sport England to justify the public funds spent on sport, especially during a time of public spending cuts:

“I look at how they [Sport England] are and I just realise that they have a tick box culture, and that’s basically what they did”. (Non-SO One).

“I think that’s to do with people at Sport England not having a vision, and the fact that they’re a publicly funded body who, at the end of the day, are accountable to politicians.” (NDSO Four).

Sport England’s recent change in strategic focus from sport for sport’s sake to being more concerned about the wider benefits sport can provide, is an admission that using NGBs as the main organisations to increase sport participation has been unsuccessful (Harris, Nichols and Taylor 2017; Weed 2016).

4.4.2.6 Gap in the media coverage of disability sport between the different Paralympic Games

Whilst there was extensive coverage of Paralympic sport during the LPG, respondents felt there could have been more media coverage between the 2012 and 2016 Paralympic Games. The media were thought to be ‘major events junkies’ (NGB One) in focusing on disability sport only when a major event was being staged:

“...we need to try and make the media coverage that surrounded it more general. More in everyday life, rather than every 4 years we have a big shout about what people with a disability can do, and then we don’t mention it again for another three and half years.” (Non-SO Two).

“Other than the Commonwealth Games, which came up in Glasgow, really [emphasis], how much more disability sport have we seen since 2012 in the media? Not a lot.” (NDSO One).

There is a paradoxical situation in that demand is unlikely to be generated unless there is more media coverage, but that the media are unlikely to have more coverage of disability sport because existing consumer demand is deemed to be insufficient:

“There’s a bit of a chicken and an egg thing, I guess, in terms of not putting on events because people won’t support them and sponsor them and they won’t sponsor them because you don’t get the publicity and the footfall that a sponsor requires but, until you do that, then they can’t put their money into it... I don’t know how you solve that. It seems like a vicious circle, in a way.” (NGB Four).

The power of the media to increase awareness and perceptions of disability should not be underestimated, as ‘we’ve learnt the power of the media, without a shadow of a doubt...In terms of the social change’ (NSO Four). The media coverage of disability sport, as well as disability in general, has improved and progressed since the LPG, largely driven by Channel 4’s support. Despite the positive progress some participants felt more media coverage could be afforded to disability sport in between the Paralympic Games:

“So, throughout the Paralympic Games it was on Sky Sports News, it was on things like that. It was in the general media. We saw a big pick-up in terms of numbers wanting to get involved straight after, and I think that’s largely down to the fact it was advertised; people saw things that they don’t normally see. But then, six months later, it’s not on any of those national media outlets anymore, it’s not in the news. And we see a decline again.” (Non-SO Two).

The media coverage of the LPG was so extensive and wide-ranging that no other disability sports event has been able to generate media coverage on a comparable level. However, the drop in in-depth media coverage for disability sport other than the Paralympic Games has made it difficult to sustain the positive momentum created by the LPG. The reduced amount of media coverage for disability sport after the LPG therefore did not help efforts to increase disabled people's sport participation.

4.4.2.7 Austerity reduces the importance of sport participation for some disabled people

The introduction of austerity measures following the formation of the Coalition government in 2010 undoubtedly impacted on leveraging the LPG (Brittain and Beacom 2016). For some disabled people, austerity measures have made sports participation unaffordable:

“We've had a few centres that have shut.... So, we've seen a slight dropping in capacity, and we've definitely seen people unable to afford to do it, for whatever reason.” (Respondent anonymised to maintain confidentiality).

Local authorities experienced some of the deepest budget cuts implemented by the Coalition government (Lowndes and Gardner 2016), which has reduced the number of sport services councils can provide. There was concern from one participant regarding the effect of budget cuts on the commitment of local authorities to being inclusive:

“The amount of disability officers at a local level is reducing massively.... And what they've seemed to have done to counter that is turn around and go, 'oh no, we're inclusive. All our Officers have a responsibility for disability'. Crap. What it is, is you've lost your money for your Disability Officer. You couldn't turn around and say 'we don't do it', so you now say it's endemic in everybody's job. They're simply not doing it because the expertise isn't there and it's the last thing on the list.” (NDSO Seven).

Reductions in the number of dedicated disability officers is likely to have had a negative impact on the number and quality of sport participation opportunities that can be offered at a local level to disabled people.

The introduction of austerity and the attempted 'reform' of the welfare system led to negative media coverage of disabled people (Briant, Watson and Philo 2013). Indeed, the negative media coverage is thought to have deterred some disabled people from participating in sport due to a fear of losing welfare benefits if deemed to be 'too active' (Brown and Pappous 2018b). As one participant noted, 'we're up against a lot of messages in the media, which are saying, you know, you're a benefit scrounger or you're a superhero; there's no in-between' (Non-SO Three). Interviewees highlighted how this had contributed to some disabled people being fearful of participating in sport and being active, 'because you get some of that trashy press saying benefit cheats and things like that' (CSP One). With the very real fear that there could be a reduction of benefits, participation in sport was no longer a priority for some disabled people reliant or strongly reliant on benefits to sustain their daily living needs:

“So, if you look at the totality of the changes, then a disabled person is probably gonna prioritise their health, their immediate kind of health and wellbeing, before potential sports participation”. (Non-SO One).

“The fear that disabled people have [is] that if they're seen to be active it...well, 'how can I be active or I'll lose my benefits?' 'Or if I'm seen to be active people will say I'm not as disabled as I say I am'”. (NSO Two).

The attempt to leverage the LPG for increased participation was partly stymied by the media stoking a culture of fear amongst some disabled adults, and a culture of mistrust amongst some non-disabled people:

“I think some of the media outlets were talking about people making up an impairment to get all of these benefits, so then the scroungers attitude; disabled people are scroungers. When it’s something like 0.3% of benefit claims are fraudulent, or something like that... And it has some very, very negative detrimental effects on their lives, to the point where being active really isn’t a priority anymore. If you can’t feed yourself, you can’t pay rent, you can’t get your support needs met, all those sorts of things. So, it kind of has a full circle effect. I’ve heard lots of sad stories about that kind of thing. But it’s also the fact that a lot of disabled people don’t want to be seen to be active because they’re then scared they might lose their benefits”. (CSP One).

Austerity measures and the characterisation of disabled people as ‘benefit scroungers’ by some sections of the media, may be an important reason for the decline in sport participation following the post-LPG high in October 2013. For disabled people without the ‘sport participation habit’, fear of losing benefits and being labelled as a ‘benefit cheat’ may have been more powerful than any inspiration that might have been gained from watching and/or experiencing the LPG (Brown and Pappous 2018b).

4.5 Revised CMOCs

An updated list of CMOCs can now be presented in light of the findings presented in this chapter (Table 9).

Table 9: Updated CMOCs based on qualitative findings.

Context	+ Mechanism	= Outcome
Current active sport participants	Success of home nation Paralympians resonates with the individual’s self-efficacy, inspiring a desire to emulate the achievements of Paralympians	Desire to participate in sport at a higher level
Organisations leveraging the demonstration effect from the LPG	Demand and excitement for the LPG has been built, priming the individual to respond to the stimulus provided by the LPG	Increased participation frequency
Inactive or less active disabled adults	Images of successful Paralympians stimulates reflection of sport participation, prompting a contemplation of how one might eventually participate in sport	Sport participation viewed as a realistic option
Underdeveloped grassroots disability sport system	The success of home-nation Paralympians throws into sharp relief the underdeveloped structures and foundations of sport participation for disabled people. The Paralympic Games provides a catalytic effect for developing the system	Increased funding and policy focus on grassroots disability sport

Sports with a low profile amongst the general public prior to the Paralympic Games	Increased media coverage of sports featured at the Paralympic Games raises awareness of the sport amongst disabled people. Perception of sport being available to disabled people is increased	Increased profile of sport amongst disabled people
Individuals with impairments not included in the Paralympic Games	The focus of sports organisations on increasing the pool of talent available to the sport results in a lack of resources and knowledge for individuals not eligible for the Paralympic Games. The Paralympic Games demonstrates a limited range of disability, providing a false representation of the diversity inherent in disability	Paralympic Games has a limited effect on sport participation
Paralympic Games hosts that aim to increase sport participation	Disabled children and young people viewed as a better economic investment due to longevity compared to older adults, which prompts heightened policy and funding focus. Attempts to 'inspire a generation' are centred at this group, with the assumption from sports organisations and government that young people are more receptive to inspiration than adults	Increased quality and access to school sport and physical education for disabled children and young people
Some non-disabled people without a personal connection to disability	Successful hosting of the Paralympic Game and the media coverage of the excellence of Paralympians prompts the individual to critically reflect on negative stereotypes towards disability	Some non-disabled people's attitudes of disabled people positively increase and may help lead to greater acceptance of disability in mainstream society
Some inactive disabled people inspired by the Paralympic Games to participate in sport	Reduced confidence as a result of a perceived competency gap between the Paralympian and the inactive individual.	Initial enthusiasm for sport participation after the Paralympic Games is not sustained
Sports organisations without a history of providing for disabled people before the Paralympic Games	Culture of ableism results in disability being neglected or ignored within the structures of the organisation. This results in a lack of insight, knowledge, and understanding of disability	Unable to provide suitable sport participation opportunities for disabled people
Success of GB Paralympians	Communication of the benefits of being active will increase consciousness raising and improved decisional balance of the individual	Increased contemplation and motivation of non-

		active individuals to participate in sport
Sports organisations with sport participation targets linked to funding	Organisations focus efforts on resources that can meet the funding targets, in order to ensure critical resources are secured.	Population groups not included in funding targets are neglected by most sports organisations
Policy focus of sports organisations on children and young people	Sports providers' desire to maintain Sport England funding results in narrow focus of resource allocation	A lack of suitable sport participation opportunities after the LPG for disabled adults aged 50 and over
Disabled people reliant or strongly reliant on benefit payments to sustain daily living	Austerity measures reduces the disposable income of disabled people, resulting in sport participation being viewed as a lower priority. Negative media coverage of disabled people as 'benefit scroungers' creates a fear of being seen to be active and that benefit payments will be reduced as a result	Reduced sport participation

The CMOCs presented in Table 9 provide an indication into the different ways and means the LPG sport participation legacy has been successful or unsuccessful. These CMOCs will be further refined by the studies presented in the next two chapters.

Chapter 5: The limited impact of the London 2012 Paralympic Games on sport participation: Views of voluntary sports clubs

5.1 Introduction

This section presents findings from the bottom-up perspective, in the form of English VSCs, enabling contrasts and comparisons between the top-down views espoused in the previous chapter to emerge. VSCs were an important conduit for the LPG grassroots sport participation legacy ambitions (Charlton 2010), therefore insights from VSCs are invaluable in complimenting the data from senior managers of sports and non-sports organisations. Relevant CMOCs from study 1 were explored in the form of an online questionnaire administered to VSCs from sports featured at the LPG. The aim of this study was to further refine the CMOCs of the LPG sport participation legacy, and to compare the findings from the grassroots perspective compared to the top-down perspective provided in the previous chapter. This study therefore addresses the following RQs:

- RQ1: What impact did the London 2012 Paralympics Games have on the grassroots sport participation of disabled people in England?
- RQ2: Why did the London 2012 Paralympic Games succeed or fail to increase the grassroots sport participation of disabled people in England?

The chapter begins with a recapitulation of the CMOCs from study 1 and the CMOCs that are to be tested in this present study. The characteristics of the research sample are then discussed. Results from the questionnaire that address RQ1 are described. The results of a PCA and results of MANOVAs based on the identified components from the PCA are explored, addressing RQ2. Finally, the implications of the research findings are then discussed, followed by CMOCs that have been produced as a result of this study.

5.2 CMOCs to be explored in this study

The CMOCs identified in study 1 informed the design of the questionnaire. The intention of this study was to test relevant CMOCs at the grassroots level in the form of VSCs of sports featured at the LPG. It was not possible for this questionnaire to explore all of the CMOCs that were identified in study 1, as some of the CMOCs were beyond the scope of the VSC sample. Table 10 presents an overview of the CMOCs that are to be tested in this study.

Table 10: CMOCs from study 1 to be explored in study 2.

Context	+	Mechanism	=	Outcome
VSCs that leveraged the demonstration effect from the LPG		Preparation before the LPG enables a structure to be in place to respond to increased demand from the LPG.		Increase in the number of disabled members
Underdeveloped grassroots disability sport system		The success of home-nation Paralympians throws into sharp relief the underdeveloped structures and foundations of sport		Increased funding and access to specialist equipment for VSCs

	participation for disabled people. The Paralympic Games provides a catalytic effect for developing the system	
VSCs from sports with a low profile amongst the general public prior to the Paralympic Games	Increased media coverage of sports featured at the Paralympic Games raises awareness of the sport amongst disabled people. Perception of sport being available to disabled people is increased	Increased profile of sport amongst disabled people
People who volunteered at the Olympic or Paralympic Games	Euphoria generated by the LPG, coupled with people who volunteered at the Olympic and Paralympic Games, creates an atmosphere of increased desire for volunteering in sport	Increased workforce for the VSC
Sports organisations without a history of providing for disabled people before the Paralympic Games	Culture of ableism results in disability being neglected or ignored within the structures of the organisation. This results in a lack of insight, knowledge, and understanding of disability	VSCs unable to provide suitable sport participation opportunities for disabled people
Policy focus of sports organisations on children and young people	Sports providers' desire to maintain Sport England funding results in a narrow focus of resource allocation	A lack of suitable sport participation opportunities after the LPG for disabled adults aged 50 and over

5.3 Background information of the VSC sample

Table 11 provides a breakdown of the demographic information for the VSCs that completed the questionnaire. All Sport England regions were represented in the final sample, but the south-east region comprised a quarter of the total responses (25.65%), followed by the south-west region (16.91%). Over three quarters of the sample consisted of inclusive clubs (78.25%) and most of the VSCs provided opportunities for both children and adults (76.58%). A fairly even spread of small, medium, and large VSCs completed the questionnaire, but the final sample was dominated by VSCs with less than 10% of their total membership including disabled people (76.07%). Indeed, 28.22% of the sample had no disabled people as members of their VSC. Just 7.48% of the VSCs that completed the questionnaire had 100% of their membership as disabled people. The overwhelming majority of the VSCs were from sports that had won at least a bronze medal at the LPG (89.78%), enabling a thorough assessment of the demonstration effect from the LPG to be explored. Just under two-thirds of the VSCs are from NGBs that were awarded funding by Sport England to deliver sport participation opportunities to disabled people inclusively (63.57%). The majority of the VSCs were founded before the decision to host the LPG had been confirmed in 2005 (79.37%).

Table 11: Information about the VSCs in the sample.

Variable	Categories	Frequency	Percentage of sample
Region	South East	138	25.65%
	South West	91	16.91%
	East	61	11.34%
	North West	58	10.78%
	East Midlands	44	8.18%
	London	41	7.62%
	West Midlands	41	7.62%
	Yorkshire	39	7.25%
	North East	25	4.65%
Type of club	Opportunities for disabled and non-disabled people to take part together	421	78.25%
	Specifically for disabled people	51	9.48%
	Don't know	43	7.99%
	Parallel sessions are provided for disabled people	23	4.28%
Club audience	Both children and adults	412	76.58%
	Specifically for adults (16+) only	101	18.77%
	Specifically for children and young people (under 16)	25	4.65%
Founding of club	Before 2005	427	79.37%
	After the hosting of the 2012 Paralympics	60	11.15%
	After 2005 but before the 2012 Paralympics	51	9.48%
Total members of VSC	Small (less than 50)	185	34.39%
	Medium (51-130)	181	33.64%
	Large (131 and over)	169	31.41%
Disabled members of VSCs	1 or less	202	37.55%
	Between 2 and 5	166	30.86%
	Six and over	167	31.04%
Success at the LPG	Sports that won at least a bronze medal at the LPG	483	89.78%
	Sports that did not win any medals at the LPG	55	10.22%
Funding stream	Inclusive	342	63.57%
	Dedicated disability programmes	163	30.30%
	Paralympic-specific NGBs	33	6.13%

Table 12 provides information regarding the participants that completed the questionnaire on behalf of their VSC. Just over three quarters (75.28%) of the participants have been at their club for at least 6 years or more. This means the majority of the participants should have been in a good position to evaluate the impact of the LPG on their club as they would have been a member before the LPG. The participants who completed the questionnaire were predominately at least 45 years old (77.51%), whilst most of the sample did not consider themselves to have a disability that impaired their daily activities (76.58%).

Table 12: Demographic information about the participants.

Variable	Results	Number	Percentage of sample
Length of time as member of VSC	16 years or more	164	30.48%
	Between 6 years and 10 years	145	26.95%
	Between 1 year and 5 years	132	24.54%
	Between 11 and 15 years	96	17.84%
	Less than 1 year	1	0.19%
Gender	Male	285	52.97%
	Female	244	45.35%
	Prefer not to say	9	1.67%
Age	56-65	159	29.55%
	45-55	157	29.18%
	66+	101	18.77%
	35-44	62	11.52%
	25-34	32	5.95%
	Prefer not to say	15	2.79%
	16-24	12	2.23%
Disability	No	412	76.58%
	Yes	115	21.38%
	Prefer not to say	11	2.04%

5.4. RQ1: What impact did the London 2012 Paralympic Games have on the grassroots sport participation of disabled people in England?

This section will report the findings pertinent to RQ1; what impact has the LPG had on the participation of disabled people at VSCs?

5.4.1. Disability-specific sports benefit more from the LPG than mainstream sports

Most VSCs believed the LPG had no impact on the participation of disabled people at their clubs (Table 13). This was the case for disabled people of all ages, but particularly elderly disabled adults aged 66 and over.

Table 13: The impact of the LPG on the VSC's sport profile and number of participants at VSCs.

How the VSCs rated the impact of the LPG on the following areas, with 0 representing no impact and 10 maximum impact								
Rating	Increasing the number of disabled adult (16-65) participants at the VSC		Increasing the number of elderly disabled (66+) participants at the VSC		Increasing the number of disabled young participants (Under 16) participants at the VSC		Increased profile for the sport amongst disabled people	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
0	345	64.13%	428	79.55%	370	68.77%	217	40.33%
1 – 4	118	21.93%	74	13.75%	108	20.07%	144	26.77%

5	23	4.28%	14	2.60%	21	3.90%	40	7.43%
6 – 9	45	8.36%	20	3.72%	32	5.95%	99	18.40%
10	7	1.30%	2	0.37%	7	1.30%	38	7.06%

The lack of impact of the LPG on the number of disabled participants at VSCs is reflected in the number of VSCs that have experienced no change in their disabled membership (Table 14). Just under two-thirds of the VSCs have not experienced any noticeable changes in their number of disabled members within the last 5 years. It is important to acknowledge, however, that 23.42% of the clubs have seen at least a moderate increase in the number of disabled members at the club within the last 5 years. The increase in disabled membership for these clubs may not have been a result of the LPG, but might have been due to additional factors. Indeed, the likelihood is that it is not the LPG that would have been responsible for the moderate increase in membership based on the fact that the majority of clubs felt the LPG had no impact on the number of participants at their club.

Table 14: The disabled membership of VSCs within the last 5 years.

The disabled membership of VSCs within the last 5 years		
Category	Frequency	Percentage
Roughly unchanged (+/- 10%)	332	61.71%
Moderate increase (11 – 25%)	103	19.14%
Moderate decrease (11 – 25%)	24	4.46%
Large increase (more than 25%)	23	4.28%
Large decrease (more than 25%)	17	3.16%
Don't know	39	7.25%

VSCs from sports developed specifically for disabled people¹⁰ do appear to have reaped more benefits from the LPG, in terms of increased participation of disabled people, compared to mainstream sports. VSCs from disability-specific sports have seen greater increases in the number of disabled members at the VSC within the last 5 years compared to mainstream sports over the equivalent time period (Table 15). Of sports that had a minimum of 10 clubs included in the sample (this number was used as a benchmark to weed out random data), two disability-specific sports enjoyed the most amount of their clubs experiencing at least a moderate increase in their membership within the last 5 years. 64.29% of wheelchair basketball clubs experienced at least a moderate increase in their membership of disabled people, closely followed by boccia, with 58.33% of clubs. Whilst it is true that the number of clubs for both of these sports is low (14 for wheelchair basketball and 12 for boccia, respectively), the data suggests these sports might have benefited the most over the last 5 years in terms of membership increases. Other sports to have benefited over the last 5 years in terms of their disabled membership include shooting (55.00%) and equestrian (47.50%). It is important to point out that the source of clubs for equestrian was from clubs affiliated to the RDA, a specific disabled charity for equestrian, thus the equestrian clubs are more likely to have disabled memberships compared to equestrian clubs affiliated with the British Equestrian Federation. Nevertheless, nearly half of equestrian clubs have experienced a membership increase within the last 5 years. Fencing (84.00%) and sailing (75.86%) clubs have largely recorded unchanged membership levels within the last 5

¹⁰ 'Disability-specific sports' refer to sports that were originally developed primarily for disabled people. Disability-specific sports included in this study are boccia, goalball, wheelchair basketball, and wheelchair rugby. All other sports included in this study will be referred to as 'mainstream sports' to signify that the sport was not specifically developed for disabled people, in contrast to the aforementioned 4 sports.

years, whilst only 6.90% of sailing and 2.50% of cycling clubs, respectively, increased their disabled membership within the last 5 years.

Table 15: Changes in VSCs' disabled membership within the last 5 years.

Sport		Large decrease (more than 25%)	Moderate decrease (11-25%)	Roughly unchanged (+/- 10%)	Moderate increase (11-25%)	Large increase (more than 25%)	Don't know	Total
Archery	Number	3	5	66	18	4	3	99
	Percentage	3.03%	5.05%	66.67%	18.18%	4.04%	3.03%	
Athletics & Running	Number	1	2	69	19	3	14	108
	Percentage	0.93%	1.85%	63.89%	17.59%	2.78%	12.96%	
Boccia	Number	2	0	3	4	3	0	12
	Percentage	16.67%	0.00%	25.00%	33.33%	25.00%	0.00%	
Cycling	Number	2	1	28	1	0	8	40
	Percentage	5.00%	2.50%	70.00%	2.50%	0.00%	20.00%	
Equestrian	Number	1	1	19	17	2	0	40
	Percentage	2.50%	2.50%	47.50%	42.50%	5.00%	0.00%	
Fencing	Number	0	0	21	2	0	2	25
	Percentage	0.00%	0.00%	84.00%	8.00%	0.00%	8.00%	
Football	Number	2	0	2	1	0	0	5
	Percentage	40.00%	0.00%	40.00%	20.00%	0.00%	0.00%	
Goalball	Number	0	1	2	0	1	0	4
	Percentage	0.00%	25.00%	50.00%	0.00%	25.00%	0.00%	
Judo	Number	1	4	24	3	0	1	33
	Percentage	3.03%	12.12%	72.73%	9.09%	0.00%	3.03%	
Rowing	Number	1	0	17	2	1	5	26
	Percentage	3.85%	0.00%	65.38%	7.69%	3.85%	19.23%	
Sailing	Number	1	0	22	2	0	4	29
	Percentage	3.45%	0.00%	75.86%	6.90%	0.00%	13.79%	
Shooting	Number	0	2	7	10	1	0	20
	Percentage	0.00%	10.00%	35.00%	50.00%	5.00%	0.00%	
Swimming	Number	1	4	31	11	2	2	51
	Percentage	1.96%	7.84%	60.78%	21.57%	3.92%	3.92%	
	Number	0	0	10	2	2	0	14

Table Tennis	Percentage	0.00%	0.00%	71.43%	14.29%	14.29%	0.00%	
Tennis	Number	1	0	4	1	2	0	8
	Percentage	12.50%	0.00%	50.00%	12.50%	25.00%	0.00%	
Volleyball	Number	0	0	2	0	0	0	2
	Percentage	0.00%	0.00%	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	
Wheelchair Basketball	Number	1	2	2	7	2	0	14
	Percentage	7.14%	14.29%	14.29%	50.00%	14.29%	0.00%	
Wheelchair Rugby	Number	0	0	1	2	0	0	3
	Percentage	0.00%	0.00%	33.33%	66.67%	0.00%	0.00%	
Total	Number	17	24	332	103	23	39	538
	Percentage	3.16%	4.46%	61.71%	19.14%	4.28%	7.25%	

It is important to point out that the membership changes for the clubs may not be linked to the LPG. The question in the questionnaire merely asked 'Within the last five years, has the number of disabled members increased, decreased or been stable?' The findings related to this question therefore cannot reliably be linked to the impact of the LPG when viewed in isolation. The membership data of the clubs therefore needs to be explored in association with the views of the clubs when specifically asked about the impact of the LPG in increasing the number of disabled participants at their club. The questionnaire asked clubs to rate the LPG from 0 to 10, with 0 denoting no impact and 10 maximum impact. Clubs were asked to rank the impact of the LPG in increasing the number of disabled adults (16-65), disabled elderly adults (66+), and disabled children and young people (U16) at their club. The vast majority of the clubs in the sample (64.13%) viewed the LPG as having no impact on the number of disabled adults participating at their club (Table 13). This is strong evidence that the LPG made little difference to the clubs in terms of increasing the number of disabled adults (16-65). Despite 64.13% of the sample rating the LPG as having no impact on the sports participation of disabled adults aged 16-65, 41.67% of boccia clubs and 35.71% of wheelchair basketball clubs, respectively, ranked the LPG above average¹¹ (Table 16). This was in marked contrast to clubs of other sports. For example, the next sport with the highest percentage of VSCs rating the LPG as above average for increasing the participation of disabled adults was athletics with 22.22%¹².

¹¹ Ratings of the LPG were classified in the analysis as representing the following values:

- 0 = No impact
- 1-4 = Below average
- 5 = Average
- 6-9 = Above average
- 10 = Maximum impact

¹² Only sports with a minimum of 10 VSCs in the data were considered.

Table 16: Ratings of the LPG on the participation of disabled people at the VSC per sport.

Sport	Rating	Adults	Elderly	Children and Young People
Archery	No impact	59.60%	71.72%	77.78%
	Below average	30.30%	21.21%	14.14%
	Average	4.04%	2.02%	4.04%
	Above average	5.05%	4.04%	3.03%
	Maximum impact	1.01%	1.01%	1.01%
Athletics	No impact	53.33%	80.00%	53.33%
	Below average	24.44%	11.11%	24.44%
	Average	0.00%	6.67%	8.89%
	Above average	22.22%	2.22%	11.11%
	Maximum impact	0.00%	0.00%	2.22%
Boccia	No impact	8.33%	75.00%	16.67%
	Below average	33.33%	8.33%	50.00%
	Average	16.67%	0.00%	0.00%
	Above average	25.00%	8.33%	25.00%
	Maximum impact	16.67%	8.33%	8.33%
Cycling	No impact	87.50%	82.50%	97.50%
	Below average	5.00%	10.00%	2.50%
	Average	5.00%	0.00%	0.00%
	Above average	2.5%	7.50%	0.00%
	Maximum impact	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Equestrian	No impact	52.50%	77.50%	42.50%
	Below average	25.00%	12.50%	30.00%
	Average	5.00%	5.00%	10.00%
	Above average	15.00%	5.00%	15.00%
	Maximum impact	2.50%	0.00%	2.50%
Fencing	No impact	76.00%	96.00%	84.00%
	Below average	20.00%	4.00%	12.00%
	Average	4.00%	0.00%	4.00%
	Above average	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
	Maximum impact	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Football	No impact	80.00%	100.00%	80.00%
	Below average	0.00%	0.00%	20.00%
	Average	20.00%	0.00%	0.00%
	Above average	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
	Maximum impact	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Goalball	No impact	0.00%	75.00%	0.00%
	Below average	50.00%	25.00%	50.00%
	Average	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
	Above average	50.00%	0.00%	50.00%

	Maximum impact	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Judo	No impact	75.76%	90.91%	81.82%
	Below average	21.21%	9.09%	15.15%
	Average	3.03%	0.00%	3.03%
	Above average	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
	Maximum impact	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Powerlifting	No impact	33.33%	66.67%	66.67%
	Below average	33.33%	33.33%	33.33%
	Average	N/A	0.00%	0.00%
	Above average	N/A	0.00%	0.00%
	Maximum impact	33.33%	0.00%	0.00%
Rowing	No impact	53.85%	80.77%	73.08%
	Below average	30.77%	15.38%	23.08%
	Average	3.85%	0.00%	3.85%
	Above average	11.54%	3.85%	0.00%
	Maximum impact	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Running	No impact	82.54%	84.13%	88.89%
	Below average	11.11%	7.94%	6.35%
	Average	3.17%	4.76%	3.17%
	Above average	3.17%	3.17%	1.59%
	Maximum impact	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Sailing	No impact	75.86%	79.31%	68.97%
	Below average	24.14%	17.24%	31.03%
	Average	0.00%	3.45%	0.00%
	Above average	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
	Maximum impact	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Shooting	No impact	40.00%	50.00%	60.00%
	Below average	35.00%	45.00%	35.00%
	Average	10.00%	0.00%	0.00%
	Above average	15.00%	5.00%	5.00%
	Maximum impact	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Swimming	No impact	80.39%	90.20%	54.90%
	Below average	11.76%	5.88%	29.41%
	Average	3.92%	1.96%	7.84%
	Above average	3.92%	1.96%	5.88%
	Maximum impact	0.00%	0.00%	1.96%
Table Tennis	No impact	78.57%	92.86%	71.43%
	Below average	14.29%	0.00%	21.43%
	Average	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
	Above average	7.14%	7.14%	7.14%

	Maximum impact	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Tennis	No impact	37.50%	62.50%	37.50%
	Below average	37.50%	12.50%	37.50%
	Average	0.00%	12.50%	0.00%
	Above average	12.50%	12.50%	12.50%
	Maximum impact	12.50%	0.00%	12.50%
Volleyball	No impact	50.00%	50.00%	100.00%
	Below average	50.00%	0.00%	0.00%
	Average	0.00%	50.00%	0.00%
	Above average	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
	Maximum impact	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Weightlifting	No impact	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%
	Below average	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
	Average	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
	Above average	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
	Maximum impact	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Wheelchair Basketball	No impact	14.29%	50.00%	21.43%
	Below average	28.57%	35.71%	35.71%
	Average	21.43%	0.00%	0.00%
	Above average	35.71%	14.29%	35.71%
	Maximum impact	0.00%	0.00%	7.14%
Wheelchair Rugby	No impact	0.00%	100.00%	66.67%
	Below average	33.33%	0.00%	0.00%
	Average	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
	Above average	33.33%	0.00%	33.33%
	Maximum impact	33.33%	0.00%	0.00%

The LPG had even less impact on elderly disabled participants (aged 66+) than was the case for adults aged 16-65. 79.55% of participants rated the LPG as having no impact on the number of elderly disabled adults participating at VSCs (Table 13). The lack of impact of the LPG for disabled elderly adults was apparent for both disability-specific and mainstream sports. The LPG appears to have been less successful at increasing the number of young disabled people participating compared to adults, but a strong improvement than was the case for elderly adults. Most sports ranked the impact from the LPG for children and young people as below average, but two sports - boccia (33.33%) and wheelchair basketball (42.85%) - had at least a third of their clubs rank the LPG as at least above average (Table 16). Once again, the impact of the LPG appears to be concentrated on disability-specific sports such as boccia and wheelchair basketball.

5.4.2. Medal success at the LPG was more important for mainstream sports compared to disability-specific sports

Medal success at the LPG does not appear to have made a noticeable difference in the perception of the impact of the LPG on the grassroots sport participation of disabled people at VSCs. When VSCs are grouped into sports that won medals at the LPG and those that did not

(Table 17), VSCs from sports that won medals at the LPG did not judge the LPG to have had a larger above average impact on participation than VSCs from sports that did not win medals. In fact, the data suggests the LPG had more impact on the participation of disabled adults (16.37%) from VSCs from non-medal winning sports compared to VSCs from medal-winning sports (8.90%). This was also the case for children and young people (non-medal winning sports: 16.37%; medal-winning sports: 6.21%). The LPG had a marginally greater impact on the participation of elderly disabled adults for VSCs from medal-winning sports (4.14%) compared to non-medal winning sports (3.64%), though the actual impact of the LPG is very small and the difference minor. VSCs from non-medal-winning sports also reaped greater benefits from the LPG for the profile of their sport (32.73%) than was the case for medal-winning sports (24.64%). The results seem counter-intuitive to the expected impact of the LPG on participation to be higher amongst medal-winning sports, particularly because Paralympians winning medals are often portrayed as inspirational superhumans (Crow 2014) and, logically, one would believe medal success would command more media interest.

Table 17: Impact of the LPG on adults, elderly adults, CYP, and the profile of the sport by sports that either won medals at the LPG or did not win medals.

Measure		Adults (16-65)	Elderly adults (66+)	Children and young people (U16)	Profile
Won medals	No impact (0)	65.63%	79.30%	69.57%	40.99%
	Below average	21.74%	13.87%	20.08%	26.71%
	Average	3.73%	2.69%	4.14%	7.66%
	Above average	7.66%	3.73%	4.97%	17.81%
	Maximum impact (10)	1.24%	0.41%	1.24%	6.83%
No medals won	No impact (0)	50.91%	81.82%	61.82%	34.55%
	Below average	23.64%	12.73%	20.00%	27.27%
	Average	9.09%	1.82%	1.82%	5.45%
	Above average	14.55%	3.64%	14.55%	23.64%
	Maximum impact (10)	1.82%	0.00%	1.82%	9.09%

When delving into the results at a more granular level the reason for the comparative success of VSCs from non-medal winning sports compared to VSCs from medal-winning sports is the influence of disability-specific sports in the non-medal winning sports data. When excluding disability-specific sports from the sample, VSCs from sports that won medals enjoyed greater comparative impact from the LPG on disabled people's sport participation compared to VSCs from non-medal winning sports (Table 18). None of the VSCs from non-medal winning mainstream sports believed the LPG had an above average impact on participation for any age group. This is in contrast to medal-winning mainstream sport VSCs, with a small group of VSCs believing the LPG had an above average impact on the sport participation of disabled adults (7.22%). Thus, for a small percentage of VSCs from mainstream sports, medal success at the LPG appears to have had a positive impact on the participation of disabled people at the VSC. It is important to stress that this is still a minor impact and the vast majority of medal-winning VSCs believed the LPG had no impact on the participation of disabled people at their club (Table 18). There was very little difference in the perception of the LPG impact between VSCs from mainstream sports that won gold compared to VSCs from sports that won silver/bronze. This would suggest that the colour of the medal did not have an overriding impact on the impact of the LPG on the participation of disabled people or on the profile of the sport.

Table 18: Impact of the LPG on adults, elderly adults, CYP, and the profile of the sport by mainstream only sports and medal success at the LPG.

Measure		Adults	Elderly	CYP	Profile
Gold	No impact (0)	68.19%	79.90%	71.25%	41.48%
	Below average	20.61%	13.23%	18.32%	25.95%
	Average	3.31%	3.05%	4.83%	8.65%
	Above average	7.38%	3.56%	4.58%	17.81%
	Maximum impact (10)	0.51%	0.25%	1.02%	6.11%
Silver or bronze	No impact (0)	61.54%	76.92%	69.23%	42.31%
	Below average	25.64%	17.95%	24.36%	29.49%
	Average	3.85%	1.28%	1.28%	3.85%
	Above average	6.41%	3.85%	3.85%	16.67%
	Maximum impact (10)	2.56%	0.00%	1.28%	7.69%
No medals won	No impact (0)	76.47%	94.12%	85.29%	55.88%
	Below average	17.65%	2.94%	11.76%	29.41%
	Average	5.88%	2.94%	2.94%	2.94%
	Above average	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	8.82%
	Maximum impact (10)	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	2.94%

Success at the LPG was less important in the positive perceptions of the impact on participation of disabled people amongst VSCs from disability-specific sports. At least a third of all of the disability-specific sport VSCs believed the LPG had an above average impact on the sports participation of disabled adults and CYP at their club (Table 16). One reason many VSCs from disability-specific sports believe the LPG to have had an above average impact on participation, despite a lack of medal success, might be because of the platform that the LPG provided. With the exception of wheelchair basketball, most of the disability-specific sports are likely to have been absent from the consciousness of a number of disabled people prior to the LPG. The extensive media coverage of the LPG and the ‘feel-good’ factor generated from the LPG may have helped some of these VSCs benefit from their sport being associated with the LPG when attempting to increase participation. It is also likely that information about these sports increased amongst disabled people as a result of the LPG, thus providing potential participants for VSCs to attract. Another reason for the limited impact of medal success for some of the VSCs from disability-specific sports might be because some of the VSCs may have been small in size to begin with, providing scope for gains in participant numbers to be more noticeable in terms of the impact on the VSC. The increase in participant numbers experienced by some of these disability-specific sport VSCs may have been associated with the impact of the LPG in raising the profile of the sport amongst disabled people. None of the non-medal winning VSCs from disability-specific sports believed the LPG had a maximum impact on the participation of disabled people. However, some VSCs from boccia, a sport which won a silver and bronze medal at the LPG, believed the LPG had a maximum impact on the participation of disabled adults (Table 16). The sample size is small and therefore drawing conclusions is fraught with risk, but

there is tentative support for the importance of medal success at the LPG and the impact this can have on the sport participation of disabled people at VSCs.

5.4.3 The LPG had little to no impact on the workforce of VSCs

The LPG had even less impact on the workforce of VSCs than was the case for participants (Table 19). The vast majority of the VSCs believed the LPG had no impact on increasing the number of disabled volunteers, coaches, or officials. The LPG was marginally more successful in its impact on the VSC's ability to obtain specialist equipment, but the LPG still had no impact on obtaining specialist equipment for most VSCs. The slight improvement in the impact of the LPG in obtaining specialist equipment for disabled people might have been aided by Sport England's Get Equipped Fund, which was launched in 2013 (Sport England 2013b). It is possible that VSCs have associated the Get Equipped Fund with the success of the LPG as an event, but this is speculation on the part of the researcher.

Table 19: The impact of the LPG on the VSC's workforce, equipment, and funding.

How the VSCs rated the impact of the LPG on the following areas, with 0 representing and 10 maximum impact										
Rating	Increasing the number of disabled volunteers at the VSC		Increasing the number of disabled coaches at the VSC		Increasing the number of disabled officials (e.g. referees/umpires, etc.) at the VSC		Obtaining specialist equipment for disabled people		Extra funding for the VSC	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
0	441	81.97%	458	85.13%	478	88.85%	381	70.82%	429	79.74%
1 – 4	66	12.27%	50	9.29%	43	7.99%	92	17.10%	65	12.08%
5	11	2.04%	11	2.04%	8	1.49%	16	2.97%	10	1.86%
6 – 9	18	3.35%	13	2.42%	7	1.30%	34	6.32%	22	4.09%
10	2	0.37%	6	1.12%	2	0.37%	15	2.79%	12	2.23%

Though the impact of the LPG on the workforce of clubs is still very low overall, disability-specific sports appear to have fared better when compared to mainstream sports. There is a large difference between the disability-specific sports and mainstream sports in terms of the workforce. Of the VSCs from disability-specific sports that completed the questionnaire, 21.21% rated the LPG as at least above average for increasing the number of disabled volunteers, compared to just 2.58% of mainstream clubs. This pattern is repeated when looking at the impact of the LPG on disabled coaches at disability-specific sport clubs compared to mainstream sport clubs. For disability-specific sports clubs, 21.21% of clubs believed the LPG had an above average effect on the number of disabled coaches at their club, compared to only 2.37% of mainstream sports clubs. The LPG had no impact for mainstream sports clubs in increasing the number of disabled officials (90.89%), compared with 57.57% disability-specific sports clubs believing the LPG to have had no impact.

The LPG was judged to have had little to no impact on the funding and specialist equipment of clubs. Of the 538 clubs that completed the questionnaire, 70.82% rated the LPG as having no impact on the specialist equipment for disabled people obtained by the club, whilst 79.74% viewed the LPG as having no impact on extra funding gained by clubs. The lack of impact of the

LPG in these two areas of clubs is particularly apparent with mainstream sports, with only 7.53% rating the LPG as at least above average for obtaining specialist equipment for disabled people, and 4.55% of mainstream sports clubs believing the LPG to have had at least an above average effect on extra funding. This is in contrast to 33.33% of clubs from disability-specific sports clubs that believed the LPG had an above average impact on both obtaining specialist equipment for disabled people and extra funding for the club.

Overall, the LPG made little to no impact on the workforce of the sports clubs. Disability-specific sports clubs judged the LPG to have been more beneficial in increasing the workforce of the club compared to mainstream sports clubs, with mainstream clubs in particular experiencing very little uplift from the LPG in terms of the number of disabled officials at their clubs.

5.4.4. The main benefit of the LPG for most VSCs was an increased profile of the sport amongst disabled people

The LPG appears to have been more successful at increasing the profile of the VSC's sport amongst disabled people than was the case for sport participation. The majority of sports represented in this questionnaire have had a boost to their profile as a result of the LPG, at least to some degree. The prevailing impact of the LPG on the profile of the sport amongst disabled people is still minor for most mainstream sports. VSCs from equestrian (45.00%), athletics (33.33%), and swimming (33.33%) believed the LPG to have had at least an above average impact on the profile of the sport amongst disabled people, which is the highest rating for all mainstream sports when combining above average and maximum impact scores (Table 20). The increase in profile for these sports may have been influenced by the strong gold medal winning success experienced by these sports as well as the extensive media coverage and fame of Paralympians from equestrian, athletics, and swimming. The winning of gold medals did not guarantee an increase to the profile of the sport as a result of the LPG, however, as 60.00% of cycling clubs believed the LPG had no impact on the profile of cycling amongst disabled people. Furthermore, only 6.90% of sailing clubs were of the opinion the LPG increased the profile of the sport amongst disabled people. Overall, however, VSCs from mainstream sports were more positive regarding the impact of the LPG on the profile of the sport compared to participation of disabled people at their club.

Table 20: The impact of the LPG on the profile of the VSC's sport amongst disabled people.

Sport	Rating of the LPG's impact on raising the profile of the sport amongst disabled people				
	No impact	Below average	Average	Above average	Maximum impact
Archery	39.39%	32.32%	6.06%	17.17%	5.05%
Athletics	31.11%	22.22%	13.33%	24.44%	8.89%
Boccia	16.67%	33.33%	0.00%	25.00%	25.00%
Cycling	60.00%	12.50%	12.50%	12.50%	2.50%
Equestrian	20.00%	25.00%	10.00%	32.50%	12.50%
Fencing	56.00%	36.00%	4.00%	4.00%	0.00%
Football	60.00%	20.00%	0.00%	0.00%	20.00%
Goalball	0.00%	25.00%	25.00%	50.00%	0.00%
Judo	54.55%	21.21%	3.03%	18.18%	3.03%
Powerlifting	33.33%	33.33%	0.00%	0.00%	33.33%
Rowing	46.15%	30.77%	0.00%	19.23%	3.85%
Running	57.14%	20.63%	9.52%	9.52%	3.17%
Sailing	51.72%	27.59%	13.79%	3.45%	3.45%

Shooting	30.00%	35.00%	5.00%	25.00%	5.00%
Swimming	29.41%	31.37%	5.88%	23.53%	9.80%
Table Tennis	42.86%	42.86%	0.00%	0.00%	14.29%
Tennis	25.00%	25.00%	12.50%	25.00%	12.50%
Volleyball	50.00%	0.00%	0.00%	50.00%	0.00%
Weightlifting	50.00%	0.00%	0.00%	50.00%	0.00%
Wheelchair Basketball	0.00%	21.43%	7.14%	57.14%	14.29%
Wheelchair Rugby	0.00%	33.33%	0.00%	0.00%	66.67%

Disability-focused sports have seen their profile amongst disabled people increase as a result of the LPG. Wheelchair basketball clubs, in particular, viewed the LPG favourably in terms of the sport's profile, with 71.43% of clubs rating the LPG as at least above average. Half of the boccia clubs also believed the LPG had a better than average impact on the sport's profile amongst disabled people. The impact of the LPG on the profile of boccia, for example, can be seen by the fact that 25.00% of the clubs rated the LPG as having the maximum impact, 10, on the profile of the sport amongst disabled people. Whilst the number of clubs in the sample for wheelchair basketball and boccia is small, and therefore insights for these sports must be treated with caution, these findings do hint at the impact the LPG might have had for these sports. The LPG appears to have had very little impact on the profile of sports which are more established and recognised, such as cycling and running, with 60.00% of cycling clubs and 57.14% of running clubs believing the LPG to have had no impact at all on the profile of their sport. This is not surprising as these sports already enjoyed high profiles before the LPG, whereas disability-focused sports such as wheelchair basketball and boccia might have been less well-known amongst disabled people and therefore any impact from the LPG might have been more obvious to the clubs. In addition, equestrian, though well-established as a sport, might not have been perceived to have been as accessible to disabled people as is the case. The work of the RDA in promoting horse-riding as therapy for disabled people, particularly children and young people, might have helped in the impact of the LPG on the consciousness of the sport amongst disabled people.

To conclude, there was more variance in the sample in the degree to which the LPG boosted the profile of the sport than was the case for sport participation. The results paint a clear picture of the limitation of using the LPG to directly increase disabled participants at English VSCs, as the main benefit appears to be intangible in the form of profile-raising.

5.4.5 A positive impression of the LPG remains despite the lack of impact on participant numbers

Despite the lack of impact of the LPG on the participation of disabled people at the sports clubs, the vast majority of the VSCs (77.88%) believed that focusing on Paralympians is an effective method of motivating inactive disabled people to participate in sport (Table 21). This is despite evidence that elite sport can be off-putting to inactive people participating in sport (Weed et al. 2009). Furthermore, most of the clubs judged the LPG as having no impact on the increased participation of disabled people at their clubs, but still believed in the ability of Paralympians to motivate inactive disabled people to participate in sport. Notwithstanding evidence from other studies and evidence from their own experiences, the sports clubs in this sample still believed in the potential of the demonstration effect. The demonstration effect does appear to have a mythopoeic effect on the mindset of club officials (Coalter 2007b; Hughes 2013). In addition, 49.81% of VSCs believed the LPG was not just a source of interest for already active disabled people, suggesting that the LPG might be able to influence the behaviour of disabled people not

predisposed to sport. This is despite the lack of impact in participant numbers at the clubs as a result of the LPG.

Table 21: VSC's attitudes regarding the LPG.

LPG statement		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Focusing on Paralympians is an effective way to motivate inactive disabled people to participate in sport	Frequency	8	27	84	323	96
	Percentage	1.49%	5.02%	15.61%	60.04%	17.84%
The 2012 Paralympics did not make voluntary sport clubs more inclusive	Frequency	17	86	298	114	23
	Percentage	3.16%	15.99%	55.39%	21.19%	4.28%
The 2012 Paralympics did not remove barriers preventing disabled people participating in sport	Frequency	32	186	194	108	18
	Percentage	5.95%	34.57%	36.06%	20.07%	3.35%
There are more inclusive sport participation opportunities available	Frequency	11	47	224	230	26
	Percentage	2.04%	8.74%	41.64%	42.75%	4.83%
The 2012 Paralympics only appealed to disabled people who were already interested in sport	Frequency	70	198	172	83	15
	Percentage	13.01%	36.80%	31.97%	15.43%	2.79%
Inspiration from the 2012 Paralympics was only temporary	Frequency	29	159	173	154	23
	Percentage	5.39%	29.55%	32.16%	28.62%	4.28%

Overall, the clubs believed the inspirational potential of the LPG was not limited to disabled people interested in sport and that the demonstration effect is an effective method to engage inactive disabled people to participate in sport. The clubs appear to have a favourable impression of the LPG, despite the apparent lack of material impact on disabled participant numbers for the clubs. The mythopoeic character of the LPG (Coalter 2007b; Hughes 2013) appears to have remained despite evidence that might disprove this notion.

Conclusion

The LPG had little to no impact on the participation of disabled people, of all ages, at the vast majority of the clubs in this sample. Over two-thirds of the sample judged the LPG as having no impact on increasing the number of adults (16-65), elderly adults (66+), and CYP (U16). This is

further supported by approximately two thirds of the clubs having experienced no change in the number of disabled people as members (+/- 10) within the last 5 years. The lack of impact of the LPG on sport participation is underlined by the fact that, for clubs founded after the decision to host the 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games was made in 2005, the LPG was not important at all in the founding of the club for the vast majority of the sample (72.97%). There appears to have been no particular difference between the influence of the LPG in the formation of the club when disability-specific sports are compared to mainstream sports. The data suggests the LPG had an enhanced impact on participation at clubs from disability-specific sports compared to mainstream sports. In addition, clubs from disability-specific sports seem to have enjoyed greater increases in memberships, proportionately, than has been the case for clubs from mainstream sports. Whilst the LPG appears to have made little impression on the membership and participation of disabled people amongst the English sports clubs within this sample, the LPG fared better in raising the profile of the sport amongst disabled people. It is true that a sizeable proportion of the sample rated the LPG as having no impact (40.33%), but the LPG appears to have had a more positive impact on the profile for some sports compared to others, with just over a quarter (25.46%) of the VSCs believing the LPG had an above average impact. Overall, the LPG seems to have provided few tangible benefits to English VSCs in terms of participant numbers but may have helped to improve the profile of some sports amongst some disabled people.

5.5 RQ2: Why did the London 2012 Paralympic Games succeed or fail to increase the grassroots sport participation of disabled people in England?

This section will explore the main reasons for why the LPG was more successful for some VSCs and not for others.

5.5.1 The importance of leveraging

Leveraging is often cited as being important in attempting to increase sport participation as a result of hosting a MSE (Chalip et al. 2017; Misener et al. 2015; Weed et al. 2015). Indeed, the demonstration effect's potential is thought to be optimum only if leveraging of the MSE for sport participation is attempted, particularly in the build-up to the MSE (Weed et al. 2015). Evidence was discovered that suggests VSCs that leveraged the LPG were also VSCs that were likely to have increased their disabled membership within the last five years. Of the VSCs that were founded before the LPG, 21.97% at least moderately increased their disabled membership within the last five years. Of the 21.97% of VSCs that at least moderately increased their disabled membership, 70.48% had engaged in at least 1 leveraging activity, with 60.00% of VSCs that increased their disabled membership doing at least 2 leveraging activities. Furthermore, boccia and wheelchair basketball VSCs, which were the two sports to have increased their disabled membership the most in the last 5 years, predominately leveraged the LPG. Indeed, 83.33% of boccia VSCs and 78.57% of wheelchair basketball VSCs leveraged the LPG. This is not definitive proof of the role of leveraging the LPG and increased disabled membership, but the findings do hint at the potential influence leveraging might have in a VSC being able to grow their disabled membership after the hosting of the LPG.

VSCs were asked whether they had engaged in any leveraging of the LPG and if they had specific resources, such as a strategy, budget, or discussion with the NGB, for their leveraging activities. It stands to reason that there should be an association between leveraging of the LPG and membership increases for the VSC, notwithstanding external pressures impacting on the membership of VSCs. To test this, chi-square tests for independence were performed. The two categorical variables used for the chi-square tests for independence were as follows:

- Intention to increase number of disabled participants and membership change within the last 5 years – $\chi^2 (2, n = 398) = 30.13, p = .000, V = .275$
- Specific leveraging strategy and membership change within the last 5 years - $\chi^2 (2, n = 405) = 27.04, p = .000, V = .258$
- Discussion of LPG leveraging with NGB and membership change within the last 5 years - $\chi^2 (2, n = 391) = 14.29, p = .001, V = .195$
- Engagement in leveraging activities and membership change within the last 5 years - $\chi^2 (2, n = 405) = 38.29, p = .000, V = .307$

Significant associations were recorded for all leveraging variables and membership change for the VSC in the last 5 years¹³. Of the leveraging variables, it was the engagement in leveraging activities (for example, holding taster sessions) that had the strongest association with membership change, which was a medium effect. This would suggest there is a medium strength relationship for VSCs that engaged in leveraging of the LPG and positive changes to the disabled membership of VSCs. The lowest effect was recorded for the discussion of leveraging with the NGB, with a small effect of .195. Overall, the results highlight and support the importance of leveraging, as argued by academics (Chalip et al. 2017; Misener et al. 2015; Weed et al. 2015). The fact that only 12.76% of VSCs aimed to increase participation of disabled people as a result of the LPG may be an important reason for the lack of obvious impact of the LPG on the participation of disabled people at VSCs since the LPG. Indeed, only 9.91% of VSCs from mainstream sports intended to increase the number of disabled people participating at their club as a result of the LPG. This contrasts sharply with 66.67% of VSCs from disability-specific sports aiming to increase disabled people participating at their club. Of course, VSCs from disability-specific sports are predominately composed of disabled people, but 78.25% of VSCs in this sample are inclusive and thus open to disabled people to join the club. The fact that only a small proportion of VSCs from mainstream sports aimed to increase the number of disabled people participating at their club suggests more work needs to be done in building the demand amongst VSCs to increase their disabled membership (Brown and Pappous 2018a). This is of particular importance to the chances of achieving a positive grassroots sport participation legacy from a Paralympic Games as leveraging appears to provide VSCs more opportunities to increase their disabled membership than for VSCs that do not leverage.

5.5.2 Constraints to leveraging the LPG experienced by VSCs

The questionnaire contained a section exploring the main constraints to leveraging the LPG experienced by the VSCs. The Likert items were composed on the basis of the findings from study 1 and insights from the wider literature. Constraints to leveraging was investigated because evidence from other studies suggests VSCs often fail to leverage the MSE for increasing sport participation (Misener et al. 2015; Taks et al. 2014, 2018). In addition, the findings from the qualitative strand of the research hinted that there was an absence of concerted leveraging of the LPG, thus exploring the constraints to leveraging of the LPG would enable a greater understanding of any barriers that might inhibit the leveraging ability of VSCs. In order to ascertain the main constraints to leveraging the LPG for increased sport participation of disabled people, a principal component analysis (PCA) was undertaken of the Likert items. A PCA is ideally suited to this task as PCA is a method that enables common components to be identified that explain aspects of the variance within the sample (Pallant 2016; Tabachnick and Fidell 2013). The findings from the PCA will now be explained and expanded upon in more detail.

¹³ Assumptions were violated (2 cells had a count of less than 5, which was 33.33% of all cases) when reviewing the association between a pre-event budget and membership change. This variable was therefore excluded from the analysis.

5.5.3 Principal component analysis of the main leveraging constraints experienced by VSCs in attempting to increase the sport participation of disabled people at VSCs

Two main considerations need to be factored in when determining whether a PCA is appropriate for the data: size of the sample and the relationships between the items (Pallant 2016). No hard and fast rule exists for the minimum sample size required for a robust PCA to be conducted, but it is generally accepted that at least a sample of 300 is needed (Pallant 2016; Tabachnick and Fidell 2013). This study had a sample of 477 that was subjected to a PCA, comfortably exceeding the suggested minimum sample size. Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) recommend examining inter-correlations between items, with inter-correlations under .3 a source of concern. In contrast, if the inter-correlations between variables are too high PCA may not be suitable due to the strong influence high correlations might have on the final solution (Blaikie 2003). The inter-correlations matrix for this study revealed a number of correlations over 0.3 and no correlations over 0.9 (Table 22).

Table 22: Correlation matrix produced by a PCA for the constraints to leveraging the LPG experienced by the VSCs.

Correlations	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4	Item 5	Item 6	Item 7	Item 8	Item 9	Item 10	Item 11	Item 12	Item 13	Item 14	Item 15
Item 1	1.000	0.349	0.380	0.251	0.182	0.159	0.242	0.432	0.482	0.287	0.344	0.300	0.314	0.275	0.296
Item 2	0.349	1.000	0.530	0.368	0.221	0.350	0.331	0.474	0.458	0.587	0.425	0.418	0.334	0.373	0.422
Item 3	0.380	0.530	1.000	0.488	0.209	0.255	0.381	0.614	0.569	0.413	0.483	0.484	0.380	0.460	0.389
Item 4	0.251	0.368	0.488	1.000	0.402	0.392	0.697	0.416	0.355	0.282	0.689	0.706	0.561	0.581	0.505
Item 5	0.182	0.221	0.209	0.402	1.000	0.280	0.408	0.236	0.192	0.111	0.413	0.411	0.348	0.335	0.421
Item 6	0.159	0.350	0.255	0.392	0.280	1.000	0.487	0.340	0.202	0.278	0.426	0.442	0.324	0.360	0.290
Item 7	0.242	0.331	0.381	0.697	0.408	0.487	1.000	0.430	0.346	0.266	0.631	0.664	0.527	0.560	0.563
Item 8	0.432	0.474	0.614	0.416	0.236	0.340	0.430	1.000	0.650	0.430	0.465	0.465	0.392	0.468	0.395
Item 9	0.482	0.458	0.569	0.355	0.192	0.202	0.346	0.650	1.000	0.475	0.495	0.481	0.445	0.462	0.489
Item 10	0.287	0.587	0.413	0.282	0.111	0.278	0.266	0.430	0.475	1.000	0.414	0.396	0.313	0.371	0.329
Item 11	0.344	0.425	0.483	0.689	0.413	0.426	0.631	0.465	0.495	0.414	1.000	0.889	0.689	0.640	0.603
Item 12	0.300	0.418	0.484	0.706	0.411	0.442	0.664	0.465	0.481	0.396	0.889	1.000	0.686	0.679	0.607
Item 13	0.314	0.334	0.380	0.561	0.348	0.324	0.527	0.392	0.445	0.313	0.689	0.686	1.000	0.743	0.610
Item 14	0.275	0.373	0.460	0.581	0.335	0.360	0.560	0.468	0.462	0.371	0.640	0.679	0.743	1.000	0.567
Item 15	0.296	0.422	0.389	0.505	0.421	0.290	0.563	0.395	0.489	0.329	0.603	0.607	0.610	0.567	1.000

A common method for ascertaining the suitability of the sample for a PCA is to use the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) (Kaiser 1970; 1974). Values range from 0 to 1 with Blaikie (2003) advocating a minimum of .70. The KMO for the 15 items was .914, comfortably surpassing the recommended minimum KMO size (Blaikie 2003). Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett 1954) is often used in association with the KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity should be significant ($p < .05$) (Pallant 2016). For the 15 items the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($p = .000$), further supporting the use of PCA for the study.

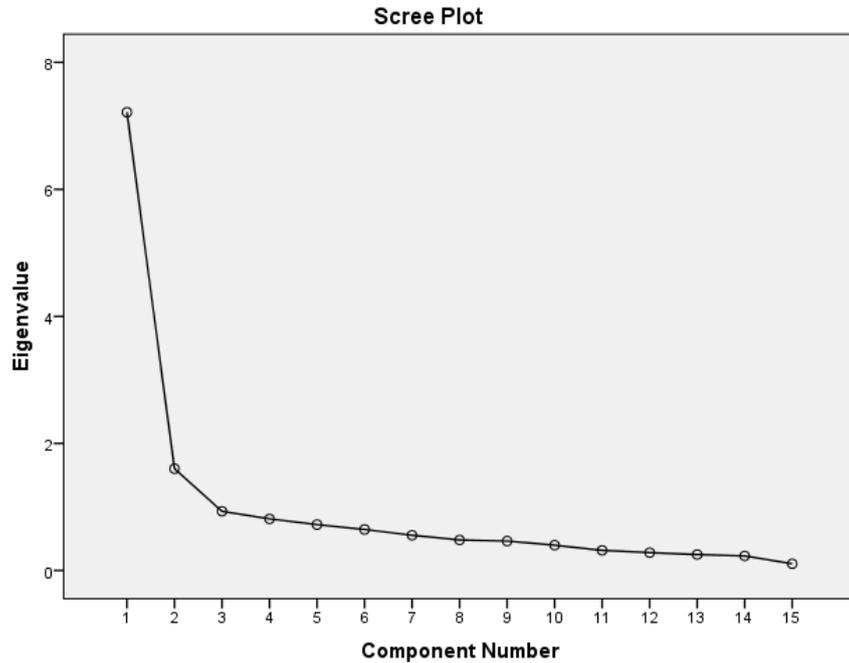
5.5.3.1 Extraction of components

Principal component analysis was used to extract the components, a common extraction technique used by researchers (Pallant 2016). PCA was conducted on the original 21 items that formed the leveraging constraints scale in the questionnaire. Kaiser's criterion of 1.00 for eigenvalues suggested that 4 components were eligible for the 21 items, but an inspection of the scree plot suggested 3 components. A parallel analysis (Horn 1965) was run on the 21 items and the outcome supported the use of 3 components. PCA was re-run to force 3 components. Pallant (2016) advocates a minimum loading of .30 for components, but Blaikie (2003) argues this threshold is too low as only 9 per cent of the item's variance is accounted for. Consequently, the decision was made to only include items which had a minimum factor loading of .50. The 3-component solution was run and the item "We lacked a clear target audience for our leveraging activities" had loadings of over .32 on two components. This was deemed to be unsatisfactory and indicative that the item might not have been written correctly or did not belong in the factor solution. This item was removed and PCA was re-run on the 20 items.

The eigenvalues again suggested that the solution should have 4 factors, but the scree plot and parallel analysis suggested a 3-component solution. The PCA was re-run to force 3 components. The resultant pattern matrix suggested component 2 had very strong loadings for two items which focused on NGBs, but the other two items in the component did not load strongly only on this component. "It was unclear who was responsible for increasing the participation of disabled people from the 2012 Paralympics" and "It was difficult to promote information to disabled people" were removed because of loadings below .5. The PCA was re-run and 3 components were extracted based on the eigenvalues, scree plot, and parallel analysis. The third component now only had 2 NGB items. The accepted wisdom is that at least 3 items are required for a strong and stable component, though it is possible to have 2 items if high correlations exist between the items and low correlations are apparent with the other items (Tabachnick and Fidell 2013). Though this was the case with the two NGB items, 2 items were considered too low, in line with the general consensus in conducting PCA. Indeed, Tabachnick and Fidell (2013, p. 651) believe 'interpretation of factors defined by only one or two variables is hazardous, however, under even the most exploratory factor analysis'. Thus, as the component only contained 2 items, the decision was taken to remove the NGB items from the PCA.

PCA was conducted on the remaining 16 items. The scree plot suggested a 2-component solution. The item, "Our volunteers lacked the skills to understand how to increase the number of disabled participants" had cross-loadings on both components. This item was thus removed from the PCA. PCA was conducted on the remaining 15 items. The scree plot (Figure 13) indicated a clear 2 component solution.

Figure 13: Scree plot demonstrating a 2-component solution.



A 2-component solution was further supported by the results from the parallel analysis conducted on the 15 items (Table 23), which suggested a 2-component solution was optimum.

Table 23: Parallel analysis to confirm number of eigenvalues produced from the PCA.

Eigenvalue Number	Eigenvalue produced from PCA	Random Eigenvalue	Standard Deviation	Recommendation for retaining or discarding eigenvalues
1	7.214	1.3103	.0385	Retain
2	1.602	1.2418	.0268	Retain
3	.931	1.1894	.0235	Discard
4	.812	1.1440	.0212	Discard
5	.722	1.1029	.0198	Discard
6	.645	1.0637	.0181	Discard
7	.554	1.0267	.0173	Discard
8	.480	0.9910	.0172	Discard
9	.462	0.9561	.0178	Discard
10	.398	0.9221	.0175	Discard
11	.316	0.8876	.0176	Discard
12	.281	0.8522	.0187	Discard
13	.250	0.8153	.0195	Discard
14	.228	0.7744	.0207	Discard
15	.105	0.7225	.0279	Discard

The 2-component solution had no cross-loadings on either component and a minimum of .530 loading, with the components correlating strongly with each other (.537). The 2-component solution explained 58.77% of the total variance of the 15 items.

5.5.3.2 Rotation of the components and interpretation

Rotation of factors enables the researcher to discover the underlying patterns that bind the data, producing easier interpretations as a result (Pallant 2016). Two main rotation methods exist: orthogonal or oblique (Pallant 2016). Orthogonal rotation is thought to produce solutions that are easier to interpret (Tabachnick and Fidell 2013), but orthogonal rotation is underpinned by the assumption that the components are not correlated which is uncommon in the social world (Field 2013). The 2 extracted components were strongly correlated (.537), thus the use of oblique rotation was the obvious and most suitable solution to use. Direct Oblimin was used to rotate the components. No cross-loadings was found on either component and a simple structure (Thurstone 1947) resulted for both components. The Pattern Matrix (Table 24) suggested component 1 is focused on VSCs' knowledge of disability and provision of sport for disabled people, whereas component 2 is concerned with the leveraging resources available to the VSC.

Table 24: Pattern matrix, structure matrix, and communalities for the VSC data.

Item	Pattern Matrix per component		Structure Matrix per component		Communalities
	1	2	1	2	
Our club did not understand how to include disabled people into our activities	0.843	-	0.889	0.552	0.405
We lacked training in how to include disabled people in our club's activities	0.833	-	0.871	0.572	0.563
My club lacked knowledge about disability and how it manifests itself	0.814	-	0.818	0.445	0.602
We lacked training to improve our understanding of disability	0.792	-	0.816	0.403	0.670
We did not know how to effectively promote our club to local disabled people	0.758	-	0.797	0.479	0.366
The pathways for disabled people to join our club were not clear	0.704	-	0.788	0.535	0.308
Increasing the number of disabled participants was not an aim of the club	0.683	-	0.738	0.511	0.668
It was unclear what the club's role was in increasing the sports participation of disabled people	0.652	-	0.585	-	0.635
My club's facilities were not accessible for disabled people	0.530	-	0.554	0.329	0.670
My club did not have enough administrators to support leveraging	-	0.794	0.471	0.818	0.518

Purchasing of specialist equipment for disabled people was too expensive for my club	-	0.741	0.498	0.792	0.773
My club did not have enough officials (e.g. referees, umpires, etc.) to support leveraging	-	0.737	0.494	0.770	0.798
My club did not have sufficient equipment	-	0.726	0.433	0.749	0.638
My club did not have enough coaches	-	0.709	0.357	0.719	0.639
My club lacked the internal capacity to leverage the 2012 Paralympics	-	0.663	0.304	0.635	0.563

Component 1: Knowledge of disability and provision of sport for disabled people

Component 1 (Table 25) is comprised of 9 items and accounts for approximately half (48.09%) of the total variance. This component is therefore the most important constraint to leveraging the LPG that the VSCs experienced. The 9 items refer to the VSC's knowledge of disability and how to effectively provide sport participation opportunities to disabled people. 7 items of this component are focused on the general knowledge of disability and how to provide suitable sport participation opportunities for disabled people, whereas the other two items are concerned with the club's approach to disabled participation. VSCs are the mainstay of organised sport participation in the UK (Macrae 2017) and as such are vital resources in the sport participation system. VSCs were therefore an important site for potential new sport participants (Charlton 2010). The implementation of strategy at the domain of VSCs can suffer from a shortfall in available resources and communication amongst the NGB and VSC (Harris, Mori and Collins 2009; Pappous and Hayday 2016). It is therefore important for VSCs to be knowledgeable about disability and the optimum way to provide sport participation opportunities for disabled people. The overall mean ($M = 25.14$, $SD = 7.53$) for the component suggests that VSCs were slightly in disagreement that they were constrained in their leveraging of the LPG because of their knowledge of disability and provision of participation opportunities for disabled people. Naturally, VSCs from disability-specific sports broadly strongly disagreed with this leveraging constraint ($M = 17.08$, $SD = 5.33$). This was not the case for VSCs from mainstream sports who were largely neutral in their agreement over whether knowledge of disability and provision of sport participation opportunities for disabled people ($M = 25.57$, $SD = 7.39$). Knowledge of disability and provision of sport participation of disabled people was identified as a constraint to the leveraging of the LPG for VSCs. Naturally, this leveraging constraint is likely to have had more influence on VSCs from mainstream sports compared to VSC from disability-specific sports.

Table 25: Descriptive statistics for component 1.

Descriptive Statistics	Descriptive Statistics		
	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
My club lacked knowledge about disability and how it manifests itself	477	2.66	1.135
Increasing the number of disabled participants was not an aim of the club	477	3.10	1.079
My club's facilities were not accessible for disabled people	477	2.39	1.144

Our club did not understand how to include disabled people into our activities	477	2.39	1.063
It was unclear what the club's role was in increasing the sports participation of disabled people	477	3.10	1.042
We lacked training to improve our understanding of disability	477	2.85	1.119
We lacked training in how to include disabled people in our club's activities	477	2.78	1.134
We did not know how to effectively promote our club to local disabled people	477	3.00	1.057
The pathways for disabled people to join our club were not clear	477	2.87	1.098

Component 2: Resources required to leverage

The final component accounts for 10.68% of total variance and is centred on club resources required for leveraging. This includes the internal capacity of the VSC to enable the club to be able to leverage the LPG. This component focuses on the workforce available to the VSC, along with the availability and cost of equipment required for disabled people's sport participation. The VSCs tended to agree that access to appropriate resources for leveraging the LPG limited their ability to leverage the LPG ($M = 18.91, SD = 4.93$) (Table 26). This would suggest that VSCs believed this constraint was more of a hindrance to leveraging the LPG than knowledge of disability and provision of sport for disabled people. This finding is consistent with outcomes from other studies that have focused on VSCs and grassroots sport participation (Harris, Mori and Collins 2009; Macrae 2017). Resource constraints and the limiting impact this had on the ability of VSCs to leverage the LPG was consistent for both VSCs from mainstream sports ($M = 18.89, SD = 4.97$) and VSCs from disability-specific sports ($M = 19.17, SD = 4.13$). Future Paralympic hosts should look to build up the internal capacity and resource capability of VSCs at the earliest opportunity to provide VSCs with the best capability of leveraging the Paralympic Games for increased sport participation (Macrae 2017). This of course needs to go hand in hand with a desire to increase participation of disabled people as a result of the Paralympic Games.

Table 26: Descriptive statistics for component 2.

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
My club did not have enough administrators to support leveraging	477	3.22	1.070
Purchasing of specialist equipment for disabled people was too expensive for my club	477	2.99	1.107
My club did not have enough officials (e.g. referees, umpires, etc.) to support leveraging	477	2.97	1.130
My club did not have sufficient equipment	477	3.07	1.083
My club did not have enough coaches	477	3.25	1.172
My club lacked the internal capacity to leverage the 2012 Paralympics	477	3.44	.976

5.5.3.3 Reliability of the components

To ensure the identified constraints to leveraging the LPG are robust, it was necessary to conduct reliability analysis on the components (Table 27). The most commonly used tool to measure the

internal consistency of scales is Cronbach's Alpha (Blaikie 2003; Pallant 2016). Cronbach's Alpha measures the unidimensional nature of items within a scale; namely, whether the items are measuring the same construct (Blaikie 2003). Cronbach's Alpha can range from 0 to 1, with 0 indicating no relationship between the items and 1 suggesting perfect alignment of the items in terms of the construct that is being investigated (Blaikie 2003). To be considered reliable, most authors argue Cronbach's Alpha should exceed .7 as a minimum (DeVellis 2017). For all 15 items, comprising the 9 items for the knowledge of disability and provision of sport for disabled people component and the 6 items for the resources required to leverage component, the Cronbach Alpha was significantly over the minimum recommendation of .7, with an Alpha of .919. Cronbach's Alpha is known to be influenced by the number of items included in a scale (Blaikie 2003; Pallant 2016), with a high number of items potentially artificially increasing the Alpha (Blaikie 2003). Nevertheless, the Cronbach Alpha for the overall scale is high and indicates good internal consistency. For the individual components, the knowledge of disability and provision of sport for disabled people component achieved an Alpha of .911 and the resources required to leverage component an Alpha of .846. Component 1, with 9 items forming the scale, might have had the Alpha inflated because of the presence of 9 items but, as with the overall scale, the Alpha is still very high and suggests this component measures the same construct, which in this case refers to knowledge of disability and how to provide sport participation opportunities. The resources required to leverage component, whilst achieving a lower Alpha, still demonstrated strong internal consistency with an Alpha of .846, particularly as the scale had less items compared to component 1. Low number of items in a scale can reduce the Alpha (Pallant 2016). Thus, the resources required to leverage component has strong reliability in terms of measuring the resources of VSCs required for leveraging the LPG.

Table 27: Cronbach alpha values for constraints to leveraging scale and individual components generated from the PCA.

Item	Leveraging constraints scale		Component 1		Component 2	
	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
My club lacked knowledge about disability and how it manifests itself	.702	.912	.743	.897	-	-
Increasing the number of disabled participants was not an aim of the club	.425	.920	.475	.915	-	-
My club's facilities were not accessible	.471	.919	.474	.916	-	-

for disabled people						
Our club did not understand how to include disabled people into our activities	.685	.912	.745	.897	-	-
We lacked training to improve our understanding of disability	.806	.908	.827	.891	-	-
We lacked training in how to include disabled people in our club's activities	.808	.908	.847	.889	-	-
We did not know how to effectively promote our club to local disabled people	.698	.912	.734	.898	-	-
The pathways for disabled people to join our club were not clear	.722	.911	.729	.898	-	-
It was unclear what the club's role was in increasing the sports participation of disabled people	.677	.913	.675	.902	-	-
My club lacked the internal capacity to leverage the 2012 Paralympics	0.438	.920	-	-	.491	.844

My club did not have sufficient equipment	.585	.915	-	-	.634	.819
My club did not have enough coaches	.628	.914	-	-	.666	.812
My club did not have enough officials (e.g. referees, umpires, etc.) to support leveraging	.647	.913	-	-	.695	.806
Purchasing of specialist equipment for disabled people was too expensive for my club	.510	.918	-	-	.570	.831
My club did not have enough administrators to support leveraging	.634	.914	-	-	.704	.805

5.5.4 Independent variables and their potential influence on the leveraging constraint components

Independent variables were identified to explore what role these variables play in the dependent variables produced by PCA. A number of independent variables were identified that might have influenced the VSC's ability to leverage the LPG successfully. One such independent variable was whether the VSC intended to increase the participation of disabled people at the VSC and whether the VSC engaged in leveraging activities. Leveraging is frequently cited (Chalip et al. 2017; Misener et al. 2015; Weed et al. 2015) as being an important mechanism to enable participation increases following the hosting of a MSE, thus leveraging was considered an important independent variable to explore. The funding stream received by NGBs from Sport England for their grassroots disability work was another independent variable identified as being important. Findings from study 1 suggested that some NGBs who claim to be inclusive are in fact neglecting their grassroots disability participation commitments. Thus, three types of funding for grassroots disability work awarded to NGBs by Sport England were investigated to determine whether this plays a role in the leveraging constraints identified in the PCA. Finally, the demonstration effect from the LPG was explored by grouping sports into the following categories:

- Sports that won gold medals at the LPG;
- Sports that won silver and/or bronze medals at the LPG;
- Sports that won no medals at the LPG.

The purpose of grouping the VSCs into three categories was to understand whether the demonstration effect influenced the leveraging constraints of VSCs.

Before MANOVAs were conducted, assumption testing was performed to confirm if the data was appropriate for multivariate analyses. The sample size of 477 ensured there were far more cases than the 2 dependent variables (Pallant 2016). The normal Q-Q plots for the dependent variables and the trimmed means suggested normality was likely to have been achieved. The histograms indicated a degree of normality existed with the data. To determine whether any multivariate outliers existed, participants were ordered by their Mahalanobis score. The number of dependent variables was 2 and therefore the critical value was 13.82 (Pallant 2016). An examination of the Mahalanobis scores indicated that only one case exceeded the critical value. The Mahalanobis score of the outlier was 19.16. As this score was some way above the critical value of 13.82 the decision was taken to remove the individual case from the subsequent MANOVAs. Linearity was assessed by inspecting a scatterplot matrix of the dependent variables, which suggested normality had not been violated. The dependent variables are strongly correlated (.628), but multicollinearity is unlikely to be a concern as the correlation is not above 0.8 or 0.9, which would suggest problems with multicollinearity (Pallant 2016).

5.5.4.1 Intention to leverage the LPG

A one-way MANOVA was conducted to determine whether the intention to increase participation of disabled people as a result of the LPG as an aim of the VSC influenced the leveraging constraints. Preliminary tests were undertaken to verify that the data did not breach any assumptions required for the MANOVA test. No serious violations were noted for sample size, normality, outliers, linearity, multicollinearity and singularity, and homogeneity of variance. Levene's test of equality of error variances was less than .05, thus assumption of equality of variance was violated. Consequently, a stricter alpha level was used to determine significance. The results suggest the independent variable of intention to leverage the LPG for increased sport participation produces a statistically significant difference for the dependent outcome focused on knowledge of disability and provision of sport for disabled people component. The 'resources required for leveraging' dependent variable was not significant at the .001 level. For the dependent variable 'knowledge of disability' constraint to leveraging, a medium effect existed (partial eta squared .093) between VSCs that either aimed to increase sport participation as a result of the LPG compared to VSCs that were unsure or did not aim to increase participation. This is exemplified by the difference in the mean scores between VSCs that did not aim to increase participation ($M = 25.95, SD = 7.38$), did not know ($M = 26.48, SD = 5.67$) compared to VSCs that did aim to increase participation ($M = 19.15, SD = 7.12$). When analysing non-disability-specific sports only, the MANOVA supports the importance of aiming to increase participation and less constraints in knowledge of disability and provision of sport for disabled people. A significant difference was evident between mainstream VSCs on the knowledge of disability leveraging constraint, with a medium effect (partial eta squared .068). An inspection of the mean scores revealed that VSCs from mainstream sports that did not aim to increase participation ($M = 26.16, SD = 7.30$) or did not know ($M = 26.48, SD = 5.67$) were more likely to be constrained by a lack of knowledge of disability compared to VSCs from mainstream sports that did intend to increase participation ($M = 19.78, SD = 7.50$).

The results suggest that intention to increase participation as a result of leveraging will result in less constraints for a VSC's knowledge of disability and sport provision for disabled people being

experienced. This is common sense and appears obvious, but provides support for the importance of leveraging, particularly in the importance of VSCs' understanding of disability and how best to provide sporting opportunities for disabled people. In addition, the results underline the importance of demand being built amongst VSCs to increase the participation of disabled people, if VSCs are to experience less constraints to leveraging the Paralympic Games.

5.5.4.2 Sport England funding stream for NGBs

A one-way between-group MANOVA was conducted to explore the components produced by the PCA when grouping sports by the funding stream received by Sport England. Before conducting the MANOVA, assumptions of normality tests were performed. Equality of variances was breached for the component exploring knowledge of disability, thus interpretation of significance levels was carried out using Pillai's Trace, as this is considered to be more robust (Pallant 2016; Tabachnick and Fidell 2013). The knowledge of disability component confirmed the existence of statistically significant differences between Paralympic-specific NGBs, NGBs with dedicated disability programmes, as well as NGBs delivering inclusively, $F(4, 948) = 19.28$, $p = .000$; Pillai's Trace = .15; partial eta squared = .099. Post-hoc comparisons between the groups using the Bonferroni correction suggested the mean difference between the three groups were significantly different:

- Paralympic-specific NGBs ($M = 17.08$, $SD = 5.33$)
- NGBs with dedicated disability programmes ($M = 23.44$, $SD = 8.12$)
- NGBs delivering inclusively ($M = 26.63$, $SD = 6.77$)

Unsurprisingly, VSCs from Paralympic-specific NGBs had the lowest mean scores for the knowledge of disability component compared to mainstream sports, but there was also a significant difference between VSCs from NGBs with dedicated disability programmes compared to VSCs from NGBs delivering inclusively. The results suggest that VSCs of sports that are funded to deliver inclusively were more constrained in their ability to leverage the LPG due to knowledge of disability than was the case for VSCs from sports with dedicated disability programmes. This provides tentative support for some of the concerns raised by participants in study 1 regarding the devolving of responsibility for providing sport participation opportunities for disabled people by some NGBs claiming to deliver inclusively. This might be because sports are not being forced to confront disability knowledge and issues as might be the case for sports with specific and targeted programmes, compared to sports with inclusive packages which cater for non-disabled people too.

5.5.4.3 Medal success at the LPG

As discussed in chapter 4, the main programme theory behind the LPG sport participation legacy plans was the demonstration effect. The demonstration effect suggests that successful exploits of Paralympians at the LPG could potentially inspire disabled people at the grassroots to want to participate in sport themselves (Weed 2009; Weed et al. 2009, 2015). It stands to reason, therefore, that sports that won medals at the LPG might have been able to leverage the LPG more successfully after the LPG compared to sports that had not won any medals at the LPG. A two-way MANOVA was conducted to understand the role of two independent variables – medal success; engaged in leveraging – and whether these independent variables, either on their own or interacting, influenced the two components discovered in the PCA. Using a Bonferroni adjustment, a statistically significant difference was found for engagement in leveraging activities ($F(4, 936) = 11.72$, $p = .000$; Pillai's Trace = .095) for the combined dependent variables. The dependent variable, knowledge of disability leveraging constraint, had a medium effect size (partial eta squared = .089), with leveraging VSCs having experienced less knowledge of disability

constraints ($M = 19.48, SD = 7.19$) compared to VSCs that did not know if they leveraged the LPG ($M = 27.02, SD = 4.57$) and VSCs that did not leverage the LPG ($M = 26.40, SD = 7.24$). The effect size of the resources needed for leveraging constraint for VSCs that leveraged compared to those that did not, was quite small (partial eta squared = .017). VSCs that leveraged the LPG experienced less resources constraints ($M = 17.31, SD = 5.04$) compared to VSCs that did not know ($M = 18.64, SD = 3.37$) and did not leverage ($M = 19.40, SD = 4.97$).

The results of the two-way MANOVA suggest that medal success does not influence the leveraging constraints of VSCs, either on its own or when VSCs leveraged the LPG. Simply leveraging the LPG, irrespective of medal success, results in less constraints for VSCs in the knowledge of disability and resources required to leverage the LPG.

5.6 Discussion

VSCs were expected to be one of the main conduits for disabled people looking to increase their sport participation as a result of the LPG (Charlton 2010). This is despite evidence from previous studies suggesting VSCs are limited in their ability to implement top-down policy focused on increasing sport participation (Harris, Mori and Collins 2009). The findings from this study suggest VSCs from sports featured at the LPG have not experienced any meaningful positive impacts on the number of disabled people participating at their club, with the exception of VSCs from disability-specific sports. For VSCs from mainstream sports, the LPG has largely been inconsequential in increasing the participation of disabled people at their club. It is conjectured that most mainstream VSCs from this sample have placed less importance on increasing the number of disabled people participating at their club in comparison to traditional ambitions of VSCs such as competition and talent development. Indeed, it has been argued that the original remit of VSCs and motivation for many VSC volunteers was at odds with the stated policy of the government and Sport England (Adams 2011; Harris, Nichols and Taylor 2017). This was supported by the fact that 77.71% of inclusive VSCs from mainstream sports did not aim to increase sport participation of disabled people from the LPG. Until demand is built within VSCs to want to utilise the hosting of the Paralympic Games for increased participation, efforts to use VSCs as a key outlet for new participants is unlikely to achieve sustainable participation growth.

May, Harris and Collins (2013) have argued that VSCs can often lack understanding of the details and goals of policy, impairing the implementation at the grassroots level. Whilst this is likely to have been the case for many of the VSCs, it is argued that ableism may have pervaded many of the VSCs from mainstream sports. The fact that 29.44% of VSCs from mainstream sports that claim to be inclusive have no disabled members is an indication of the lack of interest some VSCs seem to have for increasing the representation of disabled people at their VSCs. Too many of the VSCs that purport to be inclusive do not have any meaningful representation of disabled people at their clubs. This is similar to the findings from Jeanes et al. (2018), who discovered many inclusive VSCs within Australia relied on the efforts of a few dedicated club volunteers driving the disability agenda within these clubs. This lack of inclusion of disabled people further entrenches the ableist practices within these VSCs because non-disabled hegemonic perspectives are less likely to be challenged by different perspectives brought to bear by disabled people. Brown and Pappous (2018a) argued that sports organisations need to increase the number of disabled people within the organisation to help inform the content of participation programmes. This call is echoed by this author for VSCs, particularly those that promote their club as being open to disabled and non-disabled people. Until disabled people are included in the design and delivery of facets of the VSC it is unlikely the participation of disabled people at these VSCs from mainstream sports will be sustainably increased to any meaningful degree.

Leveraging was found to be influential in whether the VSC believed the LPG had a positive impact on participation and in terms of the VSC increasing their disabled membership. This finding is consistent with the arguments from commentators who have emphasised the importance of organisations leveraging the hosting of a MSE (Chalip et al. 2017; Misener et al. 2015; Weed et al. 2015). Similar to other studies (Misener et al. 2015; Taks et al. 2014, 2018), many of the VSCs included in this study did not attempt to leverage the LPG for increased participation of disabled people. For some VSCs, the lack of leveraging is likely to have been a result of leveraging being in opposition to the motivations of volunteers at the VSC (Adams 2011; Harris, Mori and Collins 2009). The analysis of the data from this study identified two main constraints to leveraging:

- knowledge of disability and provision of sport for disabled people;
- resources required for leveraging.

VSCs need to be educated and be aware of how their knowledge of disability and communication of opportunities can be enhanced. The Activity Alliance (nee EFDS) is an organisation that exists in England to facilitate increased physical activity and sport participation for disabled people, and the Activity Alliance have created a number of resources to help organisations and their understanding of disability. Despite this, some VSCs struggle in knowing how best to design and provide participation opportunities for disabled people. Much more work geared towards educating VSCs of disability and provision of appropriate sport participation opportunities needs to occur. This is a leveraging constraint that should be addressed at the earliest opportunity for hosts of future Paralympic Games, if a positive sport participation legacy is to occur. Lack of resources was considered by VSCs to be a bigger impediment to leveraging the LPG than a lack of knowledge about disability and provision of sport participation opportunities. The issue of scarce access to resources is consistent with other studies that have exposed the resource constraints that many VSCs operate within (Harris, Mori and Collins 2009; May, Harris and Collins 2013). Macrae (2017) contends that the internal capacity of VSCs need to be strengthened in advance of the hosting of a MSE, a call echoed by this author. The lack of leveraging evident amongst many VSCs is likely to have been an important factor in the lack of impact felt by many VSCs from the LPG in terms of increased disabled participants.

5.7 Conclusion

The findings suggest the LPG had a minimal impact on the grassroots sports participation of disabled people at VSCs from sports involved in the LPG. The lack of impact on disabled members for VSCs was particularly evident for mainstream sports, with the majority of VSCs from mainstream sports believing the LPG had no impact on the participation of disabled people of all ages. For disability-specific sports, such as wheelchair basketball and boccia, the LPG appears to have been more beneficial to the VSCs of these sports in boosting disabled participant numbers. Furthermore, VSCs of disability-specific sports have fared better in increasing their disabled membership within the last five years. The LPG seems to have been more successful at increasing the profile for both mainstream and disability-specific sports, but particularly for disability-specific sports.

The data suggests that leveraging, often viewed as the optimum approach for achieving a successful sport participation legacy from a MSE (Chalip et al. 2017; Misener et al. 2015; Weed et al. 2015), is indeed important in increasing sport participation of disabled people at VSCs. VSCs that engaged in leveraging activities were more likely to have increased their disabled membership within the last 5 years. Whilst there might be other factors linked to successful increases in the membership of VSCs other than leveraging of the LPG, VSCs that leverage MSEs are likely to have a greater chance of increasing their disabled membership. Two main constraints to leveraging the LPG for VSCs were noted. A VSC's knowledge of disability and

understanding of sport participation provision for disabled people was viewed as less constraining to leveraging the LPG than the resources required to leverage the LPG. The resources constraint appears to result from a shortfall in the workforce required to enable effective leveraging to occur. In addition, adapted or specialised equipment for disabled people can be a barrier for some VSCs. This can stem from limited knowledge of how to best provide sporting opportunities for disabled people, with some VSCs perhaps not appreciating what adaptations can be made with existing equipment, but procurement of suitable equipment remains a separate barrier for VSCs to overcome. The CMOCs that have been produced as a result of this study are presented in Table 28.

Table 28: Specific CMOCs based on study 2 findings.

Context	+ Mechanism	= Outcome
VSCs from disability-specific sports	The platform provided by the LPG enables previously low-profile sports to be elevated in the consciousness of the public and enable the NGBs to promote available opportunities	Increased profile of the sport amongst disabled people
VSCs leveraging the demonstration effect from the LPG	Demand and excitement for the LPG has been built, priming the individual to respond to the stimulus provided by the LPG	Increase in disabled membership
VSCs from mainstream sports that won medals at the LPG	Success of Paralympians provides inspiration and motivation for the individual.	Minor impact on participation of disabled people
VSCs from mainstream sports that did not win medals at the LPG	Absence of 'inspirational' stories in comparison to successful sports leads to a lack of media coverage and 'bounce' from the LPG	No impact on sport participation of disabled people
NGBs providing dedicated disability programmes	NGBs from mainstream sports are 'forced' to confront any shortfall in resources and understanding of disability. This results in the development of targeted and tailored participation programmes for disabled people.	Experience less constraints to leveraging than NGBs funded to be inclusive

Chapter 6: How important was the London 2012 Paralympic Games for non-active or less active disabled people's sport participation?

6.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to get an indication of the main barriers that prevent non-active or less active disabled people from participating in more sport participation than is currently the case. Understanding the role of the LPG in the barriers to increased sport participation provides greater understanding of the scope and ability of the LPG to influence the sport participation of disabled people. Knowledge of the scope and reach of the LPG is important if future Paralympic Games legacy plans are to be implemented effectively. Due to the size of the sample for this study, the findings presented herein are limited to this sample only. The findings are therefore intended to provide a 'flavour' of some of the barriers that might be prevalent amongst some non-active or less active disabled people. This chapter addresses RQ2 directly, with the insights from RQ2 informing solutions for RQ3.

6.2 Characteristics of the non-active survey

The final sample of this study was 81 non-active or less active disabled people. Of the 81 participants to complete the questionnaire, 41.98% had not participated in sport or physical activity within the last 4 weeks (Table 29) and thus can be considered to be inactive (Sport England 2017). The remaining members of the sample all participated in sport or physical activity for less than 150 minutes a week and were thus not considered 'physically active' according to Sport England's definition of physical activity (Sport England 2017). The findings from this study are informed mainly from a female perspective, as 70.37% of the sample are females. Three-quarters of the participants are aged 35 and over (75.31%), with a quarter of the sample residing in the south east region of England (25.93%). The overwhelming majority (88.89%) of the participants that completed the questionnaire are from a white British ethnic background. All participants identified as disabled, with mobility impairments (87.65%) and long-term pain (64.20%) being the most common form of impairment amongst the sample. Just 12.35% of the participants are in full-time work, with nearly a third of the participants not currently working (32.01%).

Table 29: Demographic information for the study 3 sample.

Variable	Categories	Frequency	Percentage of sample
Physical Activity within the last 12 months	Yes	57	70.37%
	No	24	29.63%
Physical Activity within the last 4 weeks	Yes	47	58.02%
	No	34	41.98%
Minutes of activity in each week within the last 4 weeks	Between 10 minutes and 29 minutes a week	15	18.52%
	Between 30 minutes and 59 minutes a week	13	16.05%
	Between 90 minutes and 119 minutes a week	8	9.88%

	Between 60 minutes and 89 minutes a week	5	6.17%
	Between 120 minutes and 149 minutes a week	5	6.17%
	N/A	34	41.98%
	Missing information	1	1.23%
Gender	Male	24	29.63%
	Female	57	70.37%
Age	35-44	19	23.46%
	45-55	18	22.22%
	56-65	15	18.52%
	25-34	12	14.81%
	66+	9	11.11%
	16-24	8	9.88%
Region	South East	21	25.93%
	South West	13	16.05%
	East Midlands	10	12.35%
	Yorkshire	9	11.11%
	Other	7	8.64%
	North West	5	6.17%
	West Midlands	5	6.17%
	East	4	4.94%
	London	4	4.94%
	North East	1	1.23%
Ethnicity	White British	72	88.89%
	White Other	6	7.41%
	Asian British	1	1.23%
	Mixed	1	1.23%
	Prefer not to say	1	1.23%
Disability	Yes	81	100.00%
	No	0	0.00%
Does this illness or disability limit your activities in any way?	Yes	79	97.53%
	No	2	2.47%
Impairment	Mobility	71	87.65%
	Long-term pain	52	64.20%
	Dexterity	33	40.74%
	Stamina or breathing difficulty	25	30.86%
	Mental Health	18	22.22%
	Learning	15	18.52%
	Other	13	16.05%
	Difficulty speaking or making yourself understood	10	12.35%
	Vision	9	11.11%
	Hearing	5	6.17%
	Social or behavioural issues	2	2.47%
Work	Not working (e.g. retired, looking after children)	26	32.10%

Working part time	18	22.22%
Unemployed	13	16.05%
Working full time	10	12.35%
Student full or part time	6	7.41%
Other working status	6	7.41%

Table 30 provides an overview of the level of engagement with, and experience of, the LPG by the respondents. Most of the participants followed the LPG by watching television or online coverage (69.14%), with just under a fifth of participants attending one of the events live (18.52%). Only 3.70% of the sample did not engage with the LPG at all. The participants were fairly evenly split in either being at least not that interested in the LPG before the LPG (40.74%) compared to 48.15% of participants being at least somewhat interested in the LPG before the event. Following the LPG, the most popular consideration amongst the participants was to watch more sport for disabled people on television (51.85%), followed by a consideration of taking part in more sport or exercise (41.98%). Participants were asked for their opinion as to what the most important message was from the hosting of the LPG. There was no strong consensus, with support for a number of options, but the most popular response was that the LPG provided a great atmosphere but the feeling did not last forever (29.63%). Interestingly, 41.98% of participants believed either the message of the 'inspirational exploits of Paralympians' (18.52%) or 'everybody being able to take part in sport regardless of ability' (23.46%) was the most important message from the LPG. This would suggest that positive perceptions of the Paralympic Games 5 years on is possible for a sizeable section of the disabled people that completed this questionnaire, despite not participating in enough exercise or sport to be considered 'active'.

Table 30: Engagement with, and experience of, the LPG by the study 3 sample

Variable	Categories	Frequency	Percentage of sample
How experienced the LPG	Watched live television/online coverage	56	69.14%
	Watched television/online highlights	44	54.32%
	Read newspaper/online articles	28	34.57%
	Attended one of the events	15	18.52%
	Listened to live radio commentary	4	4.94%
	Other	4	4.94%
	None of the above	3	3.70%
Before the London 2012 Paralympic Games, how would you describe your interest in following the Paralympics?	Not that interested	30	37.04%
	Somewhat interested	30	37.04%
	Extremely interested	9	11.11%
	Undecided	9	11.11%
	Not at all interested	3	3.70%
After the LPG, considered the following	Watching more sport for disabled people on television	42	51.85%
	Taking part in more sport or exercise	34	41.98%
	None of the above	22	27.16%

	Attending sports events for disabled people as a spectator	15	18.52%
	Putting on activities in your area for disabled people to take part in	4	4.94%
	Volunteering at a sports events for disabled people	3	3.70%
	Mentoring disabled people in sport	1	1.23%
Five years on since the London Paralympic Games, what is the most important message you have taken out of the Games?	A great atmosphere but the feeling did not last forever	24	29.63%
	Everybody can take part in sport regardless of ability	19	23.46%
	Paralympians are inspirational role models for disabled people	15	18.52%
	Disabled people are important members in our society	12	14.81%
	Other	9	11.11%
	This country is advanced in providing rights and equality for disabled people	2	2.47%

6.3. A review of the main constraints to more sport participation for non-active disabled people

The questionnaire included 65 Likert items exploring a variety of constraints that might prevent disabled people who are non-active from participating in more sport. Darcy, Lock and Taylor's (2017) constraint items were included in the questionnaire along with items generated by the author based on the insights gleaned from study 1. The categories of constraints were the following:

- Community/organisation;
- Perceptions of sporting ability;
- Time;
- The London 2012 Paralympic Games;
- Interpersonal;
- Economic;
- Intrapersonal;
- Transport;
- Sports services and experiences;
- The role of grassroots sport clubs.

Table 31 provides an overview of the mean response by the participants to the different constraint items. The items relating to the LPG do not appear to be one of the main categories of constraints that limit more sport participation. Instead, community and organisational constraints appear to pose a particular challenge to non-active disabled people participating in more sport. Impairment effects (Thomas 1999) appear to be a strong constraint for non-active

disabled people. This is demonstrated by the strong support for the challenge posed by an individual's impairment on participation in increased sport as well as finding participation opportunities that are commensurate with the individual's impairment. In terms of sport-specific constraints, sport services and experiences and the role of VSCs appear to be the main categories of constraints limiting increased sport participation. The LPG specific constraints do not feature in the top 10 of constraints and the LPG does not appear to be of particular importance in constraining more sport participation for non-active disabled people. For disabled people that have not participated in sport within the past 12 months, participants disagreed that Paralympians are not inspirational ($M = 2.54, SD = 1.179$) and that the LPG was of no interest ($M = 2.33, SD = 0.963$). This suggests that, for this particular sample, the LPG did not immediately deter participation in more sport, but that it was other constraints, such as community and organisational constraints, that were more influential. The portrayal of Paralympians as superhumans was a stronger constraint ($M = 3.75, SD = 1.152$) to participation in sport, with inactive disabled people finding this off-putting. This suggests that the marketing of Paralympians by Paralympic hosts might be more of a deterrent to participation in sport rather than the event itself.

Having obtained a basic overview of the strength of constraints to increased sport participation, the next section will explain the common constraints that limited more sport participation. This is achieved by undertaking a PCA. The process of deriving the components is the focus of the next section.

Table 31: Mean and standard deviation for all constraint items.

Category of constraint	Constraint item	M	SD
Community/organisation	There is a lack of government support for disabled people	4.28	0.898
Community/organisation	There are restrictions for disabled people in public	4.23	1.003
Intrapersonal	My impairment made participating in sport difficult	3.94	1.133
The role of VSCs	There were not enough specific sport opportunities for my impairment needs	3.81	1.14
Community/organisation	No support provided to participate in sport	3.80	1.077
Economic	Gym memberships were too expensive for me to access their services	3.80	1.209
Sports services and experiences	Adaptable equipment is too expensive	3.80	1.05
Sports services and experiences	Lack of information about sport participation opportunities	3.72	1.13
Sports services and experiences	Scarce access to adaptable equipment	3.67	1.07
The role of VSCs	I didn't think the voluntary sports club could offer sport suitable for me	3.67	1.16
Sports services and experiences	There was not enough recreational or casual sport options available	3.63	1.08
The role of VSCs	Not many voluntary sport clubs were available for me in my local area	3.63	1.12
Sports services and experiences	Not enough sport opportunities that suited my needs	3.60	1.08
Community/organisation	No assessment of disabled people's needs	3.52	0.950
Sports services and experiences	Lack of trained staff to support my participation	3.47	1.07
Community/organisation	Sport and recreation staff don't include disabled people	3.46	1.096
Perceptions of sporting ability	Non-disabled coaches did not understand how to include me in sport	3.46	0.96
Interpersonal	No friends to participate with	3.44	1.173
Transport	Opportunities too far from home	3.44	1.235
The role of VSCs	Joining a voluntary sports club was intimidating for me	3.43	1.08
The role of VSCs	Mainstream voluntary sport clubs were not interested in disabled people joining their club	3.43	1.17
Perceptions of sporting ability	Participation in sport was not a realistic option for someone like me	3.38	1.26
Sports services and experiences	No adaptable equipment to use	3.35	1.12
Economic	Pricing of sport participation	3.33	1.162
Transport	Lack of accessible public transport	3.33	1.107

Sports services and experiences	Sport facilities were not suitable to my needs	3.33	1.11
Economic	Leisure centres were too expensive for me to access their services	3.32	1.223
Intrapersonal	Lack of confidence to participate in sport	3.26	1.191
LPG	Paralympians portrayed as superhumans was off-putting	3.25	1.31
LPG	Unable to relate to Paralympians because my impairment is different to that of Paralympians	3.25	1.24
Interpersonal	Not wishing to participate alone	3.25	1.178
Transport	No access to facilities close to home/work	3.23	1.268
Economic	Lack of money	3.22	1.194
Perceptions of sporting ability	There was too big a gap between my sporting ability and that of a Paralympian	3.19	1.35
LPG	Paralympians were not relevant to my motivation to participate in sport	3.15	1.12
Perceptions of sporting ability	I felt my own sporting ability was not good enough	3.14	1.24
Economic	I was unable to afford to participate in sport	3.14	1.159
Sports services and experiences	No integrated sport and recreation programmes available	3.14	1.06
Economic	Lack of personal income	3.12	1.177
LPG	Competitive sport was off-putting	3.11	1.23
Perceptions of sporting ability	Voluntary sports clubs had unrealistic expectations of my ability	3.09	0.87
The role of VSCs	Inclusive sport was unappealing	3.06	1.05
Time constraints to participation	Lack of time	3.04	1.269
LPG	Initial enthusiasm for participating in sport after the 2012 Paralympics subsided	3.02	1.00
Sports services and experiences	Only segregated sport and recreation programmes available	3.02	0.97
Intrapersonal	Overcrowding	3.00	1.265
Sports services and experiences	I have had poor participation experiences since the 2012 Paralympics	2.96	1.20
Perceptions of sporting ability	Non-disabled coaches highlighted my impairment and this made me feel uncomfortable	2.91	1.03
Intrapersonal	Not accustomed to sport and recreation	2.91	1.217
Intrapersonal	Fear of public participation	2.89	1.245
Intrapersonal	Attitudes of non-disabled people discouraged me from participating in sport	2.89	1.214
Transport	Lack of private transportation	2.83	1.340
Time constraints to participation	I have too many responsibilities	2.81	1.119
Time constraints to participation	I have too many domestic duties to do	2.80	1.156
Time constraints to participation	Family responsibilities	2.73	1.225
Intrapersonal	Lack of interest in group activities	2.67	1.061

Time constraints to participation	Work commitments	2.62	1.271
Intrapersonal	I was afraid of being seen to be active	2.62	1.168
Intrapersonal	Lack of safety	2.56	1.095
LPG	Not interested in Paralympic Games	2.36	1.08
LPG	The Paralympic Games discriminates against people like me	2.33	1.08
Intrapersonal	Sport and recreation not important to me	2.33	0.935
LPG	Paralympians were not inspirational to me	2.28	1.10
Community/organisation	I am unaware of the benefits sport and recreation can provide for disabled people	2.12	1.239
Intrapersonal	Fear of violence	2.00	0.837

6.4. PCA on the main constraints to non-active disabled people participating in more sport

It is important to highlight that the 65 items investigating constraints to more sport participation were unable to be subjected to testing by non-active disabled people. The pilot of the questionnaire failed to receive any responses, thus the expertise of 5 academics was used to refine the content of the questionnaire. The large number of items included in the final questionnaire enabled a full exploration of constraints to occur. It is likely, however, that the final number of items will be reduced as their suitability and fit to measuring constraints to increased sport participation might be revealed to be unsatisfactory. The PCA therefore enables a robust collection of constraint items for this sample to emerge.

When all of the 65 items were run for the PCA, the rotation failed to converge. The solution was only possible once the rotations was set to 100. Reliability was run for the 65 items and a number of negative correlations were evident. The data was exported into Excel and then sorted by the smallest corrected item-total correlation to remove all items that were less than .3, as Pallant (2016) suggests items with correlations below .3 are unlikely to be unidimensional. The items that were removed were the following:

1. Lack of private transportation
2. Paralympians were not inspirational to me
3. Not interested in Paralympic Games
4. Sport and recreation not important to me
5. I felt my own sporting ability was not good enough
6. Lack of time
7. Paralympians were not relevant to my motivation to participate in sport
8. Work commitments
9. I am unaware of the benefits sport and recreation can provide for disabled people
10. There was too big a gap between my sporting ability and that of a Paralympian
11. Fear of public participation
12. I have too many domestic duties to do
13. The Paralympic Games discriminates against people like me
14. I have too many responsibilities
15. Family responsibilities
16. Lack of interest in group activities
17. No access to facilities close to home/work
18. Not accustomed to sport and recreation
19. Fear of violence

20. Lack of safety

PCA was rerun on the 45 items following the removal of the above 20 items. The KMO was a respectable .721 and communalities were all above .5. 12 components were produced with eigenvalues above 1, but an inspection of the scree plot indicated that 6 components might be present. The pattern matrix failed to load because the solution was unable to converge in 25 iterations. The PCA was rerun with 6 factors forced and the number of iterations raised to 100. The resultant PCA produced multiple cross-loadings on the 6 components and the components were uncorrelated with each other. There were also negative inter-correlations present. The pattern matrix was produced with only 19 iterations, however. Consequently, reliability analysis was run on the 45 items to see if the reliability of the scale could be improved. An inspection of the corrected item-total correlations revealed two items that were below the .3 threshold. These were the following:

1. Competitive sport was off-putting (.171)
2. Inclusive sport was unappealing (.295)

In addition, 'Overcrowding' was above the .3 threshold, but the removal of this item would marginally improve the Cronbach from .941 to .942. and was only just above the .3 threshold (.307). Consequently, this item was also removed.

PCA was then run on the remaining 42 items. The KMO was .766 and communalities were all above .5. 10 components had an eigenvalue above 1, but an examination of the scree plot indicated a 6-component solution. The PCA was rerun forcing 6 components, but the resultant pattern matrix suggested the components had multiple cross-loadings. The item, 'There is a lack of government support for disabled people', did not load onto any of the 6 components. This item was removed and the PCA was rerun. A similar situation was apparent with the previous iteration of the PCA. A decision was made to inspect the inter-correlations of the items from the PCA and remove some items that had negative correlations. The following items were removed as they had negative correlations:

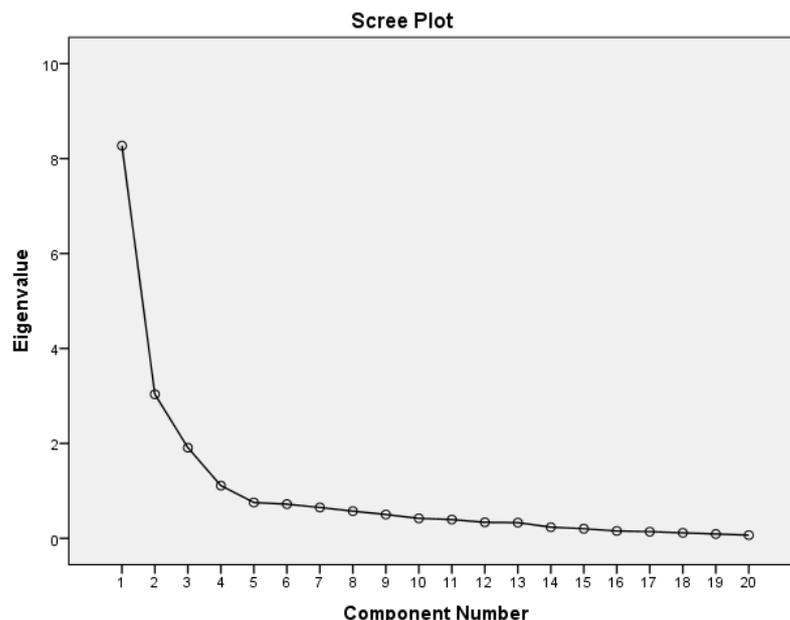
1. I have had poor participation experiences since the 2012 Paralympics
2. Lack of confidence to participate in sport
3. Paralympians portrayed as superhumans was off-putting
4. Initial enthusiasm for participating in sport after the 2012 Paralympics subsided
5. Unable to relate to Paralympians because my impairment is different to that of Paralympians
6. Only segregated sport and recreation programmes available
7. Participation in sport was not a realistic option for someone like me
8. Lack of personal income
9. Lack of accessible public transport
10. Opportunities too far from home
11. Joining a voluntary sports club was intimidating for me

The PCA was run on the remaining 30 items. The KMO had improved to .820 and the mean value of all communalities was .684. There were 7 components with an eigenvalue above 1, but an assessment of the scree plot suggested a 3-component solution might fit the data better. Multiple cross-loadings were apparent with a 7-component solution; thus, a decision was made to force a 3-component solution based on the scree plot. To ensure robustness of the components, only items which had a loading of at least .60 on a component were retained. 10 items did not have a minimum of .60 loading on one of the 3 components. The following items had a loading of less than 0.60 and were subsequently removed from the analysis:

1. Mainstream voluntary sport clubs were not interested in disabled people joining their club
2. Sport and recreation staff don't include disabled people
3. No friends to participate with
4. My impairment made participating in sport difficult
5. I didn't think the voluntary sports club could offer sport suitable for me
6. Not wishing to participate alone
7. No support provided to participate in sport
8. No assessment of disabled people's needs
9. I was afraid of being seen to be active
10. There are restrictions for disabled people in public

The resultant PCA on the 20 items produced a KMO of .826 and a mean value for the communalities of .716. 4 components had an eigenvalue above 1 and the scree plot (Figure 14) supported the use of 4 components.

Figure 14: Scree plot for 20 items.

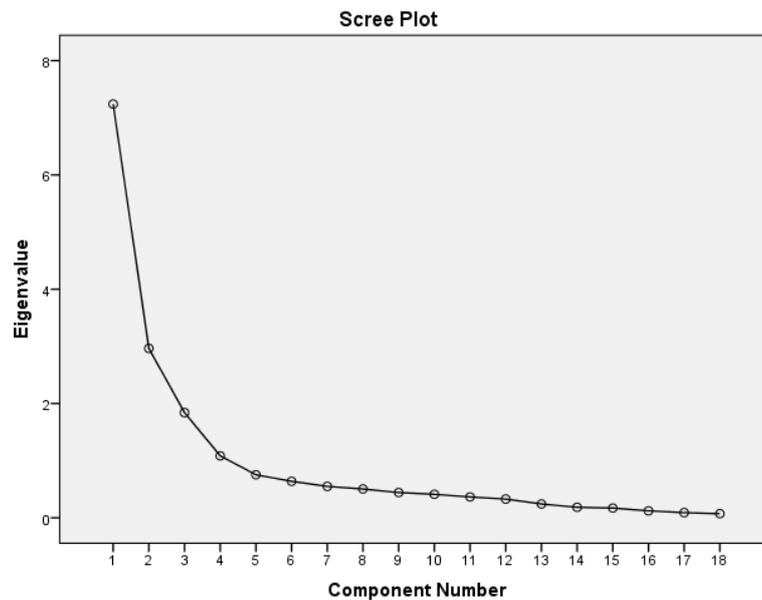


There were 2 items that had a loading on component 1 less than .60:

- Sport facilities were not suitable to my needs (.591)
- Lack of trained staff to support my participation (.585)

These items were removed and the PCA run on the remaining 18 items. The KMO dropped from .820 to .814, but this KMO value is suitable for conducting a PCA (Blaikie 2003). The mean value of the communalities was .729. 4 components had an eigenvalue above 1 and a review of the scree plot (Figure 15) supported the use of 4 components for the data.

Figure 15: Scree plot for 18 items



The 4 components explained a total of 72.93% of the total variance. One item, 'Scarce access to adaptable equipment' had more than one loading on the components, with this item loading strongly on component 1 (.636) and then slightly on component 4 (-.314). Due to the relatively small size of the loading on component 4 and the high loading on component 1, the item was retained as it contributed to the overall strength of component 1. The item, 'Attitudes of non-disabled people discouraged me from participating in sport' (.595) had a component loading that was lower than the .60 loading threshold, but as it was only .05 away from .60, discretion was used and the item was retained. Thus the 4 components that summarise the main constraints to more sport participation for non-active disabled people are:

- Component 1: Sport provision (40.22% of the total variance)
- Component 2: Economic (16.47% of the total variance)
- Component 3: Unawareness of how to include disabled people in sporting activities (10.22% of the total variance)
- Component 4: Access to sport participation opportunities (6.02% of the total variance)

The next section will discuss the components in more detail.

6.5 Reliability of the components

To ensure the identified constraints to more sport participation for non-active disabled people are robust, it was necessary to conduct a reliability analysis on the components. Cronbach's Alpha for the 18 items was .906, comfortably exceeding the recommended minimum of .70 (Blaikie 2003). For the individual components, all of the Cronbach Alpha's were above .70 (Table 32). Thus, the components are internally reliable and are unidimensional in the construct that is being measured (Blaikie 2003).

Table 32: Cronbach Alphas for 18 items and individual components.

	Items	Mean	Standard deviation	Cronbach Alpha
Component 1	Scarce access to adaptable equipment	3.67	1.072	.885
	Lack of information about sport participation opportunities	3.72	1.132	
	No adaptable equipment to use	3.35	1.120	
	Adaptable equipment is too expensive	3.80	1.054	
	No integrated sport and recreation programmes available	3.14	1.058	
Component 2	Lack of money	3.22	1.194	.920
	Pricing of sport participation	3.33	1.162	
	I was unable to afford to participate in sport	3.14	1.159	
	Leisure centres were too expensive for me to access their services	3.32	1.223	
	Gym memberships were too expensive for me to access their services	3.80	1.209	
Component 3	Voluntary sports clubs had unrealistic expectations of my ability	3.09	0.869	.750
	Non-disabled coaches did not understand how to include me in sport	3.46	0.962	
	Non-disabled coaches highlighted my impairment and this made me feel uncomfortable	2.91	1.027	
	Attitudes of non-disabled people discouraged me from participating in sport	2.89	1.214	
Component 4	Not enough sport opportunities that suited my needs	3.60	1.080	.910
	There was not enough recreational or casual sport options available	3.63	1.078	
	Not many voluntary sport clubs were available for me in my local area	3.63	1.123	
	There were not enough specific sport opportunities for my impairment needs	3.81	1.141	
All items				.906

6.6 Interpretation of the components

The first component relates to the availability and affordability of sports equipment, as well as provision of sport participation opportunities. This component accounted for 40.22% of the variance and was the most important component identified. It would appear that access and the cost of sports equipment is a significant barrier to participating in more sport for disabled people. Allied to this is the provision of sport participation opportunities for disabled people,

with the perception that sport participation opportunities are not suitable for the specific needs of some disabled people. As mentioned by CSP 3, there are still a number of disabled people that do not appear to be aware that opportunities to participate in sport exist for them. The current communication methods of sports organisations might not be effective in reaching non-active disabled people, hindering some disabled people from participating in more sport.

Component 2, which accounts for 16.47% amount of the total variance, relates to the economic challenges of participating in more sport. This barrier was identified also by Darcy et al. (2017) in their review of the constraints to sport participation of Australian disabled people, and the discovery of this component further supports Darcy, Lock and Taylor's (2017) findings. On average, disabled people have lower earnings and wealth compared to non-disabled people (McKnight 2014), thus the economic implications of participating in more sport is likely to be more acute for some disabled people compared to non-disabled people. Furthermore, the difficulties that have been experienced by some disabled people as a result of the UK's austerity measures during the past decade (Cross 2013), is likely to have compounded this constraint (Brown and Pappous 2018b). Disabled people, more so than non-disabled people, access and make use of public leisure facilities (Kung and Taylor 2014), therefore the average agreement that leisure centres and gym are too expensive is likely to have been an important constraint to more sport participation. The consensus amongst the sample that gym memberships are too expensive to enable more sport participation is particularly troublesome considering the EFDS has supported a campaign to make gyms more inclusive for disabled people (Activity Alliance n.d.b). Thus, despite the efforts of organisations such as the Activity Alliance to make gyms more welcoming to disabled people, gyms are still viewed as being too expensive, suggesting the costs of accessing sports facilities is an important and significant barrier affecting disabled people's sport participation.

Component 3, which accounts for 10.22% of total variance, refers to a lack of knowledge of how to include disabled people in sport participation activities. This can prevent some disabled people from participating in more sport because this lack of understanding can lead to uncomfortable experiences for some disabled people, which can be off-putting. Misinformed and prejudiced views of disabled people can also inhibit more participation. One way this can materialise is if VSCs' understanding of disability has been mainly formed through the achievements of Paralympians, and then assuming that disabled people are equally capable of the elite exploits of Paralympians. This expectation can contrast sharply with the reality for some disabled people, like any person trying a new sport for the first time, and therefore the deficit between expectation and reality can be off-putting and act as a deterrent for some disabled people (Weed et al. 2009). Ill-informed understanding of disability by non-disabled coaches and VSCs is therefore a source of unease for some disabled people and can deter some from increasing their participation sport.

The items that comprise component 4 are centred around access to sport participation, accounting for 6.02% of the total variance. Access to sport participation refers to the availability of local sport participation opportunities that are suitable for the individual's personal requirements. This includes opportunities that are consistent with the individual's impairment requirements, but also in terms of the level and intensity of sport participation options.

The barriers to participating in more sport for non-active or less active disabled people highlight the complexity involved in changing habits and behaviour change. The components highlight barriers that are beyond the scope for many sports organisations, such as general economic constraints. Of course, sports organisations can influence aspects of all of the components that have been identified, but there are many barriers outside of the scope of a Paralympic Games. This highlights the limited influence the demonstration effect can have for sustained

participation in sport, as once the event has concluded many systemic and social challenges may prevent more sport participation from occurring.

6.7 Conclusion

Not only are there barriers to leveraging the Paralympic Games, systemic and social barriers can prevent some disabled people from participating in more sport. These barriers are often beyond the control of sports organisations and demonstrate the multi-dimensionality of sport participation as a result of a Paralympic Games. The systemic and social barriers also shine a light on the limited utility a Paralympic Games is likely to have in producing sustainable sport participation for previously inactive disabled individuals. Thus, even if leveraging barriers are removed or significantly reduced, sports organisations may still find it difficult or impossible to engage some sections of the disabled population in regular sports participation. Indeed, 41.98% of participants considered taking part in more sport or exercise. Despite this, these individuals have been unable to do so, highlighting the influence and role of barriers to sport participation external to the Paralympic Games. Thus, interest to participate in more sport does not necessarily mean sustainable sports participation will be achieved. Indeed, APS10 highlighted that 56.30% of disabled people would like to do more sport participation than they currently do, but some disabled people might be prevented from participating in more sport because of these systemic and social barriers. Sports organisations should therefore be clear about who they might be able to attract as a result of a Paralympic Games. Sports organisations would also do well to recognise that multiple audiences of disabled people exist, with their own motivations, barriers and communication needs. Sports organisations should be aware of the audience they are targeting and provide sport opportunities that are most appropriate to that particular audience.

Chapter 7: What lessons can be learned from the London 2012 Paralympic Games sport participation legacy?

7.1 Introduction

This chapter concludes the investigation into the grassroots sport participation legacy of the LPG for disabled people in England. Following a summary of the findings from the three studies, recommendations for creating a grassroots sport participation legacy are provided for future hosts of the Paralympic Games. A reflection on the researcher's experience of conducting the research is presented. Finally, consolidated CMOCs of the LPG sport participation legacy are provided, along with refined programme theory.

7.2 Summary of empirical findings from chapter 4

From a national perspective, the LPG was able to provide a short-term boost to the grassroots sport participation of disabled people aged 16+ in England. This increase lasted for approximately 1 year, but disabled people's grassroots sport participation subsequently declined. Some NGBs were able to increase the number of disabled people participating in their sport, but the influence of the LPG in these increases was varied and often weak. The LPG was most effective at increasing sports participation amongst disability-specific sports, such as wheelchair basketball. Rather than confer direct benefits to grassroots sport participation, the LPG seems to have provided more intangible and indirect benefits to sport participation. One such benefit was the development of the grassroots disability sport system, with the LPG thought to have been an important driving factor in this development. The profile of some of the sports was thought to have been boosted by the LPG, enabling some of the organisations to generate additional income and increase the credibility of the organisation. The LPG was thought to have been able to position sport participation as being a more realistic option for disabled people to consider as a leisure pursuit. Whether this then got converted into regular sport participation was outside the control of the LPG. In addition, the LPG was believed to have prompted contemplation of participation in sport amongst some inactive disabled people. Disabled children and young people were a population group that benefitted from the LPG. Most of the build-up to the LPG from Sport England and the government was centred on this group, in the form of sport participation and funding opportunities. This was to the detriment of disabled adults, particularly adults aged 50+, who were often not provided equivalent sport participation opportunities. Impairment groups not included in the LPG also lost out, as sports organisations prioritised talent needs, thus focusing on a narrow segment of the population.

A number of reasons were offered for the outcomes of the LPG sport participation legacy. The demonstration effect was thought to be most effective amongst 'sporty' disabled people, as the successful exploits of Paralympians resonated with the self-efficacy of the individual. In contrast, disabled people lacking enthusiasm for sport were unlikely to have changed their behaviour as a result of the LPG. In fact, the LPG might have acted as a deterrent for some people because of a perceived competency gap between the individual and the Paralympian. Ableist cultures within some of the NGBs resulted in a lack of knowledge and awareness of how to provide suitable sporting opportunities for disabled people. The dwindling of the initial interest for sport participation stimulated by the LPG may have been partly influenced by the reduced media coverage of disability sport after the LPG. Austerity measures and negative media coverage of disabled people created a fear amongst some disabled people that if they were seen to be active

they may end up losing all or some of their benefits. This fear of losing benefit payments was thought to have acted as a strong deterrent for some disabled people not participating in sport.

7.3 Summary of empirical findings from chapter 5

Most VSCs did not believe the LPG had any impact on the participation of disabled people at their club. This was particularly apparent amongst VSCs from mainstream sports. VSCs from disability-specific sports generally increased their disabled membership within the last 5 years, with a number of clubs from these sports believing the LPG had an above average impact on participation. The main benefit for VSCs from the LPG was an increase to the profile of the sport amongst disabled people. This benefit extended to some VSCs from mainstream sports, but was particularly prominent for VSCs from disability-specific sports. The VSCs believed the LPG had very little impact on the participation of elderly disabled adults, with adults aged 16-65 benefitting slightly more than children and young people. The workforce of the VSCs was largely unaffected by the staging of the LPG.

Leveraging of the LPG by VSCs was found to be associated with VSCs that had managed to increase their disabled membership. Over half of the VSCs did not leverage the LPG, however, which is likely to have contributed to the minimal impact of the LPG amongst the clubs. Two-thirds of the VSCs from disability-specific sports aimed to increase sport participation from the LPG, which was in sharp contrast to VSCs from mainstream sports. Medal success at the LPG was of more importance for VSCs from mainstream sports than was the case for VSCs from disability-specific sports, in terms of the LPG's impact on sport participation. However, the overwhelming majority of VSCs from medal-winning mainstream sports did not believe the LPG had a noticeable impact on participant numbers. VSCs from NGBs that were funded by Sport England to deliver inclusively were most constrained in leveraging the LPG. Two main constraints to leveraging the LPG was found to be knowledge of disability and provision of sport participation opportunities for disabled people, as well as resources required for leveraging. Naturally, VSCs from mainstream sports were more constrained in leveraging the LPG by a lack of disability knowledge than VSCs from disability-specific sports. Both VSCs from disability-specific sports and VSCs from mainstream sports were constrained by resources required to leverage the LPG.

7.4 Summary of empirical findings from chapter 6

The LPG did not appear to be of significant influence in non-active disabled participants participating in more sport. Instead, social and systemic constraints to increased sport participation was of more importance. Access and cost of sport equipment and the role of VSCs were more of a constraint than the LPG was. Portrayals of Paralympians as superhumans was off-putting, but the participants were able to derive inspiration and interest from the LPG. The PCA identified four main constraints to increased sport participation for the non-active disabled participants. Sport provision constraints was found to be the most important constraint, followed by economic challenges of participating in sport. An unawareness of how to fully include disabled people in sporting activities by organisations and individuals, and the resultant source of discomfort this might produce, was identified as a constraint. Finally, accessing relevant sport participation opportunities proved to be a barrier for more sport participation taking place. The findings from this study highlighted the role and importance of social and systemic barriers in barriers to increased sport participation, which are often beyond the control of a Paralympic Games. It was recommended that organisers of the Paralympic Games be mindful of the limitations inherent in using the Paralympic Games to increase sport participation, and to focus resources accordingly.

7.5 RQ3: How might future Paralympic Games hosts create a positive grassroots sport participation legacy for disabled people?

The LPG was intended to increase the sport participation of disabled people, but the national picture 5 years after the hosting of the LPG would suggest this ambition has not been fully realised (Active People Interactive 2017). What lessons can future hosts learn from the attempt to use the LPG as a social marketing campaign to increase sports participation? This section answers this question by critically reviewing the evidence presented in the preceding chapters.

7.5.1.1 The demonstration effect has limited utility

Organisations and politicians should not pin their hopes on the demonstration effect increasing the number of disabled people participating in sport. To do so would be misguided and divert valuable resources away from initiatives that might be more conducive to encouraging inactive disabled people to participate in sport. The demonstration effect was the main theory behind using the 2012 Games to increase sport participation (Hughes 2013), but the data suggests that, for inactive disabled people, a perceived competency gap between the individual and the Paralympian can prevent some people from increasing their sport participation. This echoes the concerns raised by Boardley (2013) about using the 2012 Games to increase sport participation. Naturally, there were some people inspired to participate in sport as a result of the LPG, but the utility of using inspiration to increase participation is limited for individuals not predisposed to being sporty (Grix and Carmichael 2012; Lyle 2009), precisely the audience that is likely to be inactive and in need of increasing their sport participation. Furthermore, relying on inspiration alone fails to acknowledge systemic and societal barriers, as well as challenges related to an individual's impairment, that can constrain the participation of disabled people in sport (Darcy, Lock and Taylor 2017). According to the interview data, anecdotally, the LPG appears to have been more effective at inspiring younger disabled people, as there is likely to be a more congruent relationship between children and young people and Paralympians than is the case with adults. It is important to point out, however, that the Paralympic Games only includes a limited range of impairments (Howe and Silva 2018), thus the opportunity to make a tangible impact on the behaviour of all young disabled people is limited. This is especially problematic because of the importance of building a synergistic relationship between an individual and the sporting role models (MacCallum and Beltman 2002). The Paralympic Games, therefore, only influences the behaviour of a limited number of young disabled people. Peer role model schemes, akin to 'This Girl Can' campaign, are likely to be more effective for inactive disabled adults because the individual's life circumstances may be more closely aligned to the peer role model, rather than the Paralympian (Lyle 2009).

7.5.1.2 Legacy discourse should be minimised

The focus on 'legacy' and what the LPG would leave behind for disabled people's sport participation became a hindrance rather than help. Legacy was used so frequently that it became devoid of a common meaning amongst stakeholders. Instead, 'legacy' became a convenient way for some organisations to place their faith in the LPG increasing disabled people's sport participation, rather than engage in planned and well-thought out sport participation initiatives centred on the LPG. The misuse of 'legacy' by a range of stakeholders has produced competing, and sometimes divergent, understandings of what legacy entails. As per Gammon's (2015) critique of legacy, the LPG legacy became ambiguous for stakeholders, limiting the ability for joined-up and coordinated action. It would be more helpful for future organisers to eschew the word 'legacy' and grand promises of what the event can achieve for

sport participation. These promises are unlikely to be achievable in the short-term and lead to allocation of resources to appease critics and to 'keep up appearances', rather than to where the need for resources is greatest. The current ambiguity and negative connotations implied by 'legacy' is therefore likely to act as a proverbial millstone around the necks of stakeholders. It would be wise for stakeholders and organisers to instead focus on 'impacts' and 'aspirations' of what the Paralympic Games may do for sport participation, rather than legacy (Gammon 2015). The focus on impacts and aspirations may have a greater chance of keeping stakeholders focused on the job in hand - increasing the sport participation of disabled people - rather than assume the Paralympic Games will increase sport participation by itself.

7.5.1.3 The fragmented disability sport system hampered the effectiveness of the LPG

The fragmented network of sports organisations purporting to provide sport participation opportunities for disabled people (Thomas and Guett 2014) hampered attempts to increase disabled people's sport participation. NGBs, NDSOs, and CSPs often did not have a joined-up and harmonised way of working, particularly before and immediately after the LPG. This resulted in disconnected sport participation initiatives with limited effectiveness and scope for some sports and impairment types. NDSOs were often the primary provider of sport participation for disabled people before the LPG (Thomas and Smith 2009), but their ability to effect lasting positive change to a significant degree was let down by their limited size and resources. Furthermore, some NGBs viewed the NDSOs as the vehicle for disability sport participation work in their sports, rather than the NDSOs supplementing the NGB's own programmes of activity. The lack of enthusiasm and apparent commitment to disability sport from some NGBs created tensions in the working relationships between NDSOs and NGBs, further limiting the potential of the organisations working effectively together. This was also the case with some CSPs and NDSOs. NDSOs, NGBs, and CSPs have important roles to play in increasing disabled people's participation if their skills and experiences are utilised strategically, but this was not the case before and immediately after the LPG. The mainstreaming agenda promoted by Sport England (Thomas and Smith 2009) failed to win the hearts and minds of senior management at some NGBs and CSPs, resulting in superficial attempts to increase disabled people's grassroots sport participation. This is not to say mainstreaming should be abandoned, but that mainstreaming requires a culture change amongst organisations that was lacking at most NGBs and CSPs. This will only come about if more disabled people are appointed in senior positions at sports organisations (discussed in 7.5.1.10), and disability sport becomes an integral component of the sport organisation's participation strategy. This requires increased funding and support from central government, and skilled staff at the sports organisation who have a sole focus on disability, rather than disability forming a part of their overall role. The NGBs that were most successful at increasing disabled people's sport participation had dedicated disability officers, and this should be replicated at all sports organisations. Disability forming only an aspect of an individual's role will end up competing, and likely losing, with other organisational priorities.

7.5.1.4 The LPG was not leveraged by most sports organisations

A failure to appreciate the potential of the Paralympic Games' impact led to a reactive, rather than proactive, response from sport organisations (Weed and Dowse 2009). The ability of the NGBs to successfully increase sport participation was questioned by various commentators prior to the 2012 Games (Charlton 2010; Collins 2010). This research found the NGBs to be ill-equipped in resources, structure, and knowledge of how to successfully leverage the LPG. It is a

consistent comment from leverage academics, but one that should be repeated here: leveraging needs to be strategically planned, coordinated, and managed in advance of the event (Misener, Taks, Chalip et al. 2015). This should occur at the earliest possible opportunity to enable behaviour change and for the structures and systems to be developed. Increasing demand amongst disabled people to want to participate in sport was not understood by the majority of sports organisations as a shared goal. A plausible solution therefore would be to include disabled people within the structure and creation of participation programmes at an early stage. This did not occur for the vast majority of sports organisations. Chalip et al. (2017) have highlighted the need to ensure that marketing communications are relevant to the intended audience, but this was not possible for most NGBs and CSPs because of the lack of knowledge they possessed about disability. Thus, specific marketing and participation programmes for non-active, moderately active, and active disabled people would be strongly suggested. For example, peer role models may be more effective for disabled people that have not been active for a length of time, whereas young disabled people may be more receptive to messages featuring Paralympians with similar impairments to themselves. According to the data, most mainstream sports organisations viewed disabled people as belonging to one homogenous group. This ignored the lack of common disability identity shared by most disabled people (Watson 2002), as well as the differentiated responses to marketing stimuli from people with various activity levels. It is important for sports organisations to prioritise the involvement of disabled people in the design and delivery of sport participation programmes, in order to ensure participation opportunities are commensurate with the motivations and needs of disabled people.

7.5.1.5 Traces of institutional ableism existed within sports organisations

The data suggests that the failure to leverage the LPG was not only because sports organisations consistently neglect the importance of leveraging (Misener et al. 2015), but was also a result of the ableist structures and culture prevalent within the sports sector. Campbell (2009) argues that ableism positions disabled people as diminished humans, stemming from the privileging of non-disabled people's experiences to the detriment of people who do not conform to the non-disabled perspective. Whilst sports organisations may not have intentionally set out to devalue disabled people, the failure to consider the needs and motivations of disabled people is indicative of the lack of importance associated with providing sport participation opportunities for disabled people. Most NGBs had been paying lip service to grassroots disability participation before the LPG (Thomas and Smith 2009), lacking a culture of inclusion and understanding of disability. By failing to consider the needs of disabled people and to recognise disabled people as legitimate and valued consumers, sports organisations exhibited traces of ableism. Indeed, Brown and Pappous (2018a) argued that ableist cultures existed within NGBs before the LPG, resulting in the marginalisation of disabled people's voice in the provision of sport for disabled people. This data echoed the findings of Brown and Pappous (2018b), namely that disabled people were an afterthought for some NGBs and CSPs. The development work that has occurred after the LPG was instigated as a result of funding obligations from Sport England, rather than a culture of inclusion. The ableist practices of some NGBs may have also been a result of the historic focus of NGBs before the LPG. Before Sport England decided, in 2008, to place their faith in NGBs to increase grassroots participation, NGBs had predominately been concerned with the management of national squads, governance of their sport, and serving their members (Charlton 2010). Thus, some sports organisations were focused on athletic and ability-laden ideals to the extent that individuals who did not match these values were not acknowledged by NGBs and CSPs. Ableism within sports organisations may not have been intentional, but a result of the insular and narrow focus of sports organisations and how they viewed their 'ideal' consumer. This narrow-minded focus ensured there was a lack of awareness and understanding of people with different circumstances and ability levels to the perceived norm. Many NGBs and CSPs,

therefore, did not appreciate the potential of the LPG (Weed and Dowse 2009) because the majority of sports organisations were ruled and governed from a non-disabled perspective. Disability scholars have been for many years supporting the idea of ‘nothing about us without us’ (Charlton 1998), arguing that any policy related to the disability community should not be decided without the direct participation of disabled people (Lurie 2017).

7.5.1.6 Grassroots sport participation work should not be driven by funding alone

It is recommended that future hosts do not just match funding to short-term goals at the expense of focusing on the wider benefits of sport. Funding should be linked to sport participation, but there needs to be a recognition that being too pre-occupied with short-term targets is unlikely to yield sustainable participation in the long-term. This was recognised by Nichols et al. (2016), in their analysis of CSPs’ implementation of the Sport Makers programme, whereby the top-down approach from Sport England limited the effectiveness of the volunteering policy change for the end user. Therefore, there is a danger that financial incentives dominate the thinking of sports organisations to the detriment of long-term behaviour change. This was the case with some of the NGBs who met their disability participation targets, but might not have addressed systemic barriers and challenges to sport participation.

7.5.1.7 The Paralympic Games is the ‘gold dust’, not the solution

The Paralympic Games is unlikely to be the most effective way of increasing grassroots sport participation of disabled people. This is not to say Paralympians cannot be a source of inspiration or role-models to disabled people, because they can, but using the Paralympic Games alone to achieve sustainable grassroots participation is misplaced. It can be difficult for some sports organisations to view the disability market in its entirety, rather than thinking of disability sport in Paralympic frames only. Disability has been found to be associated with age, with older adults much more likely to acquire an impairment as they age (World Health Organisation 2011). Therefore, when leveraging the Paralympic Games, the majority of disabled people are likely to be adults, rather than children. Thus, relying on the Paralympic Games for increasing sustainable participation is misguided because the vast majority of disabled people are unlikely to be eligible for the Paralympic classification system (Howe and Silva 2018), making it difficult to raise awareness of the typical disabled consumer. In fact, this research found that sports were more successful by making their sport more inclusive, therefore opening up a wider pool of potential participants, rather than focusing on a narrow segment of the population. Sport organisations would be wise to take note of the success sports have enjoyed by making their sport open to an array of people, rather than running a closed shop. The Paralympic Games is a great way of increasing the profile of what sports are available for disabled people, but it should not be the spur for sport participation. Increasing sport participation relies on a strong foundation and a developed system. Furthermore, providing a compelling sport participation experience for disabled people is of more immediate concern to most disabled people than being inspired by the Paralympic Games. The Paralympic Games should augment, not supplant, efforts to increase the participation of disabled people. The Paralympic Games can provide the ‘gold dust’ for sports to utilise, but only if the Paralympic Games forms one plank of a wider grassroots sport participation strategy for sports organisations.

7.5.1.8 The environmental context needs to be conducive for leveraging the Paralympic Games

The introduction of austerity measures following the formation of the Coalition government in 2010 undoubtedly impacted on leveraging (Brittain and Beacom 2016), as well as disabled people’s sport participation. Cuts to local authorities’ budgets, where sport is a discretionary

service, led to the closure or reduction in sport services accessible for disabled people (King 2013). Disabled people are likely to have been particularly affected by this as their use of public leisure facilities in England is high when compared to non-disabled people (Kung and Taylor 2014). Furthermore, austerity measures have had significant negative impacts on the lives of some disabled people (Cross 2013), with disposable income to spend on leisure significantly reduced for some people (McKnight 2014). The lack of balance in the media coverage of disabled people being either 'superhumans' or 'benefit scroungers' (Crow 2014), likely had an impact too. The prominent role of austerity and negative media coverage emphasises the importance of the external environment being conducive for mega sport events to be leveraged. This is not to suggest sports organisations were unable to leverage just because of the external environment, as that is evidently not true, but that there are factors beyond the control of leveraging organisations. In addition, the context needed for participation to be increased as a result of the LPG was lacking within some of the sports organisations that were interviewed. For example, two of the NGBs experienced internal restructuring that limited their capacity to deliver compelling participation experiences for people with disabilities. Furthermore, Brown and Pappous (2018b) discovered that a number of NDSOs lacked competent governance and financial management, limiting their ability to leverage the LPG. Thus, it is possible that the demonstration effect may not have worked effectively for some of the sports organisations because their contextual conditions were not applicable for the mechanisms associated with the LPG to operate effectively (Pawson 2013; Pawson and Tilley 1997).

7.5.1.9 Sports organisations are part of the solution; not the solution

Sports organisations are vital to the leveraging chances of a sports event, but there needs to be a realisation of their limitations and strengths at an early stage, and to put measures in place to improve on their weaknesses. Utilising the resources and ability of disabled people's organisations may have helped in engaging disabled people not ordinarily enthused by sport mega-events. As suggested by Chalip et al. (2017), one type of organisation, in this case sport organisations, was unable to achieve successful leverage on their own. Future hosts would do well to heed this lesson and Chalip et al.'s (2017) advice: successful leveraging requires all organisations – event organisations, non-sport organisations, sport organisations – to be actively involved in the leveraging process. The NGBs should have been part of the solution; not *the* solution. The author concurs with Chalip et al.'s (2017) recommendation for a separate structure through which the legacy can be leveraged. A dedicated committee made up of various stakeholders from the three types of organisations would be of great relevance. Logistically, sports organisations would need to take a prominent role in a steering group. Sports organisations are the experts at delivering sport participation opportunities, therefore they should be the stakeholder with the most leveraging responsibility. Non-sport organisations, particularly organisations focused on disabled people, will be required to lend their expertise on disability issues and inform the content of the leveraging output. Sports organisations are often lacking in understanding of the motivations and requirements of disabled people, but this is a task that organisations focused on disabled people should excel at, therefore they would need to be involved at all stages of the leveraging process. It is likely event organisations will be preoccupied by the demands of staging the Paralympic Games (Chalip et al. 2017), thus their involvement is likely to be the lowest of the three organisation types. Nevertheless, event organisations would still need to be involved at various points to ensure a fully connected and harmonious leveraging of the Paralympic Games. Without a leveraging structure, it is likely the responsibility for leveraging will be subsumed by the needs to deliver a successful event by event organisers, deemed as being of less importance than meeting the needs of existing members and management of national squads for sport organisations, and lacking strategic importance for non-sport organisations compared to their own specific organisational interests (Chalip et al.

2017). The weakness of sport organisations in understanding disability could be offset by active involvement of relevant non-sport organisations.

7.5.1.10 Increased representation of disabled people within sports organisations is needed

Increased representation of disabled people has been called for in other leisure industries, such as gaming and fashion (Asthana 2017), and it is called repeated here for the sports industry. It is disabled people who are best placed to understand the key motivations and barriers that exist to increasing sport participation. This research found that participation programmes before the LPG, and still today, have mainly been designed and organised without the input of disabled people. The importance of including disabled people in the design of participation programmes is a message that has been made before (Horne and Spring 2014). Sport England recently launched its 'Code for Sports Governance', in which Sport England called for greater participation of minority groups on the Boards of NGBs (Sport England 2016). But this author is calling for increased representation not to be just limited to the Board, but to occur across the different levels of the workforces of sports organisations. For example, only two of the participants from the sports organisations included in study 1 considered themselves to have an impairment. It is recommended the voice of disabled people be represented by disabled people themselves and this to hold greater priority and power within sports organisations. Recruitment and retention of disabled people will only occur if sports organisations demonstrate a commitment to be inclusive. Working with local organisations focused on disabled people to promote and communicate sport management recruitment opportunities may help to increase the representation of disabled people. Furthermore, a peer role-model scheme profiling disabled people who are already working within sports organisations, might be one way of increasing the visibility of disabled people within sports organisations. In sum, disabled people must be an integral component of designing sport participation experiences, if leveraging of the Paralympic Games for increased sport participation is to occur.

7.5.2 Recommendations for stakeholders involved in the sport participation legacy process

Having reflected on the lessons that can be learned from the LPG sport participation legacy, this section will provide recommendations for the different stakeholders in the sport participation legacy process. Naturally, the ambitions of hosts may be constrained by budgetary limitations, but the following recommendations represent the 'ideal' of what each stakeholder should strive to achieve.

7.5.2.1 Government

7.5.2.1.1 Don't host the Olympic and Paralympic Games if the primary objective is to increase the number of disabled people participating in sport

This research found the LPG to be an ineffective mechanism for increasing the number of disabled people participating in sport. This is a finding supported by a number of other studies investigating the link between MSEs and sport participation (Weed et al. 2015). Countries should not, therefore, host the Paralympic Games with the primary aim of increasing the number of disabled people participating in sport, because this is an unrealistic demand of the event. The Paralympic Games may spur some disabled people to participate more frequently in sport or to take up sport, but this will only be the case for a minority. Most inactive disabled people's long-term sport participation will not be directly affected by the hosting of the Olympic and

Paralympic Games. What the Paralympic Games can support more effectively is an increased awareness of sport participation opportunities for disabled people, and an appreciation amongst some disabled people that sport participation can be a realistic leisure activity. The communication and awareness of sport participation benefits from the Paralympic Games can be supported further if pride in the host nation's Paralympic performance can be engendered through medal success at the event. It is therefore important for governments to communicate realistic ambitions of what the Paralympic Games can achieve for sports participation, and to not fall into the trap of peddling populist promises that are likely unattainable. The Olympic and Paralympic Games is not a panacea for low sport participation rates, and this should be recognised by governments when deciding whether to invest the considerable public finance required to host the Olympic and Paralympic Games. Much cheaper alternatives are likely to be as, if not more, effective, as the Olympic and Paralympic Games is likely to be for disabled people's grassroots sport participation (Weed 2016).

7.5.2.1.2 Government should be responsible for setting the over-arching leveraging agenda for sport participation from the Olympic and Paralympic Games

A clear, targeted leveraging strategy for sport participation from hosting the Paralympic Games is essential. Leveraging has been shown to be the most effective way of deriving sport participation benefits from the hosting of a MSE, rather than just relying on the event to increase sport participation (Chalip et al. 2017; Misener et al. 2015; Weed et al. 2015). Leveraging is difficult and requires the input of key stakeholders involved in the sport participation legacy process (Brown and Pappous 2018a; Chalip et al. 2017). Thus, with the power and funding available to government, the government is well-placed to lead on the formulation of the leveraging strategy. This does not mean, however, that policy should be dictated to various stakeholders without input, as a top-down policy approach can alienate important actors in the policy network, reducing the likelihood of successful implementation (Matland 1995). Consultation with, and input from, the various stakeholders is needed to ensure participation and ownership in the leveraging strategy can be felt by the different stakeholders. Engagement with stakeholders in the planning process, and by providing responsibility for aspects of the leveraging strategy, is likely to yield better implementation of the leveraging strategy (Hjern 1982; Lipsky 1980). Co-production of the leveraging strategy is preferable compared to top-down policy. Stakeholders should be allocated clear roles and responsibilities, and a leveraging steering committee, with representation from stakeholders involved in the leveraging process, should be established (Brown and Pappous 2018a; Chalip et al. 2017). Common leveraging goals need to be agreed amongst the stakeholders to ensure the various parties are on the same page and work harmoniously.

7.5.2.1.3 Provide funding programmes for grassroots sport and elite sport

For the LPG, Sport England and UK Sport were in receipt of funding from the government to support their activities. For Sport England, this consisted of lottery funding for grassroots sport participation work. Sport England apportioned a large share of this funding to NGBs based on the NGB's whole sport plan for their sport. For UK Sport, government funding was allocated to sports to support athlete development and to achieve elite success on the world stage. UK Sport funding was based on strict performance criteria, with sports meeting or exceeding their performance targets financially rewarded. Sports that missed their performance targets were unlikely to receive the same level of funding, if funding was provided at all to the sport. The UK

Sport funding model attracted criticism for the loss of funding for certain well-participated sports (Ziegler 2018), but UK Sport's hard-line approach was seen to be an important factor in Great Britain's improved standings in Olympic and Paralympic medal tables (Ahmed 2016). Success at the elite level can increase the media coverage a sport and the Paralympian receives, furthering the opportunity for increasing awareness of sport participation for disabled people. Furthermore, host nation success can engender a 'feel-good factor' amongst the population (Weed et al. 2009), which can help generate elevated levels of demand for sport participation. This was the case with the LPG, and success by Great Britain's Paralympians played an important role in this. Governments should, therefore, aim to replicate a similar model to that used by UK Sport. This requires funding and support from government for the central sport organisation responsible for elite sport.

For the grassroots domain, funding is needed to support the central sports organisation build a strong foundation for disability sport. Investment is needed to increase the capability of mainstream sports organisations providing sport participation opportunities for disabled people, to ensure specialist sports equipment for disabled people are available, to develop strong club networks throughout the country, and to increase the number of skilled workforce at clubs and national governing bodies. This requires a number of years to achieve in order for the infrastructure to be in place before the Paralympic Games, therefore regular funding will need to be provided.

In order for the grassroots and elite facets of sport to be operating at maximum effectiveness, government will need to assign a budget for their investment programme at the earliest opportunity. This will enable developmental work to occur and to ensure the system has been up and running by the time the Paralympic Games is hosted. Ideally, the funding programme should be decided whilst the leveraging strategy is being planned.

7.5.2.1.4 Avoid overusing the word 'legacy'

Legacy has been overused by practitioners and scholars to the point that there is an absence of a common understanding of what legacy actually means (Gammon 2015). The distortion of legacy's meaning has meant that legacy can now mean different things to different stakeholders. This can hamper the ability of different parties working together towards a common goal for increased sport participation. For the LPG, legacy became a buzzword devoid of meaning. The term was used frequently, but the concept remained abstract and difficult to measure. Legacy's contested meaning, and the different beliefs of what it should be for sport participation, leads to confused and ineffective action from stakeholders. In addition, overuse of legacy and grand promises that this term implies, increases the media scrutiny, which can lead to knee-jerk decisions that do little to further long-term behaviour change. Legacy implies a transformative change that the Paralympics, on its own, can't attain. Hosts should instead focus on the impacts the Paralympic Games can provide for sport participation or, if longer-term changes are being discussed, focus on aspirations (Gammon 2015). Indeed, it may be more fruitful to avoid using legacy at all (Gammon 2015), as this would limit the potential for unrealistic and unattainable narratives from taking hold. It is unlikely legacy will be abandoned by the IOC and IPC, especially in the short-term. Indeed, it is likely the IOC and IPC, short of receptive bidders for the Olympic and Paralympic Games (Ludacer 2018), will look to champion legacy and its mythopoeic qualities, in order to encourage sceptical cities to bid for the Games. Notwithstanding the IOC and IPC's penchant for focusing on legacy, host governments would be wise to be cautious in

their use of legacy for the Paralympic Games. Ultimately, overuse of legacy may prove more of a hindrance than help in attempts to increase sport participation.

7.5.2.1.5 Support sports organisations to get their 'house in order'

This research found many NGBs lacking in an inclusive culture, and NDSOs with poor governance structures. NGBs, as custodians of their sport, will play an important role in grassroots sport participation, therefore the culture of the NGB needs to be inclusive and reflect the diverse nature of the population. Most NGBs in England have been found wanting in this regard, not just from this research, but in other studies too (Brown and Pappous 2018a; Kitchin and Howe 2014; Thomas and Smith 2009). Improving the inclusive culture of an organisation can take time, and governments should support sports organisations, such as NGBs, to embed inclusive practices throughout the organisation. To support the programme of culture change, funding is likely to be required to enable firm foundations for inclusion to take root at NGBs and other sports organisations. It's important that changes made by sports organisations are not tokenistic (Kitchin and Howe 2014). To guard against this threat, a governance audit may need to be conducted to ensure organisations comply with the changes required for organisations to be inclusive. To enact a lasting change in the culture of sports organisations, it is suggested the status of the official national governing body for the sport is linked to agreed standards for inclusion. In addition, linking the receipt of government funding to the attainment of agreed inclusion standards is encouraged too. These suggestions may appear radical, but radical action is required if ingrained ableist practices are to be reversed. The evidence from this research suggests it's unlikely NGBs and sports organisations will meet the necessary inclusion standards on their own accord, thus radical measures are needed. The set of agreed standards should be in concert with the government's wider strategy and policy for disability and inclusion. The agreed standards should be agreed with sports organisations on an individual basis, taking into account the current practices and resources of each organisation, enabling the standards to be 'fair' per organisation. To increase the inclusivity of NGBs and relevant sports organisations, funding is likely to be required for workforce development; education of coaches and officials in how to be more inclusive; incentives linked to the proportion of disabled people employed at the organisation, but particularly at senior management and Board level; and purchase of specialist sports equipment for disabled people.

For disability-specific sports organisations like NDSOs, the evidence from this research suggests the governance structures of these organisations may be sub-optimal. This is unsurprising as most of the NDSOs were voluntary-led organisations before the LPG (Brown and Pappous 2018b). NDSOs play a vital role in disabled people's sport participation, thus the NDSOs need to be equipped to support mainstream sports organisations, such as NGBs. Government can strengthen the governance of NDSOs and equivalent organisations by providing a funding pot dedicated to initiatives that increase the governance and transparency of the organisation. It is recommended this funding pot should only be made available if NDSOs can demonstrate how the money will strengthen their governance. As with the NGBs, the funding should be contingent on agreed standards being met and demonstrable progress. If NDSOs fall below the required standard, funding should be withheld until the organisation can demonstrate how their governance will be improved. Governance should be organised into a three-tiered system, with the highest governance standards awarded a gold standard, the next level a silver standard, with the lowest acceptable governance considered a bronze standard. The governance of organisations should be vetted against the gold, silver, or bronze standards, with the possible

outcomes for NDSOs being a maintenance, promotion, or demotion of their governance award. Improved governance for NDSOs and equivalent organisations provides the foundation for these organisations to effectively support NGBs and other organisations increase disabled people's sport participation

7.5.2.1.6 Investment in social programmes that increase disabled people's participation in society

Systemic and social barriers were found to be more prohibitive to sport participation for non-active disabled people than constraints linked to the LPG. Tackling systemic and social barriers is likely to be more effective at increasing disabled people's sport participation than the hosting of the Olympic and Paralympic Games. Increasing the inclusivity of society is a long-term challenge, but the awareness of disability generated by the Paralympic Games can help. To ensure the maximum benefit of the Paralympic Games can be reaped for improving the inclusivity of society, governments should look to invest in programmes that improve social attitudes towards disabled people and increase the number of disabled people employed in industry. Improved social attitudes towards disabled people, and an enhanced understanding of what disability is and how it manifests itself, will increase the confidence of disabled people to be more active in society. Furthermore, it's likely more opportunities for disabled people will be available if society is more inclusively-minded. Increased numbers of employed disabled people will further support efforts to improve social attitudes by exposing non-disabled people to disabled people and their capabilities. This may help insulate some non-disabled people from negative characterisations of disabled people pedalled by media outlets. Moreover, increased numbers of employed disabled people will increase disabled people's disposable income, which may make sport participation more affordable for some disabled people. It is doubtful sustainable sport participation is possible without removing systemic and social barriers, thus, for the Paralympic Games to be most effective, this should be a priority for government.

7.5.2.1.7 Improve the accessibility of transport and to sporting venues and stadiums

Due to limited number of clubs accessible to disabled people in comparison with non-disabled people, VSCs may be geographically further apart from one another. Travel to other VSCs is thus more logistically challenging and costly for disabled people participating in most mainstream sports. Inaccessible transport compounds this issue and can be a significant deterrent to commitment to sport participation for some disabled people. Increasing the accessibility of transport will therefore increase the transport available to disabled people, limiting the impact of this barrier to sport participation. Reducing the number of transport options that are inaccessible will be costly in the short-term, but may yield a positive economic benefit thereafter. Reduced inaccessible transport will mean more disabled people can commute to work, boosting the economy in terms of productivity and tax contributions.

It is also important for governments to improve the accessibility to sports venues and stadiums for disabled people. Attending sport events may help to increase an individual's interest in sport (Ramchandani et al. 2015) which, in turn, may increase one's commitment to participate in sport. Improvements in transport accessibility would make disabled people's attendance at sporting events easier.

7.5.2.2 Disabled People's Organisations

7.5.2.2.1 Increase working relationships with sports sector at earliest opportunity

DPOs act as the voice of the disabled people they represent. DPOs therefore offer considerable value to sports organisations in their ability to increase understanding of disability and access to new networks of disabled people. As such, DPOs should foster closer working relationships with the sports sector in order to facilitate more opportunities for their members to participate in local sport participation opportunities. It is doubtful the sports sector, on its own, is able to provide suitable sport participation for the most disadvantaged of disabled people. DPOs can help by informing the sports sector of the best approaches to marketing, nature of sport participation opportunity, and communication for their members. Cross-sector working is vital to a positive sports participation legacy, and DPOs have an integral role to play.

7.5.2.2.2 Communication and promotion of local sport participation opportunities

Members of DPOs may not be aware of where to look for sport participation opportunities, therefore DPOs should signpost disabled people to relevant local sport participation opportunities. This could be in the form of an online directory of sport participation opportunities (please see section 7.5.2.5.1 for more details), or key contacts for local sports. DPOs can also, where applicable, support marketing campaigns by sports organisations for programmes focused on disabled people. This can be done by hosting the marketing content on their website, or by directing interested individuals to the sports organisation's website or key contact information.

7.5.2.2.3 Lobby stakeholders to ensure disabled people's views and interests are considered

It is not a given that organisations will be inclusive and dedicate the appropriate amount of effort and resource for disabled people's sport participation. DPOs should consistently lobby stakeholders of the need to provide suitable sport participation for disabled people. This may be heightened in the earlier stages of the legacy process when other stakeholders may be less receptive to inclusion. Once the seeds of commitment to inclusion have been sown, DPOs will need to lobby stakeholders to ensure momentum for inclusion is maintained. DPOs, with their infrastructure and representation of disabled people, seem the best organisation type to lobby other stakeholders on the need to be inclusive.

7.5.2.2.4 Marketing campaigns to increase awareness of disability and barriers to involvement in society

DPOs can increase awareness of disability and barriers preventing disabled people from full participation in society through marketing campaigns. Increasing the public's understanding of disability, and the social restrictions placed upon disabled people, may make the social environment easier for disabled people to participate in. In addition, non-disabled individuals may embark on critical reflection of their own views and strive to be more inclusive, which may lead to increased opportunities for disabled people at a micro-level. An improved social environment for disabled people could mean more sport participation opportunities for disabled people are forthcoming.

7.5.2.3 Mainstream sport-specific organisations

7.5.2.3.1 Ensure an inclusive culture is present throughout the organisation

Mainstream sports organisation, such as NGBs, are unlikely to be able to meaningfully increase the participation of disabled people in their sport without a commitment to being inclusive. Most NGBs lacked an inclusive culture, hindering efforts to increase disabled people's sport participation. NGBs were not able to offer participation programmes that matched the wants and needs of disabled people, or to understand the particular challenges faced by disabled people accessing sport. Notwithstanding doubts surrounding the NGB's capability of increasing the sport participation of inactive individuals (Collins 2010), the customs and practices of most NGBs were geared towards non-disabled individuals. A lack of inclusive culture led to limited understanding of disability and how to offer sport participation opportunities commensurate with disabled people's expectations and requirements. Placing disability at the forefront of the organisation's thinking and approach will help begin a process to make these entities more inclusive. This requires an in-depth review is undertaken of the governance structures, employment, strategy, policies, attitudes, and culture of the organisation, in order to understand where these areas need to be made more inclusive. An independent body should determine standards of inclusion that mainstream sport organisations need to work towards. A lack of inclusive culture is, in the author's opinion, the biggest barrier to mainstream sports organisations increasing the participation of disabled people in their sport. Without inclusion at the heart of the organisation, efforts to increase sport participation are likely to be short-term and temporary, if they are effective at all. Adopting an inclusive culture must be the number one priority for mainstream sports organisations, and this needs to occur at the earliest opportunity. All of the other recommendations included in this section are predicated on an organisation being inclusive.

7.5.2.3.2 Increase the number of disabled people at the organisation, particularly in senior management

This recommendation has been referred to in section 7.5.1.10, and its importance should now be self-evident.

7.5.2.3.3 Work with disability-specific sport organisations and DPOs to ensure pathways and networks are established with local organisations that offer sport participation opportunities for disabled people

Mainstream sports organisations are not able to secure a positive grassroots sport participation for disabled people on their own. Mainstream sports organisations will likely lack a sensitivity to disabled people's sport participation requirements, as well as possessing an ill-equipped understanding of disability. To compensate for the deficit in these areas, NGBs and equivalent organisations should foster closer working relationships with disability-specific sports organisations and DPOs. Disability-specific sports organisations should have the requisite expertise and understanding of prevalent requirements and challenges for disabled people, perhaps at an impairment-level. DPOs, on the other hand, will have expertise in their specific disability focus as well as the capability to provide new audiences for mainstream sports organisations. Both the disability-specific sports organisations and DPOs will have untapped audiences for the mainstream sports organisation. Both organisations are likely to have more sophisticated means of communicating with disabled people than the mainstream sports

organisation possesses on its own. To increase disabled people's sport participation from the hosting of the Paralympic Games, it is strongly recommended mainstream sports organisations establish close working relationships with disability-specific sport organisations and DPOs.

7.5.2.3.4 Focus on the daily sport participation offering for disabled people

The findings of this research confirm the pre-eminent importance of the daily sport participation service offering compared to the Paralympic Games itself. If the day-to-day sport participation experience is sub-standard, repeat participation is unlikely and may push an individual further back in their behaviour change. The quality of the Paralympic Games will not override poor participation experiences. It is therefore essential that local VSCs and participation opportunities meet a minimum level of service quality, if more disabled people to participate in sport. The quality of the Paralympic Games and accompanying goodwill will be forgotten if sport participation environments are below expectations.

7.5.2.3.5 Make the sport inclusive and open to all disabled people

Sports that were successful in increasing the number of disabled people participating in their sport after the LPG did not limit their options by focusing only on disabled people that met the Paralympic eligibility criteria. Wheelchair basketball, for example, is available to both disabled and non-disabled people, exposing the sport to an audience far greater than would be possible if the sport was for disabled people only. Sports that are inclusive and open to a wide-range of impairment-types increases the pool of disabled people who might be interested in taking up the sport. Being inclusive enables sports to be more attractive to partners marketing sport participation to disabled people, because the market is bigger and is more likely to yield a positive return for sport participation. It is very difficult to get regular activity going in areas of the country for sports that are only available to Paralympic impairment categories, as the market is likely to be too small. Being inclusive may also increase the number of 'champions' a sport has that can spread positive word-of-mouth, which may in turn lead to more people becoming aware of the sport or new VSCs being established. There is very little, if any, downsides to a sport being inclusive, rather than focused on a narrow customer base.

7.5.2.3.6 Allocate a specific budget for leveraging

Leveraging is needed if the Olympic and Paralympic Games are to yield positive returns for sport participation (Chalip et al. 2017; Weed et al. 2015). Due to the importance of leveraging, it is recommended a dedicated budget is allocated for leveraging activities, as called for by Smith (2014). This will help focus leveraging efforts to be targeted and effective. The danger of not having a budget for leveraging is that leveraging gets side-lined by other activities deemed to be more important, resulting in opportunities from the Olympic and Paralympic Games being squandered. This will be harder to occur if a dedicated budget is in place to focus the minds of senior management on the task ahead.

7.5.2.3.7 Establish grassroots steering groups

Creating a steering group focused on disabled people's grassroots sport participation will enable best practice between members to be shared, as well as to act as a forum for important issues to be discussed. The steering group should meet regularly, perhaps monthly, and include

representatives from various stakeholders involved in the sport participation legacy process. This will include representatives from stakeholders such as disability and mainstream VSCs, disability-specific sport organisations, the NGB, DPOs, and central sports organisations. It is recommended that a network of steering groups be created within local areas of the country, as well as having one national steering group. The local steering groups should attempt to be representative of the local picture for the sport. By having a local steering group, tangible change can be achieved by gaining a granularity for sport participation issues that might be difficult to achieve if just a national steering group existed. The national steering group should have representation from the east, south, north, and west of country for the sport, where possible, so that each local area is able to share their input and feel invested in the process. The steering group members should be democratically nominated and elected, serving an agreed maximum term. Minutes, outcomes, and progress from the meetings should be made available to all of the stakeholders represented at the steering groups. Steering groups will provide benefit to the NGB by enabling it to understand challenges pertinent to its customer base and partners. This will include: generation of ideas and resources for increasing disabled people's sport participation; commitment from stakeholders to the NGB's sport participation strategy through their involvement in the steering groups; increased insight and data to make informed and effective business decisions for sport participation; and access to previously untapped or underexplored networks.

7.5.2.3.8 Develop the workforce of VSCs and at the mainstream sports organisation

An inadequate workforce will render many of the sport participation initiatives impotent. Workforce, in this instance, refers to the coaches, officials, umpires, and volunteers at VSCs. A lack of skilled and educated workforce at the VSCs was one of the reasons for the momentum generated by the LPG failing to be maximised by NGBs and VSCs. Heightened awareness of sport participation opportunities and demand to participate in sport led to VSCs and NGBs being overwhelmed and unable to cope. Individuals that are not predisposed to being 'sporty' may have fragile and temporal enthusiasm for sport, therefore are susceptible to reverting back to old inactive habits if confronted with challenges or barriers to sport participation. NGBs should invest in increasing the number of skilled workforce at their VSCs before the hosting of the Paralympic Games. Ensuring there is an upskilled and increased amount of workforce at the VSCs will enable the VSCs to ride the wave of the enthusiasm for sport participation generated by the Paralympic Games. It is also important for NGBs to develop their own workforces' understanding and ability to cater for disabled people's sport participation requirements. This will help ensure the service quality offered by the NGB is kept at a high standard, and may help to encourage individuals contemplating participation in sport to convert their interest into actual participation.

7.5.2.3.9 Encourage VSCs to become participants in policy formulation and implementation

VSCs are important agents in the grassroots sport participation network (May, Harris and Collins 2013). Despite this, many VSCs are unwilling to implement sport policy because sport policy is often not consistent with the interests of the VSC (Harris, Mori and Collins 2009; May, Harris and Collins 2013). Encouraging VSCs to help shape the sport participation policy of a sport, and to be an active participant, may increase the desire of VSCs to implement the policy at the grassroots level. This is because the VSCs will be more invested in the outcomes of the policy having played a role in its content and substance. It may not be easy for NGBs to increase the enthusiasm

amongst VSCs to co-create policy, but attempts should be made to make this possible. Notwithstanding the difficulties in motivating VSCs to be involved in policy creation and implementation, many VSCs often lack the skills and resources required for effective policy implementation (May, Harris and Collins 2013). This is particularly apparent for small and moderately-sized VSCs (May, Harris and Collins 2013). This issue can be eased through the development of an effective VSC workforce (please see section 7.5.2.3.8 for more information).

7.5.2.3.10 Increase the supply of specialist sports equipment at VSCs

The Get Equipped fund was thought to have helped some VSCs to get suitable sports equipment for disabled people, but the fund was time-limited. Investment in specialist sports equipment for disabled people is important and can help VSCs. Access to appropriate equipment increases the opportunity for disabled people to participate in sport. Indeed, findings from study 3 revealed the expense and availability of specialist equipment to be a prominent barrier to non-active disabled people participating in sport. It's therefore recommended that NGBs offer a similar scheme to the Get Equipped fund, with VSCs able to bid for funding to be used for specialist sports equipment for disabled people. It is unlikely the finances of the NGB are such that this fund is able to be sustained for a long period of time, but NGBs should aim to offer this funding for as long as financially viable. This is particularly important for sports with specialist sport equipment requirements, or sports that are equipment-intensive.

7.5.2.3.11 Develop a satellite club network for disabled CYP

The satellite club model can make it easier for disabled CYP who do not want to join a VSC to participate in sport to increase their sport participation, and then potentially join a VSC in the future. The satellite club is run by a VSC registered with the NGB (known as the hub club) in a different venue to the VSC's primary location, most frequently at a local school or college (Sport England n.d.). This enables easier and more convenient access to the club for the individual, increasing the likelihood of their participation in sport. Satellite clubs can therefore be the first stepping stone for organised sport participation for some disabled CYP. Mainstream sports organisations should look to support and incentivise VSCs to act as hub clubs and to establish satellite clubs. Ideally, NGBs should aim to have a satellite club network across the country. If this is not possible with the available resources, it is recommended the NGB strategically focuses resources on specific local areas that are most likely to benefit from the satellite club model. For the satellite club model to work, the skills and resources of the hub VSC need to be of a high standard. Satellite club guides, such as the one produced by Sport England (Sport England n.d.) should be created for VSCs to help in the formation of the satellite clubs. An online resource enabling sharing of best practice and troubleshooting of problems with satellite clubs should be established by the NGB, helping the hub VSC to increase their skills and autonomy.

7.5.2.3.12 Differentiated marketing campaigns and sport participation programmes are required for different consumer segments

Disability is a term often used to label people with an impairment but, apart from the presence of an impairment, there may be few shared characteristics with other disabled people. 'Disabled people', therefore, do not have a common identity (Watson 2002). Thus, promotion of sport participation opportunities and campaigns to attract new customers need to be tailored to fit the desired customer base. This means marketing should be consumer, rather

than product, led. This is not a new or radical concept, but it bears repeating. This research found few examples of differentiated marketing campaigns for different consumer profiles. Disabled people, like non-disabled people, will respond to different stimuli depending on the service offer and marketing used. Sport participation programmes should therefore be tailored to different disability consumer segments. Thus, some disabled people may be receptive to programmes that accentuate the competitive element of sport, whereas others may be deterred by this approach. On the other hand, peer role-model schemes such as 'This Girl Can' may be more effective for inactive individuals than people who already participate in sport. Mainstream sports organisations therefore need to have products and marketing campaigns that fit the variety that exists in their consumer base. A one-size fits all approach to marketing and programme development will not cut it, and will prove to be ineffective.

7.5.2.4 Disability-specific sports organisations

7.5.2.4.1 Produce insight and research about sport participation for specific impairment types

Disability-specific sports organisations have expertise of disability sport that a mainstream sports organisation is likely to lack. The value disability-specific sports organisation can bring to a sport participation legacy is therefore important. The most telling contribution this organisation type can provide is to be a hub of knowledge and insight for disability sport. NDSOs' main role for NGBs is to provide insight and knowledge to partners to help facilitate sport participation. Like the NDSOs, the resources of a disability-specific sports organisation are unlikely to be equivalent to a mainstream sports organisation, therefore finite resources should focus on accentuating its strength and minimising the weaknesses of its sport partners. This is knowledge of disabled people's sport participation. The mainstream sports organisation is likely to have the infrastructure to facilitate national participation, therefore by working together, the disability-specific sports organisation and the mainstream sports organisation can combine their strengths to come to a greater sum than their parts would warrant if used in isolation.

7.5.2.4.2 Work closely with DPOs and mainstream sports organisations

As discussed in section 7.5.2.2.1, partnering with other organisational types will likely yield a greater return for sport participation than the disability-specific sports organisation can achieve on its own. In addition to working with mainstream sports organisations, it's recommended disability-specific sports organisations foster close working relationships with DPOs, too. DPOs may be able to provide access to new markets for the disability-specific sports organisation, as well as aiding knowledge and understanding of current issues preventing disabled people from participating in sport. Furthermore, working with DPOs will enable disability-specific sports organisations to have greater power and advocacy in their dealings with mainstream sports organisations. This is important if tangible progress at the grassroots level is to be made, as the cooperation of mainstream sports organisations is likely to be required. The lack of commitment from some NGBs to disability sport participation created tensions between some NDSOs, hindering the LPG sport participation legacy efforts. Disability-specific sports organisations in future host cities would be wise to heed this lesson and work closely with mainstream sports organisations, as well as DPOs.

7.5.2.4.3 Lobby mainstream sports organisations to ensure commitment to being an inclusive organisation stays on track

Some mainstream sports organisations may not be invested in their commitments to disability sport as much as they should. Disability-specific sports organisations, therefore, have an important role to play in lobbying mainstream sports organisations to ensure they are adequately focusing on disability. Changing the culture of mainstream sports organisations, which may have neglected grassroots disability participation for most of their history, will not be easy; disability-specific sports organisations may need to apply consistent pressure to ensure disability is kept in focus. Without regular lobbying, mainstream sports organisations without inclusion embedded in the organisation may side-line disability, reverting to old-habits of focusing on non-disabled sport. This must not be allowed to happen if a positive sport participation legacy is to be achieved.

7.5.2.5 Central sports organisations

7.5.2.5.1 Host and manage an online directory of sport participation opportunities

Availability of suitable sport participation opportunities was a significant barrier to non-active disabled people participating in sport. This can stem from a lack of information about the sport participation opportunities, but also where to search for them in the first place. Hosting and managing a directory that is a central source of information for local sport participation opportunities for disabled people will help with this. It true that the Parasport website provided information about VSCs for different sports and impairments, but an unawareness of this platform and doubts over the data quality may have limited the effectiveness of Parasport. The directory will therefore need to be promoted effectively so that disabled people are aware of the resource, but also in the communication channels used by disabled people. This will mean working with partners to establish where disabled people are likely to access marketing about the directory. For example, DPOs may be able to use their own networks for marketing to target inactive disabled people. The directory should have a granularity to it and be searchable by impairment type; sport; participation level (beginner, intermediate, advanced); whether a cost is involved; and geography. It's important the content is kept up-to-date and the data quality high, in order to ensure the directory is seen as the definitive resource for the latest participation opportunities for disabled people. To ensure the directory is live, a central database can be used to house all of the sport participation opportunities provided by organisations and individuals. Each provider of the opportunity would upload a file with the details of the sport participation opportunity to a folder on a file-sharing website. The file can then be taken from the folder and uploaded to the database based on an automated basis and at agreed time intervals. An interface between the database and the platform used to host the directory can then update the directory to reflect the information contained in the database. Information should be provided about the nature of the sport participation opportunity, with contact information, maps, videos, and relevant links provided, if applicable. By having a central resource containing local sport participation opportunities, this will help address barriers regarding information and access to sport participation. The confidence of the individual to participate in the opportunity may be increased because of the information and ease of access enabled by the online directory.

7.5.2.5.2 Provide a dedicated leveraging fund that organisations can apply to

The central sports organisation responsible for grassroots sport participation should aim to provide a leveraging fund for organisations to apply to. Sport England provided the Inclusive Sport Fund after the LPG, which enabled organisations to submit applications for funding to support legacy projects that aimed to increase disabled people's sport participation. The leveraging fund called for here would act in a similar manner, but be available before the Paralympic Games as well as after the event. Organisations would have to demonstrate how the funding assists the leveraging of the Paralympic Games for increasing disabled people's sport participation. Leveraging is vital to the chances of a successful sport participation legacy; therefore, this fund would be an important resource.

7.5.2.5.3 Allocate and award funding for mainstream and disability-specific sports organisations

Central sports organisations in receipt of government funding should provide programmes of funding to mainstream and disability-specific sports organisations for their grassroots sport participation work. This funding should be in a similar format to Sport England's whole sport plans, but not be limited to NGBs and NDSOs. Other organisations that are either a mainstream or disability-specific organisation should be eligible for funding, as long as a strategy for how the funding will benefit grassroots sport participation of disabled people is provided.

7.5.2.5.4 Offer funding to mainstream sports organisations to purchase specialist sports equipment for disabled people

The importance of specialist sports equipment for disabled people has been discussed in section 7.5.2.3.10. To support mainstream sports organisations that offer funding for specialist equipment, funding or discounts could be provided to enable purchase of stock. The funding or discounts offered by the central sports organisation would be time-limited to avoid being too cost-prohibitive, but this would allow mainstream sports organisations to increase their stock free or at discounted rates for a period of time.

7.5.2.5.5 Conduct audits on the progress of the sport participation legacy strategy

Central sports organisations should ensure there are scheduled audits of the progress made by stakeholders involved in the sport participation legacy. This review of progress will enable evaluations of the overall strategy to be made, and to enable decisions about resource allocation to be better informed. It is important the overall strategy for the sport participation legacy is measurable, as this will enable the central sports organisation to assign necessary resources if certain aspects of the strategy stakeholders require additional support or strengthening.

7.5.2.5.6 Be a central hub of information and insight for disabled people's sport participation

It is recommended the organisation aims to become a central hub of knowledge and insight about disabled people's sport participation. Central sports organisations can produce and commission their own research, but also receive knowledge and insight accrued by other partners. The research and knowledge-base can then be held in an online, centralised library for stakeholders to utilise. Access to this resource would not be available to the general public; only

stakeholders that have a clear role in the sport participation legacy strategy. Hosting an online knowledge bank can ensure support and guidance is available whenever the stakeholder needs it, and provide a channel for the exchange of best practice between partners.

7.5.2.6 Media

7.5.2.6.1 Increased media coverage of elite disability sport events

Offering increased coverage of elite disability sport in the media, but particularly television, can play an important role in increasing disabled people's sport participation. Exposure to disability sport in the media helps to make sport for disabled people more 'mainstream' in the consciousness of the public, for both disabled and non-disabled people. This may help make disability sport more 'legitimate' in the eyes of some disabled and non-disabled people, as they are able to sample high-quality sport practised by disabled people. An increase in media coverage will also heighten the awareness of sport for disabled people, potentially increasing the interest from disabled people to participate in sport. More media coverage of elite disability sport may also help to sate interest in the Paralympic Games, making some disabled people more receptive to sport participation initiatives focused on the Paralympic Games.

7.5.2.6.2 Establish minimum reporting standards for disability

Language is important when reporting on disability and disability sport. It's important the media are aware of the preferred language for disability in their host country. The media should be vigilant to stereotypes, prejudice, and bias that creep into characterisations of disabled people in the media. For sport, focusing on an individual's impairment and how they've 'overcome' their disability to excel in sport, rather than the athlete's stellar sporting ability, is bad practice and should be discouraged (Pappous, Marcellini and de Léséleuc 2011b). It is also bad practice to portray Paralympic sport in passive and infantile narratives, which has often been the case in the past when compared to Olympic sport (Pappous, Marcellini and de Léséleuc 2011b). It is recommended minimum reporting standards for general disability sport and the Paralympic Games are established, which journalists and broadcasters should adhere to. This should be transparent and publicly available to provide a level of accountability for journalistic standards. Best practice guides can be produced for the media in a similar fashion to what occurred for the Rio 2016 Paralympic Games (Pappous and de Souza 2016). The minimum reporting standards should not be limited to home country athletes, but apply to all athletes, regardless of nationality (Bruce 2014).

7.5.2.6.3 Consult with disabled people and DPOs

It's important the media consult with disabled people and DPOs on important and topical issues for disabled people. Programmes and reports about disability issues should largely be driven by the experiences of disabled people themselves, rather than just being about disabled people from non-disabled perspectives. This extends to the terminology used in the media to describe disabled people. Not only will disabled people's input allow the media to reflect real-life experiences, but it will also provide insights into issues and topics that are relevant to disabled people. This might help in the development of content for disabled people that is engaging and able to have an impact on disabled people. The 'Meet the Superhumans' campaign by Channel

4 was largely praised by media experts (Campaign 2012), but attracted criticism from some disabled people for the extreme portrayal of disability it presented (Crow 2014). It is not possible to appease everyone, and what may work for one audience may not work for another, but consulting with disabled people will enable the media to be sensitive to the needs and issues of disabled people.

7.5.2.6.4 Commission programmes about disability

The more information about disability is in the public eye through the media, the more likely it is that non-disabled people will have an enhanced understanding of disability. If more programmes about disability are broadcast on television, radio, theatre, and other media forms, the easier this task will be. In the United Kingdom, Channel 4 has increased the number of programmes about disability and the number of disabled actors appearing in shows broadcast on their network (Rawcliffe, Bhagwat and El-Bergamy 2016). Sport does not need to be the sole domain for disability to be the focus of programmes; far from it. Instead, disability should be represented in many media categories, including, but not limited to, news; investigative; sport; comedy; drama; documentary; and reality programmes. Increased exposure to disability will help non-disabled people to form positive attitudes of disabled people which, in turn, may help sports organisations to become more inclusive and welcoming, and more sport participation opportunities to be forthcoming. Furthermore, an increased presence of disability in the media enables more disabled role-models in different spheres of society to emerge, potentially emboldening disabled people to challenge providers that are not supplying sport participation provision commensurate to disabled people's needs. In addition, disabled role-models may increase the confidence of disabled people to want to increase their involvement in society, which could be through increased participation in sport.

7.5.2.6.5 More disabled people in acting, director, and writing positions

For the same reasons as section 7.5.2.6.4, exposure to disability in the media should help improve social attitudes towards disabled people. Increasing the representation of disabled people in acting, directorship, and writing positions, will help. This will also add authenticity to programmes that discuss disability issues, particularly if the content has been written by disabled people. This may increase the ability of some disabled people to identify with content discussed in the programme, and to be more receptive to any role-model figures featured in the programmes.

7.5.2.7 Event organisers

7.5.2.7.1 Link sport participation initiatives to publicity events

Event organisers will be focused on the demands of hosting the Olympic and Paralympic Games, therefore the burden of a positive sport participation legacy will likely be less pressing than for other stakeholders. This does not mean, however, that the organising committee for the Olympic and Paralympic Games will have no operational involvement in leveraging activities. Publicity events for the Olympic and Paralympic Games are a good opportunity for wider sport participation initiatives to be incorporated into the event. This will help to reinforce the importance of increased sport participation following the hosting of the Games, as well as keep

the sport participation strategy at the forefront of the public’s consciousness. It will also help to make the whole process of delivering the Games and a sport participation legacy be connected with each other, organisationally, as well as symbolically.

7.5.2.7.2 Establish a legacy steering committee

A legacy steering committee should be established so that event organisers, sports organisations, and non-sport organisations are represented (Brown and Pappous 2018a; Chalip et al. 2017). A legacy committee that draws together the stakeholders referenced in section 7.5.2 will help champion the importance of legacy for event organisers, and to ensure minimum event standards are met for disabled people and the sport participation strategy. The legacy committee enables the sport participation strategy to be kept at the forefront of marketing and planning initiatives carried out by the event organisers, helping to ensure legacy is integrated in all facets of the Olympic and Paralympic Games organisation.

7.6 Consolidated CMOCs and refined programme theory for the sport participation legacies from the Paralympic Games

This section presents the consolidated CMOCs that have been generated as a result of this research. This section also provides an updated programme theory for using the Paralympic Games for increased sport participation of disabled people. Table 33 provides an overview of the CMOCs for the LPG grassroots sport participation legacy.

Table 33: Consolidated CMOCs for the LPG grassroots sport participation legacy for disabled people in England.

Context	+ Mechanism	= Outcome
Current active sport participants	Success of home nation Paralympians resonates with the individual’s self-efficacy, inspiring a desire to emulate the achievements of Paralympians	Desire to participate in sport at a higher level
Organisations leveraging the demonstration effect from the LPG	Demand and excitement for the LPG has been built, priming the individual to respond to the stimulus provided by the LPG	Increased participation frequency
Inactive or less active disabled adults	Images of successful Paralympians prompts reflection of sport participation, prompting a contemplation of how one might eventually participate in sport	Sport participation viewed as a realistic option
Underdeveloped grassroots disability sport system	The success of home-nation Paralympians throws into sharp relief the underdeveloped structures and foundations of sport participation for disabled people. The Paralympic Games provides a catalytic effect for developing the system	Increased funding and policy focus on grassroots disability sport

Sports with a low profile amongst the general public prior to the Paralympic Games	Increased media coverage of sports featured at the Paralympic Games raises awareness of the sport amongst disabled people. Perception of sport being available to disabled people is increased	Increased profile of sport amongst disabled people
Individuals with impairments not included in the Paralympic Games	The focus of sports organisations on increasing the pool of talent available to the sport results in a lack of resources and knowledge for individuals not eligible for the Paralympic Games. The Paralympic Games demonstrates a limited range of disability, providing a false representation of the diversity inherent in disability	Paralympic Games has a limited effect on sport participation for individuals with impairments not included in the Paralympic Games.
Paralympic Games hosts that aim to increase sport participation	Disabled children and young people viewed as a better economic investment due to longevity compared to older adults prompts heightened policy and funding focus. Attempts to 'inspire a generation' are centred at this group, with the assumption from sports organisations and government that young people are more receptive to inspiration than adults	Increased quality and access to school sport and physical education for most disabled children and young people
Some non-disabled people without a personal connection to disability	Successful hosting of the Paralympic Games, and the media coverage of the excellence of Paralympians, prompts the individual to critically reflect on negative stereotypes towards disability	Some non-disabled people's attitudes of disabled people positively increase and may help lead to greater acceptance of disability in mainstream society
Some inactive disabled people inspired by the Paralympic Games to participate in sport	Reduced confidence as a result of a perceived competency gap between the Paralympian and the inactive individual	Initial enthusiasm for sport participation after the Paralympic Games is not sustained
Sports organisations without a history of providing for disabled people before the Paralympic Games	Culture of ableism results in disability being neglected or ignored within the structures of the organisation. This results in a lack of insight, knowledge, and understanding of disability	Unable to provide suitable sport participation opportunities for disabled people
Sports organisations with sport participation targets linked to funding	Organisations focus efforts on resources that can meet the funding targets, in order to ensure critical resources are secured.	Population groups not included in funding targets are neglected by sports organisations

Policy focus of sports organisations on children and young people	Sports providers' desire to maintain Sport England funding results in a narrow focus of resource allocation	A lack of suitable sport participation opportunities after the LPG for disabled adults aged 50 and over
Disabled people dependant or strongly reliant on benefit payments to sustain daily living	Austerity measures reduce the disposable income of disabled people, resulting in sport participation being viewed as a lower priority. Negative media coverage of disabled people as 'benefit scroungers' creates a fear of being seen to be active and that benefit payments will be reduced as a result	Reduced sport participation
VSCs from disability-specific sports	The platform provided by the LPG enables previously low-profile sports to be elevated in the consciousness of the public and enable the NGBs to promote available opportunities	Increased profile of the sport amongst disabled people
VSCs from mainstream sports that won medals at the LPG	Success of Paralympians provides inspiration and motivation for the individual.	Minor impact on participation of disabled people
VSCs from mainstream sports that did not win medals at the LPG	Absence of 'inspirational' stories in comparison to successful sports leads to a lack of media coverage and 'bounce' from the LPG	No impact on sport participation of disabled people
NGBs providing dedicated disability programmes compared to NGBs delivering inclusively	NGBs from mainstream sports are 'forced' to confront any shortfall in resources and understanding of disability. This results in the development of targeted and tailored participation programmes for disabled people	Experience less constraints to leveraging
Some non-active English disabled females from the south east and south west region	Active participation in sport is constrained by the pressures and challenges posed by short and long-term social and systemic structures that disable individuals from having full active participation in society	Social and systemic constraints to sport participation are more powerful than constraints caused by the Paralympic Games

The CMOCs provide the basis for a refined programme theory of the Paralympics Games sport participation to be formulated, which is provided below:

Hosting the Paralympic Games will not automatically stimulate increased sustainable sport participation for disabled people in the host country. Direct impacts on participation from the Paralympic Games are minor and concentrated on a narrow segment of the disability population. The Paralympic Games is most likely to resonate

with disabled children and young people, as well as disabled young adults, if organisations leverage inspiration and excitement of hosting the Paralympic Games before the event. The demonstration effect is enhanced if home-nation Paralympians are successful, but the effect is short-term. The effectiveness of the demonstration effect is likely to be felt amongst individuals predisposed to sport; it is unlikely to be able to change behaviours of individuals without an interest in sport. For disabled individuals who are not active or are far-removed from society, peer role-modelling schemes are likely to be of more motivational utility than the Paralympic Games.

The main benefit from the Paralympic Games for sport participation is the catalytic potential it provides for organisations to develop their sport participation offer for disabled people. The reality of the sport participation experience and access to opportunities is of more importance than inspiration provided by the Paralympic Games. The hosting of a Paralympic Games is more likely to increase the profile of the sport amongst disabled people rather than participant numbers. The Paralympic Games is not able to provide sustainable sport participation increases if multiple barriers exist in society. This is because social and systemic barriers are often deep-rooted and are more prominent in the intensity of their ability to constrain sport participation.

7.7 Reflection

During the course of this research I have developed as a person and a researcher. At the start of this process I lacked knowledge of disability issues. I had never critically appraised my views or knowledge of the lived experience of disability and how it can be understood. I had no prior connection to disability in either a personal or professional capacity. During this thesis I have transformed my understanding and knowledge of disability. I now understand the many barriers and discriminatory practices that constrain disabled people in society, as well as the different effects one's impairment can have on an individual's daily life. My conceptualisation of disability is now multi-faceted rather than being one-dimensional. The process of learning and critically evaluating a variety of disability theories has enriched my personal and professional experiences, enabling a more inclusive outlook to develop. The level of critical reflection of my own views and that of society concerning disability would not have been possible without this Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) degree experience and for that I am thankful and appreciative of the skills it has provided. It is also true that I had minimal knowledge of the Paralympic Games before embarking on this research. Prior to this research I did not appreciate the complex social and political factors involved in the development of the Paralympic Games as an event, and the positive and negative ramifications it can have for the disability community. I was previously unaware of the strong negative feelings that some disabled people hold towards the Paralympic Games, naively believing the Paralympic Games was an automatically accepted event within the disability community. I now have a greater appreciation of the history and development of the Paralympic Games, and the challenges faced by the IPC.

As an avid fan of sport, I subscribed to the mythopoeic view of sporting mega-events having the ability to inspire increased grassroots sport participation. Conducting this research has changed my view on the scope and ability of MSEs in being able to influence sport participation. I now understand that if hosts intend to use the hosting of a MSE to increase grassroots sport participation then this is likely to be ineffective on its own. The popular opinion pedalled by government ministers about the positive sport participation legacy from MSEs is now critically evaluated rather than assumed to be part of the mythopoeic appeal of MSEs.

The PhD process has increased my skills as a researcher. I have a greater understanding of methodological issues as well as an in-depth understanding of the MSE sport participation legacy field. My ability to collect and analyse a wide-range of data has been enriched as a result of this research, particularly my knowledge of statistical techniques. My critical analysis skills have developed through the co-writing of a book chapter focusing on a review of the Paralympic legacies. In addition, my academic writing skills have been enhanced by the writing of papers for publication and through the process of writing this thesis. I feel that I have become a better researcher as a result of my experiences and that I am equipped with the necessary skills to professionally work in academia.

7.8 Was the LPG a flash in the pan for sport participation?

There is no doubt that the hosting of the LPG was a great spectacle, but was it a great way of increasing sport participation? The answer to that question is no. Sport participation for disabled people in England has developed significantly since 2005, when London was confirmed as the host of the 2012 Paralympic Games. Despite the increased development and funding for disability sport since the LPG, disabled people's sport participation has been declining in the direction of the level recorded in 2005 (Active People Interactive 2017). It is a folly to think a two-week event is capable of prompting deep-rooted behaviour change. Future hosts would be wise to view the hosting of a Paralympic Games as only one component of a wider set of development initiatives required to increase disabled people's sport participation. The LPG on its own has not been able to achieve sustainable increases in participation. Despite this, it would be wrong to view the LPG sport participation legacy as a failure. The LPG has been a fundamental influence in the increased range of participation opportunities for disabled people. The change required amongst sports organisations to be fully inclusive will take a number of years, however. Thus, the assessments of the LPG sport participation legacy are time-sensitive. At this point in time the LPG sport participation legacy can be thought to have had limited success in increasing participation, but to have been positive in the development of the disability sport system. The development of the system, given time, may eventually enable sustainable sport participation to increase, but the English disability sport system is not at that point right now. If the system reaches that point, then the LPG can be viewed as a significant milestone in the journey towards increased sport participation of disabled people in England. Currently, the LPG grassroots sport participation legacy is unfulfilled and did not manage to increase, in any significant way, the sport participation of disabled people in England.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Interview guide for study 1

Interview guide

1. Please could you tell me a bit more about your role at [Name of organisation]?
2. How would you assess the planning of the grassroots sport participation legacy of the London 2012 Paralympic Games?
3. Could you provide detail, if applicable, about any planned participation programmes or initiatives of [Name of organisation] to do with the 2012 Paralympic Games, which were intended to increase grassroots sport participation in England?
4. How would you describe the impact of the 2012 Paralympic Games on grassroots sport participation for disabled people in England?
5. One of the main ideas behind using the Paralympics as a way of increasing sport participation was the inspirational impact of Paralympians. How would you assess the effectiveness of using inspirational Paralympians as a method for increasing participation amongst disabled people in England?
6. How would you evaluate the management and delivery of the grassroots sport participation legacy of the 2012 Paralympic Games for disabled people in England?
7. What role, if any, do you think the London 2012 Paralympic Games has had in the removal of barriers to sport participation for disabled people?
8. Are there any factors or contexts you feel have had an influence on the impact and management of the sport participation legacy of the 2012 Paralympic Games for disabled people England?
9. How would you evaluate your organisation's relationships with other stakeholders in providing grassroots sport participation opportunities for disabled people in England?
10. What are the main lessons to have been learned from the hosting of the 2012 Paralympic Games and its impact on grassroots sport participation for disabled people in England?
11. Ultimately, if you had to rank the impact of the London 2012 Paralympic Games and its impact on grassroots sport participation of disabled people, using a scale of 1-10, with 1 being no difference and 10 being a massively positive difference, how would you rank the 2012 Paralympic Games?

General organisation questions

12. How would you evaluate the performance of [Name of organisation] since Coalition government?
13. For the same time period, what have been the main challenges for [Name of organisation] as an organisation?
14. How would you assess the future of sport participation for disabled people in England?

Appendix 2: Study 2 questionnaire

Introduction to the questionnaire

Welcome to this questionnaire about the London 2012 Paralympic Games.

This questionnaire aims to understand what impact the 2012 Paralympics has had on the membership of your club, and why.

Some of the questions will require you to recall information before the 2012 Paralympics. I am aware that you may not have been a member of your current club before the 2012 Paralympics, therefore please answer these questions to the best of your ability.

By completing this questionnaire, you have the chance to win one of three prizes:

1. £25 Amazon voucher
2. £15 Amazon voucher
3. £10 Amazon voucher

Prizewinners will be decided by a random selection of email addresses from people who complete the survey and provide a valid email address.

Participation in the questionnaire

Completing this questionnaire is voluntary and you are entitled to withdraw at any stage. The questionnaire is expected to take no longer than 15 minutes to complete. All responses will be anonymised and kept confidential.

In accordance with the Data Protection Act (1998), none of your information will be shared with third parties.

Your questionnaire data will be used in the writing of an academic thesis as part of the completion of a PhD at the University of Kent. In addition, your data may be used for articles in academic journals.

If you experience any difficulties with the completion of this questionnaire, please don't hesitate to contact Christopher Brown, lead researcher for this study, on cb634@kent.ac.uk.

Confirmation of participation

Having read and understood your rights as a participant in this research, please confirm whether you are willing to complete this questionnaire

- Yes, I give my informed consent

- No, I do not agree to participate

The first section contains questions regarding your club (e.g. activities and membership).

Information about your club

Please select the region in which your club is located

- East
- East Midlands
- London
- North East
- North West
- South East
- South West
- West Midlands
- Yorkshire

Please indicate whether your club is one of the following:

- Specifically for non-disabled people
- Specifically for disabled people
- Opportunities for disabled and non-disabled people to take part together
- Parallel sessions are provided for disabled people
- Don't know

Please tell us which sport your club offers. If your activity is not listed below, please use the “other” option to fill in the activity.

- Archery
- Athletics
- Boccia
- Road Cycling
- Track Cycling
- Equestrian
- Fencing
- Football
- Football 5-a-side
- Football 7-a-side
- Goalball
- Judo
- Powerlifting
- Rowing
- Sailing
- Shooting
- Swimming
- Table tennis
- Tennis
- Deaf Tennis
- Learning Disability Tennis

- Visually Impaired Tennis
- Wheelchair Tennis
- Beach Volleyball
- Sitting volleyball
- Volleyball
- Weightlifting
- Wheelchair Basketball
- Wheelchair Fencing
- Wheelchair Rugby
- Other

If you selected Other, please specify:

Information about your club membership

How many members does your club have at the moment? If you cannot give exact numbers, please give approximate numbers. Please state your answers in number form (e.g. 100).

How many disabled members does your club have at the moment? If you cannot give exact numbers, please give approximate numbers. Please state your answers in number form (e.g. 100).

How long have you been a member of your current club?

- Less than 1 year
- Between 1 year and 5 years
- Between 6 years and 10 years
- Between 11 years and 15 years
- 16 years or more

Within the last five years, has the number of disabled members increased, decreased or been stable?

- Large decrease (more than 25 %)
- Moderate decrease (11-25 %)
- Roughly unchanged (+/- 10 %)
- Moderate increase (11-25 %)
- Large increase (more than 25 %)
- Don't know

Please indicate which of the following statements best describes your club's membership

- Specifically for adults (16+) only
- Specifically for children and young people (Under 16)
- Both children and adults
- Don't know

The impact of the 2012 Paralympic Games on your club

Please rate the impact the London 2012 Paralympic Games has had on the following, using a scale of 0 to 10, where 0 is no impact and 10 is maximum impact

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Increasing the number of disabled adult (16-65) participants at my club										
Increasing the number of elderly disabled (66+) participants at my club										
Increasing the number of disabled young participants (Under 16) at my club										
Increasing the number of disabled volunteers at my club										
Increasing the number of disabled coaches at my club										
Increasing the number of disabled officials (e.g. referees/umpires, etc.) at my club										
Increased profile for the sport amongst disabled people										
Obtaining specialist equipment for disabled people										
Extra funding for my club										

General impact of the London 2012 Paralympic Games

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements regarding the impact of the London 2012 Paralympic Games?

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Focusing on Paralympians is an effective way to motivate inactive disabled people to participate in sport					

The 2012 Paralympics did not make voluntary sport clubs more inclusive					
The 2012 Paralympics did not remove barriers preventing disabled people participating in sport					
There are more inclusive sport participation opportunities available					
The 2012 Paralympics only appealed to disabled people who were already interested in sport					
Inspiration from the 2012 Paralympics was only temporary					

The founding of your club

When was your club founded?

- Before 2005
- After 2005 but before the 2012 Paralympics
- After the hosting of the 2012 Paralympics

(If selected 'After 2005 but before the 2012 Paralympics' or 'After the hosting of the 2012 Paralympics' option in the previous question): How important was the decision to host the London 2012 Paralympic Games in the founding of your club?

- Not Important At All
- Of Little Importance
- Of Average Importance
- Very Important
- Absolutely Essential

This section is about your club's leveraging of the 2012 Paralympics.

For this questionnaire, leveraging is defined as "a forward thinking, strategic approach where both the impacts and

the ways to achieve them are planned in advance of an event" (Smith, 2014, p. 18).

Leveraging therefore refers to how your club attempted to use the hosting of the 2012 Paralympics to increase the number of disabled participants at your club.

Leveraging the 2012 Paralympics

Did your club aim to use the 2012 Paralympics to increase the number of disabled participants at your club?

- Yes
- No
- Don't know

Did your club have a specific strategy for maximising the hosting of the 2012 Paralympics?

- Yes
- No
- Don't know

Did your club discuss how to leverage the 2012 Paralympics with your sport's governing body?

- Yes
- No
- Don't know

Did your club have a specific budget for pre-event activities?

- Yes
- No
- Don't know

Did your club engage in activities linked to the 2012 Paralympics?

- Yes
- No
- Don't know

Please indicate whether your club engaged in any of the following activities before the 2012 Paralympics in order to increase the number of disabled participants at your club (please select all that apply).

- Holding taster sessions for disabled people to try the sport
- Social media communications
- External marketing communications
- Internal marketing communications
- Working with local schools

- Working with your local authority
- Working with disabled people's organisations
- Working with other sports organisations (e.g. national disability sports organisations, county sport partnerships, etc.)
- Working with the organisers of the 2012 Paralympics
- Involvement in participation programmes developed by your sport's governing body
- Specific marketing messages depending on the audience
- Knowledge-sharing with other clubs
- Other
- None of the above

If you selected Other, please specify:

The following statements refer to before the 2012 Paralympics. Please indicate the extent to which the following limited your club's ability to maximise the hosting of the 2012 Paralympics for increasing the number of disabled participants at your club.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
My club lacked the internal capacity to leverage the 2012 Paralympics					
It was difficult to promote information to disabled people					
My club did not have sufficient equipment					
My club did not have enough coaches					
My club lacked knowledge about disability and how it manifests itself					
Increasing the number of disabled participants was not an aim of the club					
My club received a lack of support from my sport's national governing body					

The sport's governing body did not consult with our club when implementing their participation strategy					
We lacked a clear target audience for our leveraging activities					
My club's facilities were not accessible for disabled people					
Our club did not understand how to include disabled people into our activities					
My club did not have enough officials (e.g. referees, umpires, etc.) to support leveraging					
Our volunteers lacked the skills to understand how to increase the number of disabled participants					
It was unclear what the club's role was in increasing the sports participation of disabled people					
My club did not have enough administrators to support leveraging					
It was unclear who was responsible for increasing the participation of disabled people from the 2012 Paralympics					
Purchasing of specialist equipment for disabled people was too expensive for my club					
We lacked training to improve our understanding of disability					
We lacked training in how to include disabled people in our club's activities					
We did not know how to effectively promote our club to local disabled people					
The pathways for disabled people to join our club were not clear					

We would now like to ask you some questions about you. All personal information will be anonymised and kept confidential.

Please indicate your gender

- Male
- Female
- Other
- Prefer not to say

Please indicate your age

- Under 16
- 16-24
- 25-34
- 35-44
- 45-55
- 56-65
- 66+
- Prefer not to say

Do you have a long-standing illness, disability or infirmity? By longstanding I mean anything that has troubled you over a long period of time or that is likely to affect you over a period of time.

- Yes
- No
- Prefer not to say

Does this illness or disability limit your activities in any way?

- Yes
- No

Does this disability or illness affect you in any of the following areas (Please select all that apply)?

- Vision, for example, due to blindness or partial sight
- Hearing, for example, due to deafness or partial hearing
- Mobility, such as difficulty walking short distances, climbing stairs, lifting & carrying objects
- Learning or concentrating or remembering
- Mental Health
- Stamina or breathing difficulty
- Social or behavioural issues, for example, due to neuro diverse conditions such as Autism, Attention Deficit or Asperger's Syndrome
- Difficulty speaking or making yourself understood
- Dexterity difficulties, by that I mean lifting, grasping or holding objects
- Long-term pain or discomfort that is always present or reoccurs from time to time
- Affects me in some other way

Please provide your email address should you wish to have the opportunity to win an Amazon voucher.

Please provide your email address should you wish to be made aware of the final results of this study

Thank you for your time in completing the questionnaire.

Your insight and experiences are valued and appreciated.

Many thanks for your help.

Appendix 3: Study 3 questionnaire

Exploring the 2012 Paralympic sport participation legacy: the views of non-active disabled people

Introduction to the questionnaire

Welcome to this questionnaire about the London 2012 Paralympic Games. This questionnaire explores why the 2012 Paralympics might not have been able to increase your participation in sport as was hoped.

By completing this questionnaire, you have the chance to win one of three prizes:

1. £25 Amazon voucher
2. £15 Amazon voucher
3. £10 Amazon voucher

Prizewinners will be decided by a random selection of email addresses from people who complete the survey and provide a valid email address.

Participation in the questionnaire

Completing this questionnaire is voluntary and you are entitled to withdraw at any stage. The questionnaire is expected to take no longer than 15 minutes to complete. All responses will be anonymised and kept confidential.

In accordance with the Data Protection Act (1998), none of your information will be shared with third parties.

Your questionnaire data will be used in the writing of an academic thesis as part of the completion of a PhD at the University of Kent. In addition, your data may be used for articles in academic journals.

If you experience any difficulties with the completion of this questionnaire, please don't hesitate to contact Christopher Brown, lead researcher for this study, on cb634@kent.ac.uk.

Confirmation of participation

Having read and understood your rights as a participant in this research, please confirm whether you are willing to complete this questionnaire

- Yes, I give my informed consent
- No, I do not agree to participate

The first section contains questions regarding your physical activity.

In the last 12 months, have you done any of the following activities?

- A walk lasting at least 10 minutes
- Gardening
- A cycle ride
- Sport, fitness or recreation activity
- Dance

In the last 12 months, have you done any of these activities?

- Yes
- No

This section focuses on your participation in any of the following activities:

- A walk lasting at least 10 minutes
- Gardening
- A cycle ride
- Sport, fitness or recreation activity
- Dance

Have you done at least one of the above activities in the past 4 weeks since 05.12.2017?

- Yes
- No

This section focuses on your participation in the past 4 weeks in any of the following activities:

- A walk lasting at least 10 minutes
- Gardening
- A cycle ride
- Sport, fitness or recreation activity
- Dance

How much time, on average, did you usually spend doing that activity? If you did more than one activity, please combine the total number of minutes for each activity when selecting your answer.

- Less than 10 minutes a week
- Between 10 minutes and 29 minutes a week
- Between 30 minutes and 59 minutes a week

- Between 60 minutes and 89 minutes a week
- Between 90 minutes and 119 minutes a week
- Between 120 minutes and 149 minutes a week
- At least 150 minutes a week

We would now like to ask you some questions about you. All personal information will be anonymised and kept confidential.

Please indicate your gender

- Male
- Female
- Other
- Prefer not to say

Please indicate your age

- Under 16
- 16-24
- 25-34
- 35-44
- 45-55
- 56-65
- 66+
- Prefer not to say

Please select the region in which you currently reside

- East
- East Midlands
- London
- North East
- North West
- South East
- South West
- West Midlands
- Yorkshire
- Other

What is your ethnic group? Choose one option that best describes your ethnic group or background

- White British
- White Other
- Asian British
- Asian Other
- Black British
- Black Other
- Chinese

- Mixed
- Other ethnic group
- Prefer not to say

Do you have a long-standing illness, disability or infirmity? By longstanding I mean anything that has troubled you over a long period of time or that is likely to affect you over a period of time.

- Yes
- No
- Prefer not to say

Does this illness or disability limit your activities in any way?

- Yes
- No

Does this disability or illness affect you in any of the following areas (please select all that apply)?

- Vision, for example, due to blindness or partial sight
- Hearing, for example, due to deafness or partial hearing
- Mobility, such as difficulty walking short distances, climbing stairs, lifting & carrying objects
- Learning or concentrating or remembering
- Mental Health
- Stamina or breathing difficulty
- Social or behavioural issues, for example, due to neuro diverse conditions such as Autism, Attention Deficit or Asperger's Syndrome
- Difficulty speaking or making yourself understood
- Dexterity difficulties, by that I mean lifting, grasping or holding objects
- Long-term pain or discomfort that is always present or reoccurs from time to time
- Affects me in some other way

(If selected learning or concentrating or remembering option in the previous question): May I check who has provided the answers for this questionnaire?

- Myself
- My parent/carer on my behalf, with my full consent
- Prefer not to say

What is your current working status?

- Working full time
- Working part time
- Unemployed
- Not working (e.g. retired, looking after children)
- Student full or part time
- Other working status
- Prefer not to say

(If selected Student full or part time option in the previous question): What is your current education stage?

- School
- Further Education
- Higher Education
- Other Education (e.g. apprenticeships)

This section focuses on your opinion regarding the London 2012 Paralympic Games

Please indicate the following ways in which you experienced the London 2012 Paralympic Games (please select all that apply)

- Attended one of the events
- Watched live television/online coverage
- Listened to live radio commentary
- Watched television/online highlights
- Read newspaper/online articles
- Other
- None of the above

Before the London 2012 Paralympic Games, how would you describe your interest in following the Paralympics?

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row. Please select at least 1 answer(s).

	Extremely interested	Somewhat interested	Undecided	Not that interested	Not at all interested
Before the London 2012 Paralympic Games I was...					

After the conclusion of the 2012 Paralympics, did you consider any of the following (please select all that apply).

- Watching more sport for disabled people on television
- Attending sports events for disabled people as a spectator
- Volunteering at a sports events for disabled people
- Taking part in more sport or exercise
- Putting on activities in your area for disabled people to take part in
- Mentoring disabled people in sport
- None of the above

Five years on since the London Paralympic Games, what is the most important message you have taken out of the Games? Please only select one option.

- Paralympians are inspirational role models for disabled people

- Everybody can take part in sport regardless of ability
- Disabled people are important members of our society
- This country is advanced in providing rights and equality for disabled people
- A great atmosphere but the feeling did not last forever
- Other

To what extent did the following reasons prevent you from participating in more sport **after** the 2012 Paralympic Games?

Community/organisation constraints to participation

To what extent did the following reasons prevent you from participating in more sport **after** the Paralympic Games?

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row. Please select exactly 6 answer(s).

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
No assessment of disabled people's needs					
Sport and recreation staff don't include disabled people					
No support provided to participate in sport					
I am unaware of the benefits sport and recreation can provide for disabled people					
There is a lack of government support for disabled people					
There are restrictions for disabled people in public					

Perceptions of sporting ability

To what extent did the following reasons prevent you from participating in more sport **after** the Paralympic Games?

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row. Please select exactly 6 answer(s).

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I felt my own sporting ability was not good enough					
There was too big a gap between my sporting ability and that of a Paralympian					
Sports clubs had unrealistic expectations of my ability					

Participation in sport was not a realistic option for someone like me					
Non-disabled coaches did not understand how to include me in sport					
Non-disabled coaches highlighted my impairment and this made me feel uncomfortable					

Time constraints to participation

To what extent did the following reasons prevent you from participating in more sport **after** the Paralympic Games?

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row. Please select exactly 5 answer(s).

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I have too many responsibilities					
I have too many domestic duties to do					
Lack of time					
Work commitments					
Family responsibilities					

The London 2012 Paralympic Games

To what extent did the following reasons prevent you from participating in more sport **after** the Paralympic Games?

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row. Please select exactly 8 answer(s).

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Paralympians were not relevant to my motivation to participate in sport					
Competitive sport was off-putting					
Not interested in Paralympic Games					

Paralympians were not inspirational to me					
Initial enthusiasm for participating in sport after the 2012 Paralympics subsided					
The Paralympic Games discriminates against people like me					
Paralympians portrayed as superhumans was off-putting					
Unable to relate to Paralympians because my impairment is different to that of Paralympians					

Interpersonal constraints to participation

To what extent did the following reasons prevent you from participating in more sport **after** the Paralympic Games?

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row. Please select exactly 2 answer(s).

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
No friends to participate with					
Not wishing to participate alone					

Economic constraints to participation

To what extent did the following reasons prevent you from participating in more sport **after** the Paralympic Games?

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row. Please select exactly 6 answer(s).

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Lack of money					
Lack of personal income					
Pricing of sport participation					
I was unable to afford to participate in sport					

Leisure centres were too expensive for me to access their services					
Gym memberships were too expensive for me to access their services					

Intrapersonal constraints to participation

To what extent did the following reasons prevent you from participating in more sport **after** the Paralympic Games?

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row. Please select exactly 11 answer(s).

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Sport and recreation not important to me					
Lack of confidence to participate in sport					
Not accustomed to sport and recreation					
Lack of interest in group activities					
Fear of public participation					
Overcrowding					
Lack of safety					
Fear of violence					
I was afraid of being seen to be active					
Attitudes of non-disabled people discouraged me from participating in sport					
My impairment made participating in sport difficult					

Transport constraints to participation

To what extent did the following reasons prevent you from participating in more sport **after** the Paralympic Games?

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row. Please select exactly 4 answer(s).

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
No access to facilities close to home/work					
Lack of accessible public transport					
Lack of private transportation					
Opportunities too far from home					

Sports services and experiences

To what extent did the following reasons prevent you from participating in more sport **after** the Paralympic Games?

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row. Please select exactly 11 answer(s).

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Sport facilities were not suitable to my needs					
Only segregated sport and recreation programmes available					
Not enough sport opportunities that suited my needs					
There was not enough recreational or casual sport options available					
Scarce access to adaptable equipment					
Lack of information about sport participation opportunities					
No adaptable equipment to use					
Adaptable equipment is too expensive					
I have had poor participation experiences since the 2012 Paralympics					

No integrated sport and recreation programmes available					
Lack of trained staff to support my participation					

The role of grassroots sport clubs

To what extent did the following reasons prevent you from participating in more sport **after** the Paralympic Games?

Please don't select more than 1 answer(s) per row. Please select exactly 6 answer(s).

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Joining a sports club was intimidating for me					
I didn't think the sports club could offer sport suitable for me					
Not many sport clubs were available for me in my local area					
Inclusive sport was unappealing					
There were not enough specific sport opportunities for my impairment needs					
Mainstream sport clubs were not interested in disabled people joining their club					

Please provide your email address should you wish to have the opportunity to win an Amazon voucher.

Please provide your email address should you wish to be made aware of the final results of this study

Thank you for your time in completing the questionnaire.

Your insight and experiences are valued and appreciated.

Many thanks for your help.

Appendix 4: Participant information sheet for study 1

Investigating the perspectives of disability sport stakeholders regarding the management of the London 2012 Paralympic Games grassroots sport participation legacy in England.

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

Christopher Brown, PhD Student within the School of Sport and Exercise Sciences

School of Sport and Exercise Sciences

University of Kent

Room M0-27

The Medway Building

Chatham Maritime

Kent, ME4 4AG

Telephone: 01634 888903

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?

My research is aiming to understand the impact of the London 2012 Paralympic Games on grassroots sport participation of disabled adults in England, and how the sport participation legacy has been managed. The overall aim of the PhD is to assess the grassroots sport participation and physical activity legacy of the London 2012 Paralympic Games for disabled adults in England. For this study, I am particularly interested in your opinions and attitudes regarding the London 2012 Paralympic Games and its impact on grassroots sport participation for disabled adults, and how the sport participation legacy has been managed.

This study will aid and enhance my overall objective of understanding the sport participation and physical activity legacy of the London 2012 Paralympic Games for disabled adults in England. The academic literature on the Paralympic Games and grassroots sport participation is an under-developed area and my research will look to address this. I would therefore aim to publish the 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 involvement in providing grassroots sport participation opportunities for disabled adults. I am looking to use your expertise and experience to obtain your opinions regarding the management of the grassroots sport participation legacy of the London 2012 Paralympic Games.

Do I have to take part?

No, there is no 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, you will then 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 in-depth qualitative interview at a time and date of your convenience, with the interview expected to last no more than one hour. You will also be given this participant information sheet and asked to provide your consent by completing the consent form. The interview will focus on what you believe the impact of the 2012 Paralympics has been for grassroots sport participation of disabled adults in England. Your opinion on the management and delivery of the grassroots sport participation legacy will also be discussed.

Additionally, if you decide to participate in the research, there is a possibility that you may be emailed by the researcher after you have completed the interview, if there is further clarification needed relating to your responses.

Will my participation in the research be kept confidential?

Yes, it will. Organisations will be named to inform the reader of the sample for the study, but no participant will have their employment to their organisation revealed or linked via any quotes that are used. Each participant will be anonymised for the duration of the study and any subsequent publications. Each participant will be allocated a unique identification number used by the researcher and my supervisor only. This will ensure that no one will be able to identify who you are specifically. 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.

If you decide you are happy for your identity to be disclosed for the duration of the study and any subsequent publications, I will need to have written confirmation of your consent for this to happen. Automatically your identity will be anonymised for the duration of the study and subsequent publications, and this will not be changed, unless I am specifically informed by you and you have provided written consent otherwise.

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 the 2012 Paralympic Games and grassroots sport participation, 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 do so. Also the participation of this research is on a voluntary basis and you do not have to participate. As you are employees of organisations providing grassroots sport participation opportunities to disabled adults, the findings provide valuable and advantageous lessons into the role of the London 2012 Paralympic Games on grassroots sport participation in England. This will allow future Paralympic Games hosts and policy makers to have a greater understanding of the impact the Paralympic Games can have on grassroots disability sport participation for disabled adults, and what lessons can be learned and acted upon for future Paralympic Games.

Researchers Contact Details

If you have any questions, then please contact me: by email (cb634@kent.ac.uk) or telephone (01634 888 903). 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 5: Consent form for study 1

Title of study: Investigating the perspectives of disability sport stakeholders regarding the management of the London 2012 Paralympic Games grassroots sport participation legacy in England.

Name of investigator: Christopher Brown

Please initial box

1. I confirm I have read and understand the information sheet dated 19/02/2016 (version 2) for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason. *(If you have any queries, please do not hesitate to contact me on cb634@kent.ac.uk or call me on +44 (0)1634 888903).*

3. I understand that my responses will be anonymised before analysis. I give permission for members of the research team to have access to my anonymised responses. Direct quotes will remain anonymous and any quotes that may affect this and disclose my identity will not be used, without my consent.

4. I understand and agree my interview will be recorded by the interviewer. Recording of the interview will only be used for data analysis purposes and accessible by the research team.

5. I agree to take part in the above research project.

_____	_____	_____
Name of participant	Date	Signature
_____	_____	_____
Name of person taking consent	Date	Signature
_____	_____	_____
Lead researcher	Date	Signature

Appendix 6: Participant information sheet for study 2

Exploring the 2012 Paralympic sport participation legacy: sport clubs' perspectives.

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

Christopher Brown, PhD Student within the School of Sport and Exercise Sciences

School of Sport and Exercise Sciences

University of Kent

Room M0-27

The Medway Building

Chatham Maritime

Kent, ME4 4AG

Telephone: 01634 888903

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?

Not much is known about the impact of the Paralympic Games on sport participation of disabled people. The purpose of this research is to understand the impact of 2012 Paralympics on disabled people participating in sport clubs. This research will also explore the reasons for the impact of the 2012 Paralympics on participation. An online questionnaire is used to collect the data.

Why me?

I am interested in the views of clubs from the sports that featured at the 2012 Paralympics. I would like you to answer the questionnaire on your club's behalf. Voluntary sport clubs play an important role in organised sport, therefore I am keen to get your expertise and experiences for my research. Your role at the club provides you with important insights into the impact of the 2012 Paralympic Games. I am keen to learn from your experiences of the 2012 Paralympics and the effect it has had on your club.

Do I have to take part?

No. Participation is voluntary. 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?

I will send you an email with a web link to the online questionnaire. Clicking on the web link will take you to the survey. Before starting the survey, you need to confirm your consent to participate in the research. Information about the survey will be given before the agreement is needed. If you agree to participate, you can complete the questionnaire by answering the questions. Additional information for each question is given in the 'More Info' section, should you require this.

Will my participation in the research be kept confidential?

Yes, it will. No names are used in this survey. All personal details are confidential and anonymised. Each participant is given a unique ID during the study. This will ensure that no one will be able to identify who the responses belong too. My supervisor and I are the only people who will have access to the data. For the report that I will write, any direct quotes will remain anonymous.

All data is stored in accordance with the University of Kent guidelines, as well as, in line with the Data Protection Act (1998). Electronic data is stored within a password-protected computer file. Hard data is stored in a locked filing cabinet within the University of Kent premises. All materials from this research is kept for a three-year period and then is destroyed in accordance with the University of Kent guidelines. Any data requested by a research journal or review panel will have been anonymised.

What benefits or risks are involved in the research?

Completing the survey provides you with a chance to win Amazon vouchers worth £25, £15, and £10. To enter the prize draw, you will need to provide an email address at the end of the survey. Three email addresses will be selected at random from the list of email addresses provided. The first email address chosen will win the £25 Amazon voucher. The second email chosen will win the £15 Amazon voucher. The third email address chosen will win the £10 Amazon voucher. Winners of the Amazon vouchers will be contacted using the email address provided. Only one voucher can be won per email address.

No risks are expected in completing this survey. There is no sensitive or embarrassing topics in the survey. You can email the researcher (email address listed below) if you have any queries regarding this.

Contact Details

If you have any questions, please contact Christopher Brown by email (cb634@kent.ac.uk) or telephone (01634 888 903). You can also contact my supervisor, Dr Sakis Pappous, by email (A.Pappous@kent.ac.uk).

If you would like information about the findings of the study, please provide me with your email address 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 this project.

Appendix 7: Participant information sheet for study 3

Exploring the 2012 Paralympic sport participation legacy: non-active disabled people's perspectives.

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

Christopher Brown, PhD Student within the School of Sport and Exercise Sciences

School of Sport and Exercise Sciences

University of Kent

Room M0-27

The Medway Building

Chatham Maritime

Kent, ME4 4AG

Telephone: 01634 888903

You are invited to take part in a research study. This study has been granted full ethical approval by the University of Kent SSES REAG. 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?

Research suggests sport participation has not substantially increased since the London 2012 Paralympic Games. The purpose of this research is to understand why the 2012 Paralympic has not been able to sustainably increase sport participation of disabled people. An online questionnaire is used to explore the possible reasons why the 2012 Paralympics might not have been able to significantly increase participation in sport.

Why me?

This study focuses on the opinions of disabled people aged 16+ who are either inactive or fairly active. According to Sport England's Active Lives report, an active person is someone who is active for at least 150 minutes a week. I am interested in understanding the views of disabled people who are less active than 150 minutes a week. I want to know what role the 2012 Paralympics has played with regards to your level. As your activity is less than 150 minutes a week, I am keen to obtain your insights.

Do I have to take part?

No. Participation is voluntary. 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?

Your disabled people's organisation will send you an email. This will include a web link to the online questionnaire. Clicking on the web link will take you to the survey. Before starting the survey, you need to confirm your consent to participate in the research. Information about the survey will be given before the agreement is needed. If you agree to participate, you can complete the questionnaire by answering the questions. Additional information for each question is given in the 'More Info' section, should you require this.

Will my participation in the research be kept confidential?

Yes, it will. No names are used in this survey. All personal details are confidential and anonymised. Each participant is given a unique ID during the study. This will ensure that no one will be able to identify who the responses belong too. My supervisor and I are the only people who will have access to the data. For the report that I will write, any direct quotes will remain anonymous.

All data is stored in accordance with the University of Kent guidelines, as well as, in line with the Data Protection Act (1998). Electronic data is stored within a password-protected computer file. Hard data is stored in a locked filing cabinet within the University of Kent premises. All materials from this research is kept for a three-year period and then is destroyed in accordance with the University of Kent guidelines. Any data requested by a research journal or review panel will have been anonymised.

What benefits or risks are involved in the research?

Completing the survey provides you with a chance to win Amazon vouchers worth £25, £15, and £10. To enter the prize draw, you will need to provide an email address at the end of the survey. Three email addresses will be selected at random from the list of email addresses provided. The first email address chosen will win the £25 Amazon voucher. The second email chosen will win the £15 Amazon voucher. The third email address chosen will win the £10 Amazon voucher. Winners of the Amazon vouchers will be contacted using the email address provided. Only one voucher can be won per email address.

No risks are expected in completing this survey. There is no sensitive or embarrassing topics in the survey. You can email the researcher (email address listed below) if you have any queries regarding this.

Contact Details

If you have any questions, please contact Christopher Brown by email (cb634@kent.ac.uk) or telephone (01634 888 903). You can also contact my supervisor, Dr Sakis Pappous, by email (A.Pappous@kent.ac.uk).

If you would like information about the findings of the study, please provide me with your email address 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 this project.

Appendix 8: Confirmation of ethics approval for study 2



School of Sport & Exercise Sciences Research Ethics
and Advisory Group (REAG) University of Kent at
Medway
Chatham Maritime
Kent
ME4 4AG

Ethics Reference:
Prop 18_2017_18
Date: 11th October 2017

Dear Chris,

Re: Exploring the 2012 Paralympic sport participation legacy: sport clubs' perspectives

I am delighted to confirm that SSES REAG has approved your research study (REF No. Prop 18_2017_18) and you are now permitted to recruit participants and commence your research.

If you need to amend any aspect of your research, please ensure you inform SSES REAG by completing a request for amendment form and submitting all revised paperwork (e.g. participant information sheet, questionnaires).

If there should happen to be any adverse event during your study, please also ensure SSES REAG is kept informed.

I hope your study is successful.

With kind regards,

A handwritten signature in blue ink that reads "Louis Passfield".

Louis Passfield
(Chair SSES REAG)

Appendix 9: Confirmation of ethics approval for study 3



School of Sport & Exercise Sciences Research Ethics
and Advisory Group (REAG) University of Kent at
Medway
Chatham Maritime
Kent
ME4 4AG

Ethics Reference:
Prop 19_2017_18
Date: 3rd November 2017

Dear Christopher Brown,

Re: Exploring the 2012 Paralympic sport participation legacy: non-active disabled people's perspectives

I am delighted to confirm that SSES REAG has approved your research study (REF No. Prop 19_2017_18) and you are now permitted to recruit participants and commence your research.

If you need to amend any aspect of your research, please ensure you inform SSES REAG by completing a request for amendment form and submitting all revised paperwork (e.g. participant information sheet, questionnaires).

If there should happen to be any adverse event during your study, please also ensure SSES REAG is kept informed.

I hope your study is successful.

With kind regards,

A handwritten signature in blue ink that reads "Louis Passfield". The signature is written in a cursive, flowing style.

Louis Passfield
(Chair SSES REAG)