UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY, SYDNEY

The Influence of an Interorganisational Network associated with a Large-Scale Sport Event on Sport Development Legacies: A Case Study of the Sydney 2009 World Masters Games

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CERTIFICATE OF ORIGINAL AUTHORSHIP

I certify that the work in this thesis has not previously been submitted for a degree nor has it been submitted as part of requirements for a degree except as fully acknowledged within the text.

I also certify that the thesis has been written by me. Any help that I have received in my research work and the preparation of the thesis itself has been acknowledged. In addition, I certify that all information sources and literature used are indicated in the thesis.

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Acknowledgements

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Abstract

This thesis investigates how the inter-organisational network (ION) of a large-scale sport event influences sport development legacies from a large-scale sport event. This thesis responds to a lack of research regarding how the relationships and interactions among stakeholders participating in an ION influence event leverage activities and the securing of sport development legacies. A qualitative case study of the Sydney 2009 World Masters Games (SWMG) was conducted. The criterion for an organisation to be included in the research sample was that they had to be a key stakeholder that participated in the delivery of the SWMG. Stakeholders included the event bid committee, the event organising committee, the event governing body, the state sport agency and the government department that oversees sport in New South Wales, the state event agency and the contracted sport organisations delivering the multiple sport program. In total, thirty-two organisations were involved in the case study. The research design for the case study involved document analysis, semi-structured interviews, and event observation.

Based on Benson's (1975) ION Theory, the premise underlying this thesis was that an effective ION of sport development stakeholders could work towards a common goal and secure sport development legacies. As such, the case study seeks to understand interactions among organisational stakeholders participating in the SWMG ION, identify factors influencing coordination and cooperation in the ION, and determine how sport development legacies are conceptualised and operationalised in the ION.

The findings show that there was limited coordination and cooperation among stakeholders towards securing sport development legacies. Three themes were identified in the SWMG case study that explains why this occurred. The first theme, 'ION Development and Structure' reveals that the SWMG ION was developed and structured with commitments to tourism and economic objectives, not to securing legacies for masters sport. The second theme, 'Context of Sport Development' demonstrates that government priorities and existing approaches to masters sport inhibit sport development legacy objectives. The third theme, 'Legacy 'Consensus' highlights there is no shared conceptualisation of sport development legacies due to a lack of agreement regarding how to secure legacies and who should be responsible for doing so.

This thesis finds that sport development legacies from large-scale sport events will not be secured automatically. The sport development context, characterised by government dependencies and reliance on volunteers, is fundamentally different to the economically driven and entrepreneurial context of tourism, and hence requires a strategic approach to secure legacies. For sport development legacies to be secured, strategies need to be implemented to encourage sport development stakeholders to work collaboratively and cooperatively. These strategies include: 1) Develop and structure an ION to be conducive to securing sport development legacies; 2) Engage with the context of sport development; and 3) Collectively conceptualise sport development legacies. Based on these key findings, this thesis concludes with a proposed Model to Leverage an Event for Sport Development Legacies and suggestions for future research.

Chapter 1:   Introduction

1.1 Masters Sport Participation

Sport plays an important role in the lives of older Australians (Burns, 1992; Shilbury & Kellett, 2011). Participation in sport provides older Australians with opportunities for social interaction (Dionigi, 2002; Gillett & Kelly, 2006; Lyons & Dionigi, 2007), and the maintenance and self-expression of athletic and active identities (Dionigi, 2002, 2005, 2006; Dionigi & O'Flynn, 2007; Gillett & Kelly, 2006). In addition, sport participation provides opportunities for physical activity and associated health benefits (Dionigi, 2006; Dionigi & O'Flynn, 2007).

Masters sport is the term used for sport competition 'conducted with a minimum age qualification, i.e. over 35 and is typically organised for those beyond the age usually associated with mainstream sports participation' (Burns, 1992, p.1). The minimum age varies depending on the nature of the sport, but 30–35 years is a typical minimum age in most sports (Shilbury & Kellett, 2011). A common characteristic of masters sport is specific age groupings for competition to ensure competitors are matched in peer and ability groups. In addition, some sports make modifications to rules and/or equipment to be more inclusive of masters participants. With an increasingly ageing population, it makes sense for our mainstream sport structures to be inclusive of older Australians, like Ruth Frith pictured in Photo 1, to enable them to participate in sport as a means of enjoyment and of maintaining physically active lifestyles (Shilbury & Kellett, 2011).

Photo 1: Ruth Frith, Sydney 2009 World Masters Games Competitor

[Production Note: This photo is not included in this digital copy due to copyright restrictions.]

(Source: Geraghty, 2009, Sydney Morning Herald)

Ruth Frith was one of only two centenarians participating in the Sydney World Masters Games (SWMG) (Jerga, 2009). At the time of the SWMG, Ruth was 100 years of age and held world records in the hammer throw, weight throw and throws pentathlon. The use of this photo of Ruth in this introductory chapter is significant, as during the SWMG, this photo and photos like it were used predominantly in coverage of the SWMG. However, as will become apparent later in the thesis, photos and news stories of 100 year-old Ruth presented a particular perspective of older peoples' participation in sport. This representation was contested by sport development stakeholders, and influenced the sport development legacy of the SWMG.

Despite the growth of masters sport since the 1980s (Burns, 1992), older adults are typically under-represented in organised sport (Burns, 1992; Shilbury & Kellett, 2011). Since the 1990s, researchers and policy makers have identified this group as

requiring special attention in terms of the mainstream structures of sport designing strategies that make them more inclusive of this group to promote participation (Burns, 1992; Shilbury & Kellett, 2011). In 1992, Burns (1992) conducted a review of masters sport delivery in Australia, and found a diversity of delivery approaches and governance structures concerning masters sport, ranging from organisations with integrated strategies for masters sport, through to organisations that did not intend to engage with masters sport. Burns' (1992) investigations into masters sport in Australia found that older people face barriers to participation in mainstream structures of sport due to the presence of negative stereotypes and unsubstantiated fears of the health risks of older peoples' participation.

More recently, a burgeoning body of research into masters sport has revealed idiosyncrasies which are characteristic of a diversity of participant motivations and expectations (Dionigi, 2005; Dionigi & O'Flynn, 2007; Gillett & Kelly, 2006; Hodge, Allen, & Smellie, 2008; Ryan & Lockyer, 2001). In addition, the sociology of ageing literature highlights that masters sport participants often need to negotiate a series of socio-cultural factors to participate in sport. For instance, masters sport participants need to negotiate societal expectations, specifically the expectations of significant others and what they deem to be appropriate activity for an older person (Dionigi, 2002; Tulle, 2008), as well as come to terms with the physical realities of ageing (Dionigi, 2006; Tulle, 2008).

Two decades ago, Burns (1992), made a series of recommendations for policy and practice regarding masters sport development, yet there has been limited follow-up in terms of strategic direction or policy development for masters sport participation in

Australia. In December 2003, the New South Wales (NSW) Government submitted a bid document to the International Masters Games Association (IMGA) to host the 2009 World Masters Games in Sydney. The bid document outlined potential impacts and legacies for the masters sport movement from the hosting of the World Masters Games in Sydney, including:

- Delivering a '"knowledge legacy" program, in close consultation with the IMGA' to ensure event data and procedures are available for future hosts;

- Increasing 'the profile and patronage of the Games around the world';

- Fostering 'discussion and development of the masters sport movement'; and

- Encouraging and increasing 'the capacity and willingness of sporting bodies and government agencies in the region to adopt and promote programs, activities and events for mature age sportspeople' (NSW Major Events Board, 2003, Section I, pp.1-2).

On 13 June, 2004, the IMGA awarded Sydney the rights to host the 2009 World Masters Games. The Sydney 2009 World Masters Games (SWMG) were held from 10–18 October, 2009. Some 27,500 participants competed across 28 sports hosted at 72 venues over the nine days of competition. Such a large-scale sport event had the potential to offer unique opportunities to the masters sport movement for the host city of Sydney, the state of NSW and Australia.

1.2 Large-Scale Sport Events and Sport Development Legacies

Government investment in the hosting of large-scale sport events in Australia, and other countries such as the UK and Canada, is typically underpinned by a 'trickle-down effect'. This is when investment in elite sport is aimed at securing elite sport successes, and these elite sport successes are assumed to 'trickle-down' through the sport system to inspire the broader community to participate in sport (Coalter, 2004; Hindson, Gidlow, & Peebles, 1994; Hogan & Norton, 2000; Kidd, 2003; McCloy, 2003; Parent, 2008b; Shipway, 2007; Toohey, 2008; Veal, Toohey, & Frawley, 2012; Weed et al., 2009). The assumption that there is a trickle-down effect has shaped much of Australia's sport development policy since the 1980s (Hindson et al., 1994; Hogan & Norton, 2000). However, there is a lack of conclusive evidence that the hosting of large-scale sport events have automatic trickle-down effects and lead to increases in sport participation (Frawley, Toohey, & Veal, 2013).

Coalter (2004) suggests that when there is no trickle-down effect, this is due to the supply-side failures of sport development. This is because sport development needs to be understood as a whole system, where increased participation (the demand side) is dependent on the provision of opportunities (the supply side) (Chelladurai, 2001; Coalter, 2004; Shipway, 2007). Accordingly, researchers have increasingly called for large-scale sport events to be better integrated into broader plans for sport development to secure sport development legacies and to maximise benefits to host communities (Cashman, Toohey, Darcy, Symons, & Stewart, 2004; Coalter, 2004; Frawley & Cush, 2011; Hanstad & Skille, 2010; Hindson et al., 1994; Shipway, 2007; SportScotland, 2004; Taks, Misener, Chalip, & Green, 2009; Toohey, 2008, 2010;

Veal & Frawley, 2009; Veal et al., 2012; Weed et al., 2009). However, there exists a gap in our understanding regarding how to secure sport development legacies from large-scale sport events (Taks et al., 2009; Veal et al., 2012; Weed et al., 2009).

In research into other event-related outcomes, including tourism, business and urban regeneration, two concepts emerged during the 1990s in response to the lack of demonstrable positive outcomes in event impact studies. These concepts are event legacy and event leverage (Cashman, 2003; Chalip, 2004; Preuss, 2007). The literature surrounding these two concepts provides insight into the influence of politics on event legacies (Cashman, 2006; MacAloon, 2008; Preuss, 2007; Veal et al., 2012) and the potential that *ex ante* frameworks can offer for maximising event-related benefits (Chalip, 2004, 2006; O'Brien, 2005, 2006; O'Brien & Chalip, 2008). However, the event leverage literature in particular highlights the need for theoretical frameworks that enable an understanding of the complexity of interests and interactions involved in securing sport development legacies from a large-scale sport event (Chalip, 2002; Chalip & Leyns, 2002; Kellett, Hede, & Chalip, 2008; O'Brien, 2005, 2006, 2007; O'Brien & Gardiner, 2006). The application of these concepts to sport development legacies has attracted predominantly anecdotal discussions (Taks et al., 2009; Weed et al., 2009), with scant empirical research being carried out.

This thesis responded to O'Brien's (2005, 2006) suggestion that investigating the influence of the inter-organisational networks associated with large-scale sport events may provide valuable insights as to the inhibitors and facilitators of stakeholders implementing strategies to leverage an event and capitalise on the opportunities presented. A multiplicity of stakeholder interests and interactions must take place in

the hosting of a large-scale sport event (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell, & Harris, 2008). As such, there is a need to analyse the multiple stakeholder interests and ties that influence the securing of sport development legacies from an event. In research contexts relevant to this thesis, researchers are increasingly recognising the value of various strands of network theory in event management (Erickson & Kushner, 1999; Larson, 2002; Stokes, 2006, 2007); sport management (Babiak, 2007; Morrow & Idle, 2008; Olkkonen, 2001); and in particular, sport event legacies (Leopkey & Parent, 2013; Parent, Kristiansen, Skille, & Hanstad, 2013). However, there is scant research that has investigated how inter-organisational networks influence the securing of sport development legacies from large-scale sport events.

Benson's (1975) Interorganisational Network (ION) Theory is used in this thesis as a theoretical framework. This choice is justified based on the ability of the theory to deal with the complexity of event networks and their influence on securing sport development legacies. Based on Benson's (1975) ION Theory, the general premise underlying this thesis is that an effective ION, characterised by sport development stakeholders working towards a common goal, can secure sport development legacies. The single case study of the SWMG provides an understanding of interactions among stakeholder organisations participating in the ION of a large-scale sport event. In addition, factors influencing coordination and cooperation in the ION are identified and discussed. Further, the conceptualisation and operationalisation of sport development legacies by stakeholders participating in the ION are explored.

1.3   Statement of the Research Problem

This thesis undertakes an empirical investigation that addresses the following question:

How do the inter-organisational networks (IONs) associated with a large-scale sport event influence sport development legacies?

To address this question, three subsidiary research objectives were developed:

1. Understand the sport development stakeholders that might form an ION to secure sport development legacies from a large-scale sport event;

2. Identify factors that influence relevant sport development stakeholder's efforts towards securing sport development legacies; and

3. Determine how the relevant sport development stakeholders conceptualise and operationalise sport development legacies.

Each of these research objectives is justified below, with the potential contributions of the research explained.

1.4   Research Justification

In responding to the research objectives, this thesis seeks to contribute to theory, policy, and practice. Overall, the thesis will examine the influence of an ION of sport development stakeholders associated with a large-scale sport event on potential sport development legacies. It will explore whether collaborative objectives can be achieved through IONs, and will discuss the implications of collaborative efforts when an objective is not adequately committed to, informed and operationalised. These insights have implications for sport and event researchers, policymakers, and

industry practitioners because they highlight the need for integrated sport event legacy planning to secure sport development legacies, rather than expecting increases in participation to occur automatically as a result of hosting a large-scale sport event.

This thesis will contribute to an understanding of how the development and structure of an ION influences the collaborative and cooperative efforts of participating stakeholders, and will have implications for policy makers and industry practitioners. Findings from this thesis can inform the development and structure of future IONs of large-scale sport events with the objective of securing sport development legacies. An understanding of how relationships and interactions in an ION facilitate or inhibit collaborative and cooperative efforts can help host governments and sport development stakeholders to develop and structure IONs to be conducive to securing sport development legacies. Such knowledge can help to ensure that the benefits of large-scale sport events can be maximised for host communities and sport systems.

In addition, this thesis will identify contextual factors that influence the coordination and cooperation of sport development stakeholders in an ION. Currently, there is limited understanding of the connections between large-scale sport events and existing mainstream sport systems, and there is a limited understanding about how to capitalise on the opportunities presented by an event to increase participation in sport. A detailed understanding of the priorities of organisations operating in the existing sport development context, and their influence on the securing of sport development legacies, will greatly assist in the design and management of future commitments and planning to obtain sport development legacies from large-scale sport events. The findings will enable host governments to assess the congruency of existing sport

development priorities and legacy objectives, and to identify and address any inhibitors, as well as maximise facilitators, to effectively secure sport development legacies.

Further, findings from this thesis may be used to highlight the importance of establishing consensus among participating stakeholders as to how legacies are conceptualised and how they can be operationalised. This has implications for sport and event policymakers and industry practitioners wishing to integrate sporting events with sport development. For instance, stakeholders with differing interests will need to find a balance between fitting legacy visions into the day-to-day operations of sport organisations, and contributing to the development of day-to-day operations so they reflect new or improved practices in the delivery of sport. Issues around the investment in legacy planning and programs are highlighted as requiring greater consideration by governments if events are to be effective in encouraging targeted groups to increase their participation in sport.

1.5   Research Design

The research design responds to the central research question, and the subsidiary research objectives. It comprises a qualitative multi-method case study of the SWMG. The SWMG was a large-scale (but not mega) sport event, focused on mass participation and therefore unlikely to attract the same media attention or public interest as mega-events such as the Olympic Games, FIFA World Cups or Commonwealth Games (discussed further in Chapter 4). This meant consideration needed to be given to the extent to which conceptualisations of event legacy (drawn from a sport event legacy literature dominated mega event settings) were relevant to

the case of the SWMG. The criteria for case selection and the characteristics of the SWMG, presented later in Chapter 4, indicate that this large-scale sport event demonstrated the kind of government involvement and formalisation typical of mega-sport events, and based on this, legacy concepts drawn from mega-event research were considered appropriate, albeit imperfect.

In addition, the specific inclusion of sport development legacy commitments in the SWMG bid document and subsequent publicity exercises meant the SWMG provided a key opportunity for investigation, as such objectives and commitments have been lacking from those mega-events featured in the legacy literature (Weed et al., 2009). Therefore, the SWMG had the potential to offer unique opportunities to the masters sport movement for the host city of Sydney, the state of NSW and Australia, and thus presented a rich case study for investigation.

The research design draws on three types of qualitative data to achieve triangulation and provide breadth and depth of information (Bryman, 2012; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Stake, 2000). The data sources are: documents; semi-structured interviews with key stakeholders in the project ION of the SWMG; and event observation. This approach and use of data sources is consistent with extant research that has investigated the use of large-scale sport events to achieve broader outcomes (c.f. Chalip & Leyns, 2002; Gardiner & Chalip, 2006; Kellett et al., 2008; O'Brien, 2005, 2007) and research that has investigated the inter-organisational networks associated with large-scale sport events (Leopkey & Parent, 2013; Parent, 2012; Parent et al., 2013; Parent, MacDonald, & Goulet, 2014).

The criterion for an organisation to be included in the sample was that it needed to be a key stakeholder that participated in the SWMG ION. These stakeholders included:

- The event bid committee (the New South Wales Government's Major Events Board);

- The event organising committee (the Sydney 2009 World Masters Games Organising Committee);

- The event governing body (the International Masters Games Association);

- The state sport agency (New South Wales Sport and Recreation Services);

- The state sport agency's over-arching state government department (Communities New South Wales);

- The state event agency (Events New South Wales); and

- Sport organisations contracted by SWMGOC to deliver the sport competitions (various national and state sport organisations).

Documents and interview data were collected until data saturation occurred. In all, 57 documents were collected across 30 stakeholder organisations and 37 interviews were conducted with representatives from 28 of these organisations from July 2009 to June 2010. Sixty-six hours of event observation were undertaken from 6 to 18 October, 2009. All forms of data were systematically organised using NVivo software. Data analysis reflected a hybrid inductive/deductive model (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006; Orton, 1997), where ION Theory provided a framework of concepts to help understand the research problem of the SWMG ION (i.e. deductive reasoning), and at the same time, the researcher searched for themes that emerged through the data specific to the SWMG ION context (i.e. inductive reasoning).

1.6 Definitions and List of Abbreviations

A list of terms and definitions used in this study is presented in Table 1. This is important as many terms from the sport and event contexts are socially constructed, and may take on many varied meanings depending on the context in which they are applied (Coalter, 2007; Girginov, 2008). The first column lists the concept and the second column provides a definition from the relevant literature.

Table 1: List of Concepts and Definitions

Concept	Definition
Event Legacy	Event legacy is 'Irrespective of the time of production and space… 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' (Preuss, 2007, p. 211).
Event Leverage	Event leverage is a process of identifying a large-scale sport event as an opportunity, and planning and implementing a series of strategies and tactics to ensure that desired outcomes can be achieved (Bramwell, 1997; Chalip, 2002, 2004, 2006; Morse, 2001; O'Brien, 2005; O'Brien & Chalip, 2007, 2008; O'Brien & Gardiner, 2006; Ritchie, 2000).
Government Sport Agency	Federal or state level government departments and agencies responsible for implementing sport policies and programs (Shilbury & Kellett, 2011; Sotiriadou, 2009; Sotiriadou, Shilbury, & Quick, 2008; Stewart, Nicholson, Smith, & Westerbeek, 2004).
Interorganisational Network (ION) Theory	Premise that organisations are interdependent and thus organisational decision-making is a product of a complex interplay of inter-organisational interactions and contextual influences (Benson, 1975). ION Theory encourages researchers to focus on the relational data of a network of organisations by analysing the patterns of relationships among organisations (Benson, 1975; Hudson, 2004; Rowley, 1997).
Large-scale sport events	Events of significance that require the establishment of urban infrastructure, including stadiums, hotels, and entertainment precincts (Hiller, 1998, 2003). These events and associated infrastructure bring together nations of the world, attract tourist activity and media coverage (Chelladurai, 2001; Houlihan, 1999).
Mass Participation Event	A large-scale sport event, characterised the bulk of participants actively participating in sport, rather than spectating. According to Murphy and Bauman (2007) these events have a community-wide appeal through non-elite participation and competition.
Masters sport	A term used to refer to sport participation by people aged approximately 30 years and over. Masters sport has been identified as a particular area of sport requiring targeted strategies to create inclusive opportunities to increase participation by this population group in sport (Burns, 1992; Shilbury & Kellett, 2011).
Neoliberal Ideology	Ideologies are sets of ideas regarding how society should be run; neoliberal ideology has been increasingly influential on Western governments since the 1980s. Neoliberal ideology has seen governments themselves pursuing entrepreneurial activities to attract economic activity to deindustrialised cities (Gleeson & Low, 2000; Hall, 2006).
Project Network	Short-term or temporary networks that are created for the delivery of specific projects (Hellgren & Stjernberg, 1995; Mandell, 1988).
Public Policy	Public policy includes decisions by governments to distribute resources according to particular priorities (Althaus, Bridgman, & Davis, 2007; Parsons, 1999), and includes the practical instruments of governance (Althaus et al., 2007).
Public Private Partnerships	The term public-private partnerships (PPPs) has emerged as a label for collaborative approaches to policy whereby government partners with private businesses and/or third sector organisations to deliver policy objectives (Skelcher, 2005).
Sport Organisation	National, state or community-level organisations, typically operating as not-for-profit entities with the primary purpose of developing and delivering sport opportunities (Shilbury & Kellett, 2011)
Sport Development	The 'policies, processes and practices that form an integral feature of work involved in providing sporting opportunities and positive sporting experiences' (Bramham & Hylton, 2008).
Stakeholder	Those organisations, groups or individuals that have the potential to affect, or be affected, by a focal organisation's activities (Freeman, 1984).
Statutory Authority	A government agency funded by taxpayer money, but operating as a private corporation (Carrière & Demazière, 2002; Gleeson & Low, 2000; Searle & Bounds, 1999).
Trickle-Down Effect	Assumption that investment in elite sport will lead to the success of elite athletes, and in turn lead to 'increasing numbers of people taking up sports, increased membership of clubs in the respective sports and high performance aspirations on the part of club members, coaches and administrators' (Hindson et al., 1994).

1.7　Delimitations

This thesis has three main delimitations of scope: the type of legacy considered in the thesis, the focus on the process and managerial implications for masters sport, and the level of network analysis. First, this thesis focuses on the potential sport development legacies of a large-scale sport event, meaning that other event-related outcomes and legacies are not considered. This focus informed the research design and sampling frame of the thesis, and consequently the investigation considered only stakeholders relevant to sport development, rather than the entirety of the network of stakeholders connected to the SWMG.

Second, this thesis is specifically concerned with the interactions between a large-scale sport event and sport system development in terms of policy, process, and practice. While the SWMG presents a particular context of older people's sport participation and the sociology of ageing (Dionigi, 2002, 2005, 2006; Dionigi & O'Flynn, 2007; Gillett & Kelly, 2006; Lyons & Dionigi, 2007; Tulle, 2008), it is beyond the scope of this thesis to explore the sociology of ageing. In addition, this case study refers to media coverage of the SWMG and the symbolic representation of masters sport participants; however, it is beyond the scope of this thesis to undertake a media analysis of event media coverage. Instead, this thesis focuses on the organisational interactions and managerial implications of a large-scale sport event and sport development legacies.

Third, the analysis undertaken in this thesis focuses on patterns of interaction among organisations (i.e. inter-organisational network analysis) rather than among individuals (i.e. social network analysis) (Hellgren & Stjernberg, 1995; Hudson,

2004). This approach is adopted because the inter-organisational level analysis is considered more effective for developing an understanding of collaborative efforts regarding policy implementation (Hudson, 2004).

1.8   Thesis Outline

This thesis is organised into seven chapters. Chapter 1 has provided a background to the research problem, outlined the central research question and subsidiary research questions, and introduced briefly the research.

Chapter 2 reviews the academic literature related to the three conceptual areas of large-scale sport events, sport development legacies and maximising benefits from large-scale sport events (including concepts of event legacies and event leverage). The concept of large-scale sport events is defined and conceptualised to provide a background to contemporary government approaches to hosting these events. Sport development legacy is defined and conceptualised and the role of government in policy-making for sport development reviewed. The concepts of event legacy and event leverage are introduced in response to calls in the sport development literature to maximise the value of large-scale sport events to sport systems.

Chapter 3 introduces and discusses Interorganisational Network (ION) Theory as the most appropriate framework with which to investigate and respond to the research gaps identified in the review of the literature. The need to move beyond stakeholder analyses of large-scale sport events towards the analysis of multiple stakeholder ties in an ION is discussed. The characteristics of an effective ION according to Benson (1975) are outlined and a framework for analysis is set out.

Chapter 4 presents the research design. The research objective and subsidiary research questions are reiterated. The interpretive constructivist approaches applied in this thesis are then outlined, and the qualitative case study mode of enquiry is justified. The methods for data collection and data analysis are outlined and other methodological considerations are highlighted, including trustworthiness of the research, and ethical and political considerations. Chapter 4 finishes with a discussion of the limitations of this thesis.

Chapter 5 presents the case study findings in terms of the three themes that emerged through the data. The first theme, ION Development and Structure, is presented as a chronology of key events and connections among organisations participating in the Sydney World Masters Games (SWMG) inter-organisational network (ION). Second, the theme Context of Sport Development is presented. This theme examines the unique context that influenced the impetus of organisations participating in the SWMG ION towards securing legacies for masters sport. The theme Legacy 'Consensus' is the third one presented. This theme reflects the processes of negotiation in the SWMG ION in relation to what the SWMG's legacies to masters sport should be, how these legacies were to be achieved, and who would be responsible for ensuring their achievement.

Chapter 6 discusses the key findings in relation to the literature. First, a discussion of the theme 'ION Development and Structure' outlines how the development and structure of an ION can determine the level of commitment to collaborative goals by the organisations participating in an ION. Second, a discussion of the theme 'Context of Sport Development' identifies the facilitating and inhibiting influences of

government policies and approaches on the motivation of participating organisations to secure sport development legacies. Third, a discussion of the theme 'Legacy Consensus' highlights how collaborative discussion among organisation representatives participating in an ION is critical to the conceptualisation and operationalisation of sport development legacies of a large-scale sport event. This chapter informs the theoretical contributions and implications for policy and practice in Chapter 7.

Chapter 7 concludes the thesis by summarising the case study and key findings and highlighting the theoretical and practical contributions of the research. An overview of the case study and key findings in relation to the research objectives are presented. The theoretical contributions of this thesis and the implications of the research for policymaking and industry application are provided. The limitations of this thesis are addressed. Last, recommendations for future research are outlined.

1.9   Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided a background to the thesis. It has articulated a need for further investigation of the interactions among organisations involved in large-scale sport events, and the processes required to secure sport development legacies from these events. Based on extant research and the gaps identified in our understanding of how to maximise the benefits of large-scale sport events, ION Theory was introduced as an appropriate framework through which to undertake such an analysis. The research question and objectives were introduced and an overview of the qualitative research design was provided. Definitions were provided for key terms used in this thesis and the delimitations of the thesis were identified. The thesis outline provided

an overview of the subsequent chapters. The next chapter will present a comprehensive review of the relevant literature.

Chapter 2:   Literature Review

2.1   Introduction

This chapter reviews three bodies of literature related to large-scale sport events, sport development legacies and maximising benefits from large-scale sport events (including concepts of event legacies and event leverage). The chapter has three main sections. First, the term 'large-scale sport event' is defined and conceptualised to provide a background to contemporary government approaches to hosting large-scale sport events. Second, sport development legacy is defined and conceptualised and the role of government in policy making for sport development is reviewed. Third, the terms 'event legacy' and 'event leverage' are introduced in response to calls in the sport development literature to maximise the value of large-scale sport events to sport systems. In this section, the highly politicised nature of event legacy is discussed. Event leverage is also discussed as highlighting the importance of putting in place *ex ante* frameworks to maximise outcomes and legacies from large-scale sport events.

Table 2 provides an overview of the chapter structure, listing the four subsections and associated subheadings.

Table 2: Overview of Chapter 2 – Literature Subsections and Associated Subheadings

Literature Subsection	Associated Subheadings
2.2 Large-Scale Sport Events	2.2.1 Defining and Conceptualising Large-Scale Sport Events
	2.2.2 Government Involvement in Large-Scale Sport Events
2.3 Sport Development	2.3.1 Defining and Conceptualising Sport Development
	2.3.2 Government Involvement in Sport
	2.3.3 Planning for Sport Development Legacies
2.4 Maximising Benefits from Large-Scale Sport Events	2.4.1 Concepts and Models
	2.4.2 Event Legacy
	2.4.3 Event Leverage
2.5 Summary	

2.2 Large-Scale Sport Events

2.2.1 Defining and Conceptualising Large-Scale Sport Events

Large-scale sport events typically require the establishment of urban infrastructure, including stadiums, hotels and entertainment precincts (Hiller, 1998, 2003). These events and their associated infrastructure bring together nations of the world, and attract tourist activity and media coverage (Chelladurai, 2001; Houlihan, 1999). These development activities in turn help to stimulate further tourism interest as host cities are promoted as must-see tourist destinations (Hall, 2006; Whitson, 2004; Whitson & Horne, 2006). The infrastructure development and tourist activity around large-scale sport events provide a number of opportunities for host cities to realise economic, environmental and social outcomes before, during and after large-scale sport events (Hall, 2006; Smith & Fox, 2007; Stokes, 2007). For these reasons, large-scale sport events are often seen as a packaged solution to the challenges presented by deindustrialisation, due to the multiple benefits they are perceived to lead to (Carrière & Demazière, 2002).

Deindustrialisation greatly affected many cities during the 1970s and 1980s as globalisation caused world markets to open up and manufacturing industries to move from high-wage and high-cost developed countries to cheaper labour and production centres in the developing world (Low, 1999; Veal, 2002). Formerly thriving industrial estates became deserted and dilapidated in an urban phenomenon commonly referred to as rust belts (Carrière & Demazière, 2002; Low, 1999; Roche, 1992). Governments of the time sought ways to rejuvenate rust belts and encourage the development of new industries to stimulate economies.

The ability of large-scale sport events to meet urban regeneration goals in deindustrialised cities became apparent and popularised in public policy during the 1980s (Allen et al., 2008; Misener, 2007; Smith & Fox, 2007). Public policy is understood as an 'expression of the political will of governments' (Althaus et al., 2007, p. 12). The will of governments is expressed through an action, or inaction, regarding the distribution of resources in society (Althaus et al., 2007; Parsons, 1999). Increasingly, the will of governments has been focused on the allocation of resources to bidding for and hosting of large-scale sport events to gain broader benefits for host cities, regions, and nations. In Australia, governments have acted to invest in, and underwrite, large-scale sport events, and associated infrastructure developments (Allen et al., 2008). Free market proponents are critical of the substantial investments involved. Consequently, governments have justified their adoption of these public policies on the grounds that market failure makes them necessary (Chalip, 2004; Mules & Faulkner, 1996; Veal, 2002). The investments required are not attractive to private enterprise, and therefore, unless governments became involved host cities would not be able to experience the many opportunities and benefits of hosting large-scale events. Government intervention in large-scale sport events has particular implications for policy development and the operationalising of these events, as will be explored in the following section.

2.2.2 Government Involvement in Large-Scale Sport Events

Governments are influenced by their political ideologies, which are 'sets of political ideas – ideas about how society should be run' (Veal, 2002, p. 35). Since the 1980s, neoliberal ideologies have been championed in the public policy setting as an approach to governance capable of addressing the socio-economic challenges

associated with globalisation and deindustrialisation (Brenner & Theodore, 2002; Gleeson & Low, 2000; Hall, 2006; MacLeod, 2002). Neoliberal ideologies have implications for the outcomes secured through the hosting of large-scale sport events (Carrière & Demazière, 2002; Chalip, 2004; Coalter, 2007; Gleeson & Low, 2000; Hall, 2006; Searle & Bounds, 1999; Whitson & MacIntosh, 1996).

Neoliberal ideologies favour the free market as the most efficient way to deliver solutions to urban problems (Brenner & Theodore, 2002; Gleeson & Low, 2000; Searle & Bounds, 1999). Proponents of neoliberal ideologies argue that urban problems are the result of excessive public sector regulation (Carrière & Demazière, 2002). Neoliberal ideologies differ from mainstream liberal ideologies in the extent to which governments intervene in the free market. For instance, mainstream liberal ideologies favour reduced government intervention in free market matters; but in contrast, neoliberal governments have pursued new forms of intervention as they seek to emulate private sector corporations in an attempt to return cities to a level of economic prosperity reminiscent of the period of industrialisation (Brenner & Theodore, 2002; Low, 1999). Neoliberal governments have sought to refocus and rejuvenate deindustrialised cities as sites for leisure and consumption by attracting new activities to stimulate economies and regain economic prosperity (Hiller, 1999; Misener & Mason, 2008; Roche, 1992; Whitson & MacIntosh, 1993).

Neoliberal influences on policymaking have meant that large-scale sport events have become characterised by three main approaches:

1. Hallmark decision-making;

2. Special event legislation and temporary statutory authorities; and

3. Project management and private corporations.

These approaches are described below.

Hallmark Decision-Making

Hallmark decision-making is distinct from rational decision-making (Roche, 1994) and is commonly associated with large-scale sport events (Hiller, 1998; Roche, 1994; Veal, 2002). Table 3 summarises the differences between rational decision-making approaches and hallmark decision-making for large-scale sport events. Table 3 sets out the main characteristics of each approach, and the approaches to decision-making at the pre-bid phase, post-bid phase and post-event phase.

Table 3: Rational and Hallmark Decision-Making Processes for Large-Scale Events

Approach		Characteristics	Pre-Bid Phase	Post-Bid Phase	Post-Event Phase
Decision-Making Approach	**Rational**	- Democratic - Community consultation - Ideologies may influence viewpoints, but opportunities and costs are evaluated rationally	1.Conceptualisation 2.Pre-bid feasibility study 3.Political commitment process 4.Bid group organisation	5.Re-evaluation 6.Post-bid feasibility study 7.Organisational planning 8.Implementation	9.Monitoring/ feedback 10.Evaluation 11.New concept/ new commitment?
	Hallmark	- Autocratic - Limited community input - Power of business and political elites influences decisions	1.Preliminary, vague subjective identification of a need for a specific event 2.Development of cursory report 3.Decision taking	4.Development of a plan to justify the project 5.Building program 6.Implementation	7.Little attention given to review of planned developments through time

Source: Adapted from Roche (1994, p.4)

As highlighted in Table 3, hallmark decision-making is problematic because business and political elites, who can see potential gain for their businesses or political

interests, greatly influence the decision-making process (Roche, 1994; Veal, 2002). As such, politicians are likely to make the decision to go ahead with a project before any robust feasibility assessment of the project has been undertaken, and then find ways to justify the project to the public after the decision has been made (Roche, 1994; Veal, 2002). Without adequate feasibility studies, justifications for bidding and hosting events are often based on flawed information and are often not subjected to balanced critique or analysis (Flyvberg, 2006a; Hall, 1987; Hiller, 1998; C. Jones, 2001; Roche, 1994; Smith & Fox, 2007; Spilling, 1996; Veal, 2002).

The privileging of business and political elites in the decision-making process affects subsequent policy priorities and initiatives, and thus influences the efforts of stakeholders to secure specific types of legacies (Chalip, 2004; Whitson & MacIntosh, 1996). The agendas of business and political elites often remain hidden behind public relations campaigns promoting the potential opportunities of hosting large-scale sport events to garner the support of the tax-paying public (Chalip, 2004; Hiller, 1999; Veal, 2002; Whitson & MacIntosh, 1996).

Consistent with the argument that governments privilege the interests of business and political elites, Sherwood (2007) found a substantial preoccupation by governments and event organising committees in Australia with the economic benefits of events. Sherwood (2007) reviewed the impact assessments of 85 events held in Australia from 1985–2004, half of which were sport events. He found that all the impact assessments referred to the economic impacts, and over half only considered the economic impacts. Only a third considered a combination of economic and social aspects, and a limited number measured the combination of economic, social and

environmental impacts of events, often referred to as the triple-bottom line (Sherwood, 2007). Most economic impact studies are undertaken prior to the staging of an event, and reflect the institutionalisation of economic objectives in event management (Chalip, 2004; Sherwood, 2007). This institutionalisation process is supported through the development of special event legislation and temporary statutory authorities, as outlined below.

Special Event Legislation and Temporary Statutory Authorities

Special event legislation refers to planning powers given to event organising committees by the government to enable organising committees to manipulate and fast-track decision-making processes to create conditions and political environments that are attractive to private sector interests (Searle & Bounds, 1999). Alongside the special event legislation, it is now commonplace for governments to establish event organising committees as temporary statutory authorities, which receive tax payer money, and essentially operate as private corporations (Carrière & Demazière, 2002; Gleeson & Low, 2000; Searle & Bounds, 1999). Examples of such event organising committees in Australia include the Sydney Organising Committee for the Olympic Games (SOCOG); the 2006 Melbourne Commonwealth Games Organising Committee (M2006); and the current Gold Coast 2018 Commonwealth Games Corporation (GOLDOC).

The conditions created by special event legislation for large-scale sport events commonly override community and stakeholder consultation processes, as governments consider them to be too time consuming and therefore unattractive to free market interests of the private sector (Evans, 2006; Lenskyj, 2002, 2008; MacLeod, 2002; Searle & Bounds, 1999; Smith & Fox, 2007). The operation of

temporary statutory authorities as private corporations is typically pursued by governments as they are considered less likely to act like bureaucratic government agencies and therefore more likely to have effective relationships with the private sector (Evans, 2006; MacLeod, 2002). Governments in countries such as Australia and the UK consider these conditions essential to ensuring events can be delivered successfully and on time (Brenner & Theodore, 2002; Carrière & Demazière, 2002; Evans, 2006; Hall, 2006; MacLeod, 2002; Searle & Bounds, 1999; Smith & Fox, 2007; Whitson & MacIntosh, 1996).

Smith and Fox (2007) argue that having community and stakeholder consultation processes throughout a project is critical for ensuring a policy initiative is meaningful to stakeholders. Community and stakeholder consultation is also important for determining if adjustments need to be made in event planning so that organisers can be more effective or efficient in meeting event objectives (Smith & Fox, 2007). As such, the development of special event legislation has been criticised as it takes away the requirement for event organising committees to undertake such consultations (Hall, 2006; Lenskyj, 1994, 2002; Smith & Fox, 2007). The removal of consultative processes and private corporation approaches by event organising committees can lead to a situation where large-scale sport events are subsidised by taxpayers and the benefits go to a select business elite. In addition, opportunities to integrate events in broader development plans for a host city are often missed (Hiller, 1998; Smith & Fox, 2007). The narrow objectives that are put forward through special event legislation and temporary statutory authorities are operationalised through project management techniques, discussed next.

Project Management Techniques

Project management refers to a management approach, whereby a set of tools and techniques is implemented to achieve a set of goals and objectives in a set timeframe (Allen et al., 2008). Given that large-scale sport events have clear start and end dates and require many stakeholders and service components to be coordinated, they are generally considered in terms of project management (Allen et al., 2008). Within the project management approach, event organising committees coordinate networks of organisations and use strategic plans to deliver events as projects (Hamnett, 2000; Vaz & Jacques, 2006).

Event organising committees will typically pursue multiple inter-government and cross-sector partnerships to secure knowledge, expertise and resources necessary to deliver a successful event (Allen et al., 2008; Carrière & Demazière, 2002; Cochrane, Peck, & Tickell, 1996; Hellgren & Stjernberg, 1995; McGuire, 2002; Misener & Mason, 2008; Westerbeek et al., 2005). Allen et al. (2008, p.124) explain the benefits of coordinating networks of organisations for event delivery:

> Such an approach makes sense in situations where it is impractical to maintain a large standing staff when they can only be used for a limited period [of time]… Other advantages are … no 'down time'. Budgeting can also be more exact because most costs are contracted and, therefore, known beforehand. This structure also allows for quick decisions because the core management group is made up of only a few people.

The purpose of strategic plans is to ensure that key milestones are met through the pre-event planning and implementation phases, and to ensure that events are delivered successfully and on time (Allen et al., 2008; Parent, 2008a). However, it has been argued that the strategic plans and priorities of these event organising committees are influenced by the neoliberal approaches discussed at the beginning of this section (Searle & Bounds, 1999; Vaz & Jacques, 2006). This means that the strategic plans

are geared towards delivering events with the short-term aim of attracting investment into the economy and contributing to the economic prosperity of the city.

In summary, these three broad policy approaches to large-scale sport events highlight that:

- Business and political elites have a substantial, and sometimes hidden, influence on decision making surrounding large-scale sport events;

- The need for consultation with communities and stakeholders is often overlooked in special event legislation and temporary statutory authorities and

- Project management is often geared towards economic impacts and attracting investment.

Despite this unbalanced emphasis on the economic utility of events, the literature has demonstrated that the economic impacts of events are often far less than anticipated (Crompton, 1995; Crompton & McKay, 1994; Kasimati, 2003; Kirkup & Major, 2006; Whitson & Horne, 2006). In addition, this emphasis on economic outcomes has led to a failure to adequately consider broader outcomes (i.e. social and environmental) in the policy development for an event (Chalip, 2004; Coalter, 2007; Hall, 2001; Hamnett, 2000; Hiller, 1998; MacLeod, 2002; Misener & Mason, 2006). The marginalisation of social and environmental outcomes is problematic as these are the outcomes and legacies that the host communities perceive to be the most valuable (Andersson, Rustad, & Solberg, 2004).

A legacy of sport development is one of the social outcomes. However, research has revealed that hosting large-scale sport events does not necessarily lead to increased

participation (Brown & Massey, 2001; Coalter, 2004, 2007; Frawley, Veal, & Toohey, 2009; Hindson et al., 1994; Hogan & Norton, 2000; London East Research Institute, 2007; Murphy & Bauman, 2007; Veal & Frawley, 2009; Veal et al., 2012; Weed et al., 2009). The area of sport development legacies has received limited investigation in terms of how the factors reveiwed in this section influence the securing of legacies. Subsection 2.3 below provides a review of the literature pertaining to sport development and legacies from large-scale sport events. Subsection 2.4 provides a review of the literature and frameworks developed in response to the increased recognition of the need to maximise the value of large-scale sport events.

2.3   Sport Development

2.3.1 Defining and Conceptualising Sport Development

Bramham and Hylton (2008, p. 2) define sport development as the 'policies, processes and practices that form an integral feature of work involved in providing sporting opportunities and positive sporting experiences'. Similarly, Shilbury and Kellett (2011, p. 243) define sport development as the efforts by which sport organisations seek to 'develop sophisticated plans to increase the number of people playing their sport'. Both of these definitions allude to Coalter's (2004) supply and demand sides of sport, whereby sport development is constituted by a complex interaction between the need to develop the sport system (supply-side) to cater for, and stimulate, people's participation in sport (demand-side).

The Scottish Sports Council first used the Sport Development Continuum, illustrated in Figure 1, in a report in 1988. The continuum depicts the sport system as a pyramid

with four distinct levels that interact on a continuum (Houlihan & White, 2002). The four levels of the continuum from base to top are: Foundation; Participation; Performance; and Excellence.

Figure 1: The Sport Development Continuum
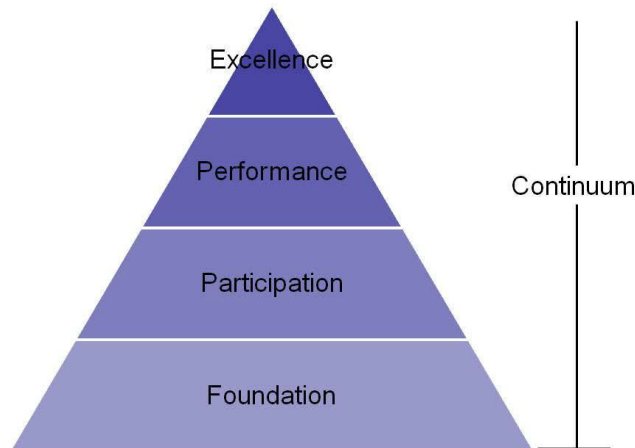
Source: Sport England, cited in Houlihan and White (2002, p. 41) and Eady (1993, p. 14)

The shape of the pyramid signifies that the Foundation and Participation levels are where most sport participation occurs. These levels of the continuum are often referred to as mass sport participation, but other terms such as community sport, grass roots participation, and Sport For All are also used as labels to describe participation at this end of the continuum (Veal et al., 2012). The tapering of the continuum for Performance and Excellence levels signifies that participation at these levels is highly competitive and based on gifted athletes being selected from a pool of talented participants to represent their regions, states or countries. This end of the continuum is generally referred to as elite sport. The mass participation base provides a talent pool of participants who may move up, or down, through the levels of the pyramid,

depending on their ability and their opportunities to do so throughout their lives (Eady, 1993; Houlihan & White, 2002; Stewart et al., 2004). The theory suggests that the wider the participation base is, the greater the number of potential elite athletes there will be (Shilbury & Kellett, 2011; Sotiriadou et al., 2008).

The Sport Development Continuum has attracted criticism for not adequately reflecting the complexities and dynamics of sport development systems (Bailey et al., 2010; Kirk & Gorely, 2000; Shilbury, Sotiriadou, & Green, 2008; Sotiriadou et al., 2008). However, proponents of the pyramid model argue that its value lies in its ability to convey that sport is structured and requires policy makers to take a balanced approach to policy making across the pyramid for sustainable sports development (Bramham & Hylton, 2008; Green & Collins, 2008; Houlihan & White, 2002). A balanced approach to policy making entails the provision of resources at each level of the continuum to effectively deliver relevant sport components and contribute to the overall sport system (Green & Collins, 2008; Houlihan & White, 2002).

Importantly, the Sport Development Continuum illustrates that if too much emphasis is placed at the mass participation end of the continuum, the elite levels of the pyramid will suffer through limited opportunities for progression and poor international performances. Likewise, if too much emphasis is placed at the elite end of the continuum, the mass participation levels of the pyramid will suffer. The problem with neglecting the mass participation end of the spectrum is that it has the potential to reduce the proportion of people participating and inadvertently reduces the talent pool from which future athletes develop (Bramham & Hylton, 2008; Houlihan & White, 2002). Accordingly, Bramham and Hylton (2008, p. 5) argue that

the pyramid model of the sport development continuum can be considered as a powerful ideal to conceptualise sport development as it 'ought to be,' rather than how things operate in practice.

2.3.2 Government Involvement in Sport

Federal governments in Australia demonstrated limited and ad hoc involvement in sport until sport was recognised as a legitimate area for policy development during the 1970s (Shilbury & Kellett, 2011; Sotiriadou, 2009; Stewart et al., 2004). Up until this time, sport in Australia was characterised by the beliefs that participation was based on free choice and that amateur ideals should be upheld (Shilbury & Kellett, 2011). A relatively simple community-based club system allowed 'participants the opportunity to participate at a level commensurate with their ability' (Shilbury & Kellett 2011, p.21). Within this club-based system the better performers typically rose through the system (i.e. from local sports clubs competition through to district/regional competition, state competition, national competition and international competition) (Shilbury & Kellett, 2011).

By the 1970s, the post-World War II investment in sport by European countries meant that Australia's naturally gifted athletes, despite good sporting infrastructure, mass participation programs and good diets, were becoming less competitive on the international stage (Shilbury & Kellett, 2011; Sotiriadou et al., 2008). At the same time, social influences and changing lifestyles meant that young people had more options than sport for their leisure time, which contributed to falling participation rates in organised sport (Sotiriadou, 2009). The Whitlam Labor Government, which came to power in 1972, identified sport and recreation as important policy areas. A

summary of Australian federal government approaches to sport policy from 1972-2010 is included in Appendix 1.

A critical event occurred in 1976: the Australian Olympic team returned home from the Montreal Olympics with no gold medals. The combination of a public outcry and lobbying by the newly created Confederation of Australian Sports (CAS), a body representing the increasingly sophisticated National Sport Organisations (NSOs), forced the Fraser Liberal Government to respond through policy development. In line with Liberal values of elitism and the creation of environments encouraging individuals to strive for achievement, the Fraser Liberal Government opened an elite sport centre, the Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) in 1981 (Stewart et al., 2004). Since the 1980s, every Australian government has recognised the political expediency of public policies targeted at sport development and sport performance (Stewart et al., 2004).

All levels of government in Australia are involved in sport in some way. Investment in sport by governments has been justified on the grounds of market failure, that is, it has been argued that investment is unattractive to the free market, and therefore the government needs to invest to ensure its citizens and the broader society are able to experience the benefits of sport (Stewart et al., 2004; Veal, 2002). Appendix 2 includes a summary of the commonly cited market failures used to justify government involvement in sport. Table 4 provides a summary of the levels of government and their sport development objectives, their associated roles in sport development and investment in sport as percentages of overall government investment.

Table 4: Summary of Federal, State and Local Government Sport Development Objectives, Roles and Investment in Australia

Level of Govt.	Sport Development Objective	Role in Sport Development Policy	Investment as % of total government spend on sport policy
Federal	Support the development of a national sport structure that enables community participation and enhances Australia's elite competitive performance	Variable presence of sport portfolio depending on government of the day Established Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) in 1981 for elite sport programs Established Australian Sport Commission (ASC) in 1985 to: - distribute funds to the National Sport Organisations (NSOs) for capacity development, high performance sport (through the AIS) and mass participation initiatives to be delivered at the community sport organisation (CSO) level; - be responsible for the AIS.	20%
State	Increase opportunities for sport and recreation at all levels of participation to enrich the quality of life for all communities	Since the 1980s, the state governments have typically had portfolios for sport Provision of funding for: - State sport organisations (SSOs) for administrative and sport development functions; - State institutes of sport and talent development programs established by all states by mid-1990s - Development and maintenance of sport stadia and facilities - Major event bidding and hosting. State policy plays key role in attracting people to sport, contributing towards the development of athletes and the preparation of athletes for elite competition. 80% of investment has been dedicated to venues, grounds, and facilities.	30%
Local	Provide leadership, support and expertise to ensure community leisure needs are being met	Provide and maintain infrastructure and facilities for local communities. 95% of investment has been dedicated to building and maintaining sports grounds, venues, and facilities.	50%
		Total:	100%

(Sources: Shilbury & Kellett, 2011; Sotiriadou, 2009; Sotiriadou et al., 2008; Stewart et al., 2004)

Table 4 demonstrates that in terms of total government investment in Australian sport, the investment from the federal government is less than investment by other levels of government (i.e. 20% compared to state government 30% and local government 50%). Despite investing the least overall, the federal government plays an important

role in agenda setting in Australian sport. Accordingly, sport development policy at the federal level has attracted the most attention in the literature (Shilbury & Kellett, 2011; Sotiriadou, 2009; Stewart et al., 2004). Although there is scant literature investigating sport development policy at the state and local government levels, the literature that is available suggests that at least at the state level (Shilbury & Kellett, 2011), policy initiatives reflect federal agendas. This review of literature identifies three main approaches by governments to sport in Australia:

1. Top-down approaches to policy making;

2. Investment in sport organisations; and

3. Hosting large-scale sport events.

These approaches are elaborated below.

Top-down Approaches to Policy Making

Despite the literature calling for a balanced approach to sport development (Green & Collins, 2008; Houlihan & White, 2002), sport development policies that have emerged in affluent countries such as Australia typically reflect top-down policy making. Table 5 outlines the differing characteristics of top-down and bottom-up approaches to sport development policy.

Table 5: Characteristics of Top-Down and Bottom-Up Approaches to Sport Development Policy

Characteristics	Top-Down Model	Bottom-Up Model
Distribution of resources	Most policies target the elite level of the sport pyramid; marginal spending at the mass participation end.	Most policies target mass participation level of the pyramid; marginal spending at the elite sport end.
Anticipated outcomes	1) Increase the likelihood of world-class performance by athletes 2) Investment in the top end of sport will filter down and benefit all levels of the Sport Development Continuum (i.e. trickle-down effect)	1) Encourage mass participation in sport across a greater proportion of the community 2) Lead to elite sport development by providing a wide talent pool of participants where better athletes get pushed up through the sport development continuum as they seek opportunities for better competition.

(Sources: Green, 2007; Hogan & Norton, 2000; Shilbury & Kellett, 2011; Stewart et al., 2004)

The top-down approach is characterised by governments investing predominantly in the provision of infrastructure and resources for the elite end of sport, based on an assumption that successful elite performances will inevitably lead to increased mass participation and physical activity (Coalter, 2004; Hindson et al., 1994; Hogan & Norton, 2000; Veal et al., 2012). Hindson et al. (1994, p.17) explain the trickle-down effect as occurring when government investment in elite sport encourages highly publicised successes of elite athletes, which in turn lead to 'increasing numbers of people taking up these sports, increased membership of clubs in the respective sports and high performance aspirations on the part of the club members, coaches and administrators.'

The federal government's preference for top-down approaches and the assumption of a trickle-down effect have had serious implications for sport development in Australia. Success in sport in Australia is typically measured at the federal level 'by the medals won on the international stage by elite athletes and by the number of people participating in sport at a community level' (Sotiriadou, 2009, p.842).

Stakeholders at either end of the sport continuum have clustered together and a dichotomy in views about sport development policy has emerged (Green & Collins, 2008). Instead of working together to develop a collaborative set of interactions in an effective sport system, elite and mass participation proponents compete with one another for finite government resources to deliver their respective goals (Green, 2007; Hoye et al., 2012; Green & Collins, 2008; Houlihan & White, 2002). Elite sport stakeholders are the most organised and have the capacity to navigate the complex systems of grant funding and other opportunities. Consequently, they often receive the most resources (Green & Collins, 2007). Green and Collins (2008, p. 232) argue that 'the political rhetoric for mass participation programs has not been matched with comparable funding allocations provided for elite sport development.'

Green (2007, p. 927) argues that in addition to the emergence of this dichotomy between elite sport performance and mass participation, there has been a tendency for federal government sport development policies to be 'framed in the context and language of elite sport performance'. Green and Collins (2008, p. 242) argue that this framing of elite sport performance has led to governments and policy makers interpreting and redefining sport development as 'the means by which elite athletes might flourish'. This means that government funding and key performance indicators (KPIs) for sport organisations are underpinned by a desire to attract specific people into sport, that is, those with the potential to develop into elite athletes. As such, sport organisations focus their mass participation initiatives on increasing the pool of potential elite athletes and invest limited resources in initiatives to get the general community participating in organised sport (Sotiriadou, 2009; Hoye et al., 2008).

The emphasis on elite sport performance has become entrenched in policy making for sport development (Green, 2007; Green & Collins, 2008; Stewart et al., 2004). Regardless of the ideology of the government in power, Australian governments have consistently pursued top-down approaches to sport development (Green, 2007; Green & Collins, 2008; Stewart et al., 2004; Houlihan & White, 2002). Accordingly, Green (2007, p.930) argues sport development policy in Australia represents a path-dependency model of policy making, in which 'the quest for sustained excellence at the international level is difficult to forgo once established'. As a result, some areas of sport, particularly elite sport, have been developed at the cost of others (Green & Collins, 2008; Bramham & Hylton; Stewart et al; Girginov 2008; Houlihan 2011; Shilbury & Kellett, 2011; Stewart et al., 2004).

Investment in Sport Organisations

Federal governments have funded NSOs since the 1970s as the key drivers of national elite sport performance (Shilbury & Kellett, 2011). Federal government funding has been distributed to NSOs through the Australian Sports Commission (ASC) since its establishment in 1985 (Shilbury & Kellett, 2011). The funding of State Sport Organisations (SSOs) by state governments has closely followed the federal governments' initiatives, with SSOs being funded through the relevant state governments' sport and recreation departments or agencies (Sotiriadou et al., 2008). Table 6 provides an overview of the different roles of sport organisations in the contemporary system of Australian sport.

Table 6: Overview of Roles of Sport Organisations in the Contemporary System of Australian Sport

Sport Organisation	Role
National Sport Organisation (NSO)	• Role includes 'organising and conducting national championships, liaising with the international parent body and promoting national events, fundraising for national teams, selecting and developing talent, selecting national teams for international events and liaising with the federal government' (Sotiriadou, 2009, p.848). In addition to meeting national elite performance targets, NSOs are often funded by the ASC to assist: • State sport organisations (SSOs) with their management and administration needs (Sotiriadou, 2009) • SSOs and community sport clubs with the development of coaches and officials at the community level (Sotiriadou, 2009) • District/regional associations and/or community sport clubs with 'club development, attracting young people, and encouraging clubs to appoint junior development officers' (Sotiriadou, 2009, p. 851)
State Sport Organisation (SSO)	• Responsibilities include the attraction and retention of members and participants and the identification and development of talented athletes to move through the elite pathways (Sotiriadou, 2009). • Responsible to state governments for the delivery of strategies to attract new members to sport and increase participation rates (Sotiriadou et al., 2008). • Responsible to NSO for delivery of programs developed and funded by NSOs (Sotiriadou, 2009).
Community Sport Organisations	• Role is to provide members with affordable and accessible opportunities to participate in organised sport (Cuskelly, 2004; Shilbury & Kellett, 2011). • Responsible for implementing programs developed and funded by NSOs, SSOs and state government (Sotiriadou, 2009).

There are over 90 registered NSOs in Australia. They are diverse in terms of the nature of their sport and organisational operations (Shilbury & Kellett, 2011). Some NSOs are large and financially sustainable, while others are small and under-resourced, and are reliant on government funding and volunteer staff (Shilbury & Kellett, 2011). Many NSOs are not fully responsible for their own elite sport programs, while many others fail to play a role in encouraging mass participation in sport (Shilbury & Kellett, 2011). Shilbury and Kellett (2011) indicate that the story is the same at the SSO level in all states.

Federal and state governments have encouraged NSOs and SSOs respectively to operate more like businesses to gain efficiencies (Hoye et al., 2008). Government funding has created paid jobs in place of voluntary administrators (Shilbury & Kellett,

2011). In addition, federal and state government funding has increasingly been tied to KPIs, which direct organisational efforts towards specific goals (Green, 2007; Stewart et al., 2004). At the federal level, KPIs include performance bonuses for world championship results and Olympic medals (Green, 2007; Stewart et al., 2004). Shilbury and Kellett (2011, p.33) argue that this funding arrangement at the NSO level has meant that there is a 'preoccupation with elite performance and winning medals'.

Shilbury and Kellett (2011) argue that this narrow focus of sport organisations on elite sport performance means many of them have failed to engage with the recreational aspects of participation. The implications of this include sport organisations being:

- Less attractive to sponsors based on the limited potential reach of sports through small recreational participation bases; and
- Unable to contribute to broader government objectives of preventative health or inclusion, and funding associated with such initiatives.

Accordingly, Shilbury and Kellett (2011) argue that rather than operating like businesses and moving towards being independent and self-sustaining, sport organisations that focus on elite sport performance are likely to remain dependent on government funding.

In contrast to the NSO and SSO levels, limited investment at the community level has meant that most regional/district associations and community sport clubs have maintained the amateur ethos, continuing to rely on the efforts of volunteers (Cuskelly, 2004; Misener & Doherty, 2009; Shilbury & Kellett, 2011). Governments

expect the community level of sport to deliver the increases in participation promised in policies (Cuskelly, 2004). To do this, community sports clubs rely on the efforts of a team of volunteers to take on positions as 'coaches, trainers, officials, administrators and committee members amongst many other jobs' (Cuskelly, 2004, p. 60).

A decade ago, Cuskelly (2004, p.62) argued, 'the current human resources capacity of [community sport organisations] may not be adequate to sustain existing levels of participation let alone the increased participation levels called for in government policies'. This is due to community sports clubs in Australia facing the challenge of catering for increased participation with limited access to resources and a declining number of volunteers (Cuskelly, 2004). In a Canadian context, Misener and Doherty (2009, p.458) highlight that without strong capacity at the community level of sport, including access to adequate volunteers, facilities and strategic planning, the 'sport services that contribute to ... individual and societal benefits will be compromised'. Despite these calls for more government support at the grass roots level of sport, policy development has further emphasised top-down approaches, with the hosting of large-scale sport events becoming increasingly portrayed as an effective vehicle to increase participation in sport (Frawley et al., 2013).

Hosting Large-Scale Sport Events
Following the Montreal 1976 Olympic Games, Australian NSOs argued that the hosting of large-scale sport events on home soil would improve Australian athletes' access to international competition by encouraging international competitors to travel to Australia (Stewart et al., 2004). While the Melbourne 1956 Olympic Games and the Perth 1962 Commonwealth Games attracted ad hoc government support, predominantly by the relevant state governments (Shilbury & Kellett, 2011), it was

not until the 1980s that large-scale sport events became a prominent part of sport development policy (Stewart et al., 2004). The government at the time, the Hawke Labor Government, saw the potential benefits to sport, and at the same time recognised the potential economic and tourism benefits of hosting large-scale sport events, including opportunities for urban regeneration and increased tourism (Shilbury & Kellett, 2011; Stewart et al., 2004). The Hawke Labor Government's investment in large-scale sport events included:

- The Perth 1983 America's Cup Defence (federal funding of $30 million);

- The Adelaide Formula 1 Grand Prix (federal funding of $5 million); and

- The 1985 Australian Games (federal funding of $1.3 million) (Stewart et al., 2004).

The trend of Australian governments at various levels to invest in large-scale sport events and to justify their investments on the grounds of sport development has continued (Frawley et al., 2013). For instance, Australia hosted three of the world's biggest sporting events between the 2000 and 2006, including the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games; the 2003 Rugby World Cup; and the Melbourne 2006 Commonwealth Games.

In line with hallmark decision-making (see Section 2.2.2), governments in countries such as Australia and the UK have assumed that the hosting of large-scale sport events has a trickle-down effect, and leaves legacies for sport (Coalter, 2004; Gratton, Shibli, & Coleman, 2005; Hindson et al., 1994; Hogan & Norton, 2000; Salisbury, 2011; Veal et al., 2012). Types of legacies for sport that are commonly discussed include: increased participation (Brown & Massey, 2001; Coalter, 2007; Frawley et

al., 2013; Hindson et al., 1994; Toohey, 2010; Veal et al., 2012); enhanced facilities (Cashman & Darcy, 2008; S. Darcy, 2003; Kidd, 2003; McCloy, 2003; Parent, 2008b; Shipway, 2007; Weed et al., 2009); strengthened sport organisations (Cashman, 2006; Coalter, 2008; Parent, 2008b; Shipway, 2007); and improved sport policy (Kidd, 2003; Parent, 2008b).

This section provides an overview of each type of legacy from large-scale sport events. Table 7 provides an overview of types of legacies for sport, the assumed trickle-down effect, and arguments and/or evidence relating to each type of legacy.

Table 7: Summary of Types of Legacies for Sport, Assumed Trickle-Down Effect and Arguments and/or Evidence

Sport Legacies	Assumed Trickle-Down Effect	Arguments and/or Evidence
Increased Participation	Large-scale sport events enhance the profile of sport and project successful performances to audiences, which in turn attracts interest and encourages participation in sport (Hindson et al., 1994).	• Demonstration and Role Modelling Effects lead to increases in participation. Effects can be positive/ negative, and are typically short-term and restricted to those already active. Ineffective in encouraging sedentary people to become active (EdComs, 2007; London East Research Institute, 2007; Weed et al., 2009) • Media is only one aspect influencing participation behaviour (Bell & Blakey, 2010; SportScotland, 2004) • Recent studies show increases in participation possible, but strategy must be in place to realise these outcomes, they cannot be left to chance. Initiatives range from simple marketing campaigns at the club level, through to comprehensive development plans that include investment in product development, human resources, facilities and profiling of sport (Frawley & Cush, 2011; Hanstad & Skille, 2010; Hindson et al., 1994; SportScotland, 2004).
Enhanced Facilities	Refurbishment and/or development of new facilities for an event lead to increases in participation (Kidd, 2003; McCloy, 2003; Parent, 2008b; Shipway, 2007; Weed et al., 2009).	• Refurbishment and/or development of new facilities leads to: displacement effects (Parent, 2008b); uneven distribution of facilities (Weed et al., 2009); 'white elephants' (Cashman, 2006; Toohey, 2008); • Provision of facilities is only one aspect influencing participation behaviour (Cashman, 2006; EdComs, 2007; McCloy, 2003; Parent, 2008b; Toohey, 2010; Weed et al., 2009)
Strengthened Sport Organisations	Sport organisations interact with other organisations involved with a large-scale sport event, and experience organisational benefits (Cashman, 2006; Coalter, 2008; Parent, 2008b; Shipway, 2007).	• Limited evidence that large-scale sport events lead to strengthened sport organisations. • Financial gain – only one study of a single sport event creating a financial legacy for the sport (Frawley & Cush, 2011). Others suggest Olympic sports receive limited return on investments (Shilbury & Kellett, 2011); • Development of officials and volunteers – limited evidence in a sport development context to support this benefit (F. Darcy, 2001); • Increased knowledge and professionalism – process needs to be facilitated, evidence suggests sports learn internally over a series of events (Halbwirth & Toohey, 2013; Hanstad & Skille, 2010; Hodgett, Mummery, & Duncan, 2008). Lack of evidence to suggest sport organisations learn and enhance their capacity to deliver sporting opportunities from involvement in a single large-scale sport event.
Improved Sport Policy	Governments and sport organisations capitalise on interest in sport event, implement policy and encourage increased participation (Kidd, 2003; Parent, 2008b).	• Evidence suggests policy making for sport is geared towards making use of home town advantages and continued investment in elite sport performance, at the cost of investment in mass participation sport (Toohey, 2008, 2010).

Each of the types of legacies is elaborated below.

Increased Participation

'Increased participation' is the most frequently identified sport development legacy in the literature and public policy rhetoric (Frawley et al., 2013; Hindson et al., 1994; Toohey, 2010; Veal et al., 2012). However, the concept of increased participation is often very ambiguous in event bid documents and political rhetoric (Brown & Massey, 2001; Coalter, 2007; EdComs, 2007; London East Research Institute, 2007). Coalter (2007, p. 109) argues that there is often very little conceptual clarity over whether legacy refers to 'physical activity, recreational sport, competitive sport or elite sport'. The ambiguity surrounding this term is problematic when considering the differing priorities of sport organisations and neoliberal governments regarding the redefining of sport development for the purposes of elite sport performance (see Section 2.3.2).

In the context of this thesis, 'increased participation' refers to encouraging inactive and irregular sport participants to become more active more often (Brown & Massey, 2001; Shipway, 2007). Large-scale sport events enhance the profile of sport and project successful performances to audiences, which in turn is believed to attract interest and encourage participation in sport (Baade & Dye, 1990; Brown & Massey, 2001; Faber Maunsel, 2004; Gratton et al., 2005; Sotiriadou et al., 2008). Most literature supporting the trickle-down effect of large-scale sport events for increased participation is based on anecdotal evidence and there is limited population-level data to confirm or refute the trickle-down effect in terms of sustained increases in sport participation (Brown & Massey, 2001; Coalter, 2004, 2007; Frawley et al., 2009; Hindson et al., 1994; Hogan & Norton, 2000; London East Research Institute, 2007;

Murphy & Bauman, 2007; Veal & Frawley, 2009; Veal et al., 2012; Weed et al., 2009).

When trickle-down effects are discussed in terms increasing participation in sport, notions of a demonstration effect and a role modelling effect are often referred to (Hogan & Norton, 2000; Kidd, 2003; Weed et al., 2009). 'Demonstration effect' refers to the exposure of a sport in the media, and a resulting increase in interest and participation in the sport (Green, 2007; Hogan & Norton, 2000; Kidd, 2003; Stewart et al., 2004). 'Role modelling effect' refers to successful sporting heroes inspiring others to participate in sport and physical activity (Hogan & Norton, 2000; Weed et al., 2009). However, detractors of these effects argue that demonstration and role modelling effects are not always positive, and that instead negative consequences can also occur (EdComs, 2007; Weed et al., 2009). For instance, successful performances at large-scale sport events may not inspire all people, and some people may actually be discouraged to participate by a perceived competence gap between the athlete and themselves (Weed et al., 2009). For instance, where a person perceives a significant difference between themselves and the successful athlete, they are less likely to be motivated to pursue the sport in which the athlete is involved (Weed et al., 2009).

The only empirical evidence demonstrating noteworthy population level changes in participation in accordance with large-scale sport event policies in Australia include:

- Increased levels of inactivity, excessive weight and obesity between 1976 and 1998, a period during which successful Olympic performances by Australian athletes increased (Hogan & Norton, 2000); and

- Increased passive involvement, including the watching of sport, both live and televised around the same time as the hosting of the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games (Cashman et al., 2004; Toohey, 2008; Veal et al., 2012).

It is anticipated that where positive demonstration or role modelling effects may occur, they are generally only short lived and in most cases have been influenced by a number of factors, not just a successful performance by an athlete at an event (EdComs, 2007; London East Research Institute, 2007; Murphy & Bauman, 2007; Weed et al., 2009). These anecdotes regarding the impact of media on participation are supported by other empirical studies. For instance:

- Sport Scotland (2004) found media coverage of successful performances at events had a minor influence on the uptake of new sports (13%), compared to the more frequently cited influence of family and friends (45%); and

- Bell and Blakely (2010) found media coverage of the Euro 2005 Women's World Cup Football was effective in raising the profile of women's sport participation, however, the governing body's lack of inclusion of women and the inadequate provision of sporting opportunities inhibited increases in participation.

Studies that have found increases in participation in association with hosting a large-scale sport event have concluded that those attracted by large-scale sport event to try new sports are generally already active (Dickson, Phelps, Schofield, & Funk, 2009; SportScotland, 2004; Weed et al., 2009). There is limited research available to suggest that large-scale sport events encourage sedentary sport watchers to become active (Dickson et al., 2009; EdComs, 2007; SportScotland, 2004; Weed et al., 2009). Instead, mass participation events are the ones most likely to increase the sport and

physical activity participation of inactive people (Dickson et al., 2009; Weed et al., 2009). This is because mass participation events enable the festival effect to be leveraged and broad community participation in physical activity to be engendered (Weed et al., 2009).

Other studies show that increased participation can be attained in response to large-scale sport events but strategic frameworks must be in place to capitalise on events. Hindson et al. (1994) provide examples in which sports bodies in countries other than the host country have capitalised on successful performances in an event. Hindson et al. (1994) found that local sports club that identified successful performances at large-scale sport events, and put in place marketing strategies for their sports based on those successes, were likely to see increases in club membership. Similarly, SportScotland (2004) found that ice rinks and curling clubs that promoted their sports around the time of successful performances were more likely than other clubs to experience increases in participation and membership. Further, Hanstad and Skille (2010) found that the positive relationship between medal performances at world championships and increased membership numbers for Biathlon Norway were underpinned by a series of strategies implemented by the organisation aimed at developing their sport in conjunction with successful performances at events, including:

- Investing in new and upgraded facilities;
- Developing diverse opportunities for participation including types and formats of competition;
- Investing in the structure and coordination of skill development for participants at all levels of the sport;

- Investing in the development of volunteers, coaches and leaders within the sport; and

- Targeting specific groups typically underrepresented in the sport through marketing campaigns to encourage and grow their participation.

An example of a sport organisation hosting and capitalising on its own large-sale single-sport event is the Australian Rugby Union (ARU) through the 2003 Rugby World Cup (Frawley & Cush, 2011). The 2003 Rugby World Cup is one of the few events to demonstrate a positive relationship with increases in participation and membership, both before and after the event (Veal & Frawley, 2009; Veal et al., 2012). Frawley and Cush (2011, p. 74) found that these increases in participation rates were not attributable solely to the hosting of the event, but also to strategic efforts the ARU put in place before, during and after the event. Specific initiatives by the ARU included:

- Developing and delivering grassroots programs in communities before, during and after the event to encourage youth participation;

- Ensuring financial resources were available before and after the event to employ staff to develop the game ;

- Profiling and promoting the sport through the event, stimulating community interest and enabling young players to see high profile players in action; and

- Scheduling the event to run after the traditional rugby season to provide advantages to promote the event throughout the rugby season.

Veal et al. (2012) refer to this potential relationship between the hosting of a large-scale sport event and increases in participation as a direct trickle-down effect. In

addition to this direct effect, there are also indirect trickle-down effects, whereby other changes in the sport system brought about by the hosting of a large-scale sport event, indirectly facilitate and encourage increases in participation (Veal et al., 2012). These indirect, or supply-side, effects are discussed below.

Enhanced Facilities

'Enhanced Facilities' refers to the refurbishment of existing facilities and/or the development of new facilities for an event, which are often assumed by governments to lead to increases in participation (Essex & Chalkley, 2003; Faber Maunsel, 2004; Kidd, 2003; McCloy, 2003; Parent, 2008b; Shipway, 2007; Weed et al., 2009). While the provision of facilities may contribute to the capacity of a sport organisation to deliver sport opportunities, several researchers argue that the provision of facilities is not in itself an effective way to encourage increases in participation (Cashman, 2006; EdComs, 2007; McCloy, 2003; Parent, 2008b; Toohey, 2010; Weed et al., 2009). Rather, several arguments suggest refurbished and new facilities may have a negative impact on participation for the following reasons:

- Existing participants using sport facilities often experience displacement effects during refurbishments and event periods (Parent, 2008b).

- Facilities constructed for large-scale sport events can often lead to an uneven distribution of benefits across regions, sports and ends of the sport continuum (Weed et al., 2009).

- Badly planned facilities can become 'white elephants', that is, under-utilised and expensive to maintain (Weed et al., 2009). Permanent facilities constructed for the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games have attracted criticism as being 'white elephants', which required additional government expenditure to attract people into the

Olympic precinct and encourage them to use the facilities (Cashman, 2006; Toohey, 2008).

Strengthened Sport Organisations

'Strengthened Sports Organisations' refers to opportunities for sport organisations to benefit from interactions available through a large-scale sport event (Cashman, 2006; Coalter, 2008; Parent, 2008b; Shipway, 2007). There are three main areas typically discussed in the literature in relation to the enhanced capacity of sport organisations due to involvement with large-scale sport events:

- Financial gain;

- Development of officials and volunteers; and

- Increased knowledge and professionalism.

Involvement in large-scale sport events can be financially lucrative for sport organisations (Brown & Massey, 2001; Shilbury & Kellett, 2011). There is the potential for sport organisations to secure financial gains through media contracts, through commercial activities around hosting events, and through payments for sport services (Brown & Massey, 2001). The increased exposure for a sport can lead to potential sponsorship deals (Shilbury & Kellett, 2011). In the case of the Olympic Games, while the IOC distributes a percentage of monies earned through media contracts back to International Federations (IFs) and NSOs, Shilbury and Kellett (2011) suggest that some Olympic sports experience limited return on investment due to the cost of participating in the event in the first place. Beyond Frawley and Cush's (2011) work, which documented the Australian Rugby Union's (ARU) financial legacy from hosting the 2003 Rugby World Cup, there is scant empirical research to back up anecdotes that involvement in large-scale sport events provides financial legacies for sport organisations.

Large-scale sport events require officials and sport-specific volunteers to be qualified to deliver competitions at national or international standards. As such, large-scale sport events provide milestones for sport organisations to work towards in terms of developing the skills of existing officials and volunteers for high-level competition (Brown & Massey, 2001; Parent, 2008b; Shipway, 2007). However, there has been limited empirical investigation into the ability of large-scale sport events to increase the expertise of existing officials and volunteers.

Large-scale sport events also require many thousands of general event volunteers. It is often assumed that general event volunteers may be enticed to continue volunteering in their communities, providing a volunteering legacy (Doherty, 2009; Downward & Ralston, 2006; Smith & Fox, 2007; P. Williams, Dossa, & Tompkins, 1995). However, the transition from general event volunteering to community volunteering is not automatic, and it is something that must be managed. Even something as basic as the ongoing maintenance of the event volunteer list must be planned (Halbwirth & Toohey, 2013). Therefore, it should also not be assumed that general event volunteers will automatically transition into volunteering in community sport organisations. Darcy (2001) found that while events may raise the profile of volunteering, the resources dedicated to the management of volunteers increase volunteers' expectations of the benefits they will receive from volunteering (e.g. uniforms, catering, tickets to events). As local community sport organisations do not have the resources to offer equivalent volunteering opportunities and benefits, it is likely that the transition from volunteering at a large-scale sport event to volunteering in local sports clubs is quite limited.

Further, interactions among sport organisations and other stakeholders of large-scale sport events are expected to lead to increased knowledge and professionalism in sport organisations (Cashman, 2006; Coalter, 2008; Halbwirth & Toohey, 2013; Parent, 2008b; Shipway, 2007). These increases of knowledge and professionalism are anticipated to contribute to increased professionalism in relevant sport organisations, enhancing the capacity of sport organisations to deliver opportunities and experiences (Parent, 2008b). Some research into the information and knowledge transfer among stakeholders of large-scale sport events has examined the learning of event delivery skills by sport development stakeholders (Halbwirth & Toohey, 2013; Hanstad & Skille, 2010; Hodgett et al., 2008; Parent, 2012; Parent et al., 2014). This research overwhelmingly suggests that this knowledge transfer process is not automatic and must be facilitated (Halbwirth & Toohey, 2013; Hanstad & Skille, 2010; Hodgett et al., 2008; Parent et al., 2014). While these studies make important contributions to our understanding of the need to facilitate knowledge management and transfer processes to maximise learning outcomes, there is still a need for research to investigate knowledge transfer processes relating to supply-side enhancements for improved delivery of sport opportunities, because the processes for improving ongoing sport delivery differ to those of delivering one-off events.

Improved Sport Policy

'Improved Sport Policy' refers to an assumption that governments and sport organisations will be motivated to capitalise on the interest generated by large-scale sport events and implement policies to encourage increased participation (Kidd, 2003; Parent, 2008b). However, rather than aiming sport development policy at encouraging increases in sport participation and physical activity before and after the event, host

governments have focused on elite sport performance and event on hosts 'making the most of ... home-town advantage' (Toohey, 2010, p. 2770). For instance, the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games was identified by academics as an opportunity to reorient Australia's sport policy by establishing more of a balance between elite sport and mass participation (Cashman, 2006; Green & Collins, 2008; Stewart et al., 2004; Toohey, 2010). However, both the Sydney Olympic and Paralympic Games operated more as agents of elite sport, with elite sport continuing to profit at the expense of mass participation sport (Toohey, 2008). In particular, funding to Paralympic sports increased significantly after 2000, but this came at the cost of funding to other disability sport programs, which was problematic due to the underrepresentation of people with disabilities in the sport system (Cashman & Darcy, 2008).

While this section has identified and explored four main types of legacy commonly discussed in the academic literature, in practice, interrogation of legacy is often lacking (Veal et al., 2012). There is an absence of critique of the potential relationships and/or overlaps between legacies, cognisant of the complexity of sport systems conceptualised by Coalter (2004) as supply and demand sides of sport. Weed et al. (2009) argue that host city governments' discussion of sport legacies often lacks specificity and instead reflects all-encompassing notions of legacies. The ambiguous treatment of sport legacy is problematic, as Weed et al. (2009) argue that all-encompassing notions enable governments to claim the achievement of overall legacies based on developments in one area (e.g. construction of facilities), while hiding failures in other areas (e.g. sport participation).

In line with Weed et al.'s (2009), this section has demonstrated there is limited evidence available to confirm that the hosting of events has an automatic trickle-down effect, leading to increased participation (Frawley et al., 2013). Despite this limited evidence, Toohey (2010, p.2775) reports that 'potential event host cities, governments and sport governing bodies continue to claim that increased recreational sport participation is an anticipated legacy of the Olympic Games' and other large-scale sport events. Proponents of sport development legacies argue that large-scale sport events should provide value back to the sport system that supports the hosting of events (Cashman, 2006; Shipway, 2007; Toohey, 2008). Toohey (2008, p.1959) argues that the value of hosting large-scale sport events should not only be considered 'in terms of medals won during the games ... but more importantly, in terms of increased participation in sport after the event'. The next section looks at research that demonstrates that when comprehensive planning is in place, large-scale sport events play an important role in securing sport development legacies.

2.3.3 Planning for Sport Development Legacies

Instead of relying on automatic trickle-down effects, there is an overwhelming call in sport development literature for large-scale sport events to be integrated into broader plans for sport development (Cashman et al., 2004; Coalter, 2004, 2007; Frawley & Cush, 2011; Hanstad & Skille, 2010; Hindson et al., 1994; Shipway, 2007; SportScotland, 2004; Taks et al., 2009; Toohey, 2008, 2010; Veal & Frawley, 2009; Veal et al., 2012; Weed et al., 2009). Coalter (2004, p.98) highlights the importance of integration and investment in sport systems when he argues the lack of increases in sport participation and physical activity stemming from the hosting of large-scale sport events are due to 'supply-side failures' of relevant sport organisations. Coalter

(2004) argues sport organisations need to be prepared to benefit from the raised profile of their sport generated by a large-scale event. This is consistent with Chelladurai's (2001) systems view of sport in which the different aspects of opportunities and participation are interrelated and interdependent.

To cater for and encourage increased demand in participation, investments and developments are required for facilities, opportunities for participation, volunteers, officials, community engagement and skill development programs, to name a few (Frawley & Cush, 2011; Hanstad & Skille, 2010; Shipway, 2007). However, there is a dearth of research and understanding as to how this should be operationalised (Veal et al., 2012). Veal et al. (2012, p.176) suggested that to capitalise on large-scale sport events and 'achieve a sport participation legacy, it is necessary to know what levers to pull.'

Investigations into the ARU's hosting of the 2003 Rugby World Cup and Biathlon Norway's integration of successful performances at the world championship into sport development plans provide valuable insights. However, there remains limited research and understanding of how sport development stakeholders participating in large-scale multi-sport events might capitalise on these events. Integration of large-scale multi-sport events bring particular challenges as host governments often conceive and implement events as top-down initiatives (see Section 2.2). Consequently, relevant sport organisations are generally involved in conducting the sport competitions for the events, but will have limited input into the decision-making processes for an event. The top-down nature of these events means there is a need to better understand how sport organisations may integrate large-scale multisport events into their existing

plans for development, if sport development legacies have been articulated in policy documents related to such events.

The presence of various stakeholders brings challenges regarding responsibility and coordination for securing sport development legacies (Cashman, 2006; Cashman & Horne, 2013; Coalter, 2004; Kidd, 2003; McCloy, 2003; Veal et al., 2012). The notion of legacy governance is beginning to gain momentum in the academic literature (Leopkey & Parent, 2013), but there remains a need to understand the allocation of responsibility and the coordination required to secure sport development legacies (Cashman & Horne, 2013). A summary of anecdotal recommendations for the allocation of responsibility derived from the literature is included in Table 8.

Table 8: Recommendations for Allocating Responsibility for Securing Sport Development Legacies from Large-Scale Sport Events

Stakeholder	Responsibilities
Event governing bodies (i.e. event owners)	Provide more reasons for host cities to encourage mass sport participation and Sport For All in conjunction with hosting large-scale sport events. Do not leave these legacies to chance (Cashman, 2006; Kidd, 2003; McCloy, 2003).
Event organising committees	Include 'sports legacy champion[s]' on committees to advocate for sport development legacies and liaise with sport organisations so they are encouraged to capitalise on the opportunities presented by large-scale sport events (Coalter, 2004, p. 99).
Sport agencies and sport organisations relevant to the host city	Exploit large-scale sport events for their own purposes and objectives, including boosting sports participation (Frawley et al., 2013; Veal et al., 2012).

In summary, in response to a lack of evidence supporting the trickle-down effect of large-scale sport events, the academic literature calls for such events to be integrated into broader plans for sport development. However, there exists a gap in our understanding as to how to do this and maximise benefits to sport from hosting large-scale sport events. The following section introduces the concepts of event legacy and event leverage, which have evolved predominantly to maximise the benefits of large-

scale sport events in tourism and urban development settings. This literature is reviewed to determine what might be applicable to an analysis of securing sport development legacies.

2.4 Maximising Benefits from Large-Scale Sport Events

2.4.1 Concepts and Models

This section introduces two concepts that have been developed to maximise benefits from large-scale sport events. The two concepts introduced in this section are: 1) event legacy, and 2) event leverage. These two concepts have been developed independently of one another since the 1990s in response to the lack of positive outcomes demonstrated in event impact studies (Cashman, 2003; Chalip, 2004; Preuss, 2007). The application of these concepts to large-scale sport events and sport development has attracted predominantly anecdotal discussions (Taks et al., 2009; Weed et al., 2009). There has been scant empirical research carried out. The following section provides an overview of the knowledge relating to each of these concepts and highlights the possibilities and challenges that these concepts offer in terms of maximising sport development legacies from large-scale sport events.

2.4.2 Event Legacy

Expectations of Events

Large-scale sport events have emerged as a legitimate area of public policy due to the perceived solutions to urban problems they provide (see Section 2.2). Smith and Fox (2007, p.1126) explain that host cities have been 'seemingly unsatisfied with [the role of sport events] merely as cultural celebrations or athletic endeavours' and are increasingly attempting to use 'sport events strategically to achieve urban

regeneration'. This regeneration is not limited to physical infrastructure developments in cities, but has also extended to include social and environmental aspects as well (Smith & Fox, 2007). These developments associated with hosting large-scale sport events are commonly termed legacies.

One area that politicians and policy makers see large-scale sport events benefiting is sport development (see Section 2.3). The literature has highlighted that even in situations where there has been no explicit objective of securing sport development legacies from a large-scale sport event; there are often expectations by sports officials and the general public that events will generate benefits for sport (Toohey, 2010; Veal et al., 2012). The anticipated benefits to sport are often used by bid or host cities to encourage wide community support and ensure ongoing support for large-scale sport events (Veal et al., 2012). This in turn creates expectations, as Toohey (2010, p. 2772) explains in the case of the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games, 'the federal government's investment in the games ... [meant] there were also expectations that recreational sport would be a beneficiary of the legacy that the games would provide. One prospect was that the nation's recreational sport participation would increase'. However, the benefits promised by bid cities are not always delivered, and the following review of the literature looks at why this is so.

Politicised Nature of Legacy
The increased tendency of bid cities to promise benefits from hosting large-scale sport events has occurred at a pace much quicker than the increased conceptual understanding of legacy (Preuss, 2007). The development of theories regarding event legacy has been post-hoc and mostly in reaction to a lack of benefits, or the presence of negative legacies (Chalip, 2004). Although the concept of event legacies emerged

in the academic literature in the early 1990s (Getz, 1991), event legacy is still often referred to as being ephemeral and elusive (Cashman, 2006; de Moragas, Kennett, & Puig, 2003; Essex & Chalkley, 2003; Girginov & Hills, 2008; Gratton & Preuss, 2008; Matheson, 2010; Preuss, 2007).

Legacy has remained ephemeral and elusive due to the political interests of one of the most influential event governing bodies in the world, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) (MacAloon, 2008). MacAloon (2008, p.2065) argues that the IOC has promoted 'legacy talk', that is, a discourse that seeks to promote the legacy concept. Legacy talk is seen to have developed to curb criticism of the Olympic movement and to sustain global support (c.f. MacAloon, 2008; Veal et al., 2012). Legacy talk sees governments and event owners treat legacy as a vague and simplistic concept, pitched as a desirable outcome for host cities, but it has attracted very little critique (MacAloon, 2008). As such, MacAloon's (2008) notion of legacy talk has consistencies with the hallmark decision-making of large-scale sport events (see Section 2.2.2). One of MacAloon's (2008, p. 2065) arguments particularly resonates with Roche's (1994) description of hallmark decision-making, in that the IOC's legacy talk is considered to result in host city governments and event organising committees:

> Promising their citizens only the vaguest fiscal, image or development benefits, while actually offering only real estate or political projects masquerading as Olympic legacy but probably benefiting only the few, or else presenting grandiose schemes of urban renewal and development unlikely ever to be funded or completed on budget.

MacAloon (2008) argues that it is unlikely that meaningful engagement with legacy, or subsequent developments, is likely to occur due to the lack of meaningful engagement by event governing bodies and host governments with notions of legacy.

Alongside the critical perspective of legacy provided by MacAloon (2008), a growing body of academic work has sought to provide greater conceptual understanding of event legacy and inform processes by which legacies from large-scale sport events may be realised. Chalip (2004) and Matheson (2010) argue that the increased interrogation and scrutiny of legacies from large-scale sport events offer an opportunity for greater understanding of the complexities and challenges of securing legacies from large-scale sport events. Chalip (2004) argues that the justification of events through promises of specific outcomes means governments have a moral obligation to deliver the best outcomes possible. Where outcomes are not delivered, then 'taxpayers may eventually demand an end to the public subsidies on which events commonly rely' (Chalip, 2004, p. 228). Further, Matheson (2010, p. 20) points out that governments are under increased pressure to 'demonstrat[e] that public expenditure [on events] reaps a suitably positive return on investment'.

One of the most commonly used definitions of legacy is offered by Preuss (2007, p. 211): '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'. With this definition as a basis, Preuss (2007) proposes a Legacy Cube, illustrated in Figure 2 below, by which to conceptualise event legacy. As indicated, three dimensions make up the Legacy Cube, including: 1) the planned or unplanned nature of event legacy; 2) the tangible or intangible nature of event legacy; and 3) the positive or negative nature of event legacy. Each of these dimensions is elaborated below.

Figure 2: Legacy Cube

planned

unplanned

intangible

tangible

negative   positive
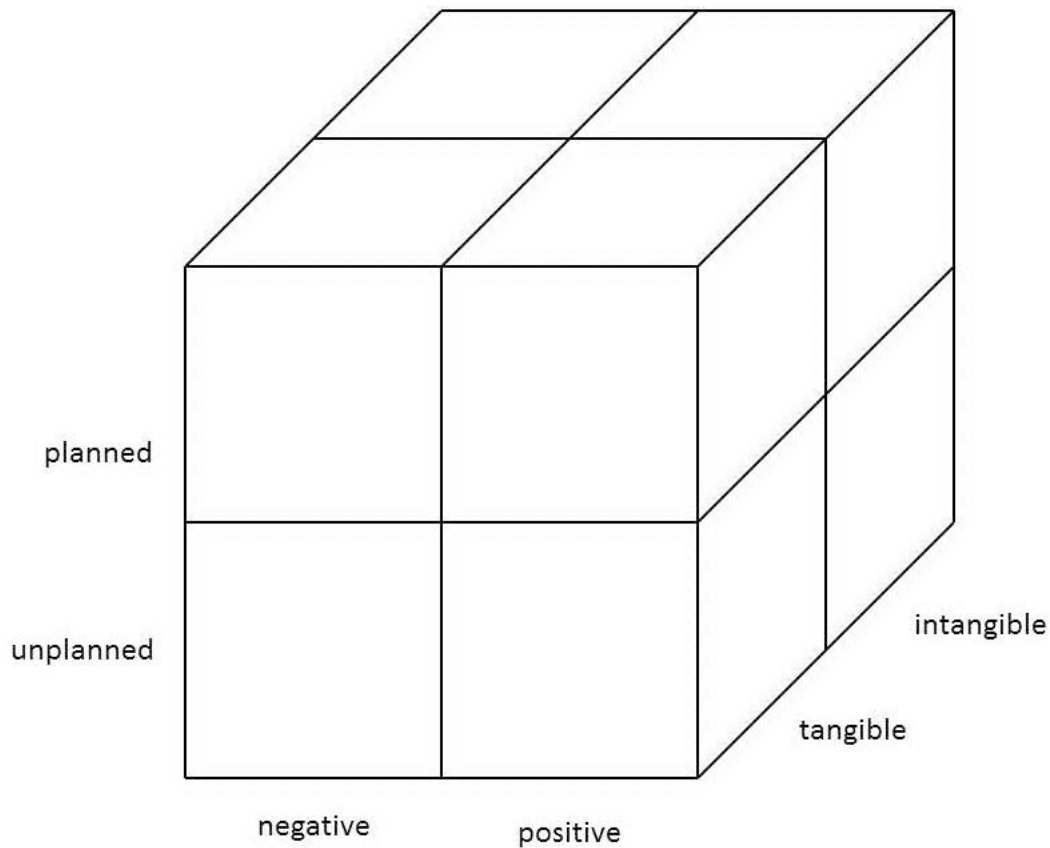
Source: Preuss (2007, p. 211)

Dimensions of Legacy

Legacy as Planned or Unplanned

This dimension highlights the need for governments and/or event organising committees to implement planning frameworks to secure bid promises (Gratton & Preuss, 2008; Preuss, 2007). The literature highlights the importance of planning for legacy, as opposed to expecting that legacies will just occur automatically (Chalip, 2003; Essex & Chalkley, 2003; Getz, 2005; Gratton & Preuss, 2008; Hiller, 1999; Kidd, 2003; Matheson, 2010; McCloy, 2003; Preuss, 2007). It is unsurprising then, that this dimension of planned legacies has attracted more coverage in the literature than any other dimension identified in Preuss's (2007) Legacy Cube.

An increasing body of literature has demonstrated that the most effective legacy planning occurs when large-scale sport events are embedded in the broader plans of the event hosts (Frawley & Cush, 2011; Garcia, 2003; Gratton & Preuss, 2008; Masterman, 2003; Matheson, 2010; Preuss, 2007; Ritchie, 2000; Spilling, 1996; Veal et al., 2012). That is, legacy is not something to consider only at the conclusion of an event. Rather, legacy planning must be in place from early on in the event planning process. For instance, critiques of the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games (Toohey, 2010; Veal et al., 2012) and Athens 2004 Olympic Games (Kissoudi, 2008) highlight the lack of pre-event planning for the long-term usage of newly developed Olympic precincts. In both of these cases, responsible governments put concerted efforts into the legacy planning only after the Games were finished. This post hoc approach meant that opportunities to capitalise on the momentum of the Games were lost and to gain the anticipated benefits, governments need to spend more public money to make the precincts sustainable for community use (Kissoudi, 2008; Toohey, 2010; Veal et al., 2012).

Legacy as Tangible or Intangible

Tangible legacies are much easier to conceptualise because you can see and/or touch them directly (Preuss, 2007). The economic impact of an event is considered tangible because it can be quantified (Preuss, 2007). Tangible legacies, including urban planning and sport infrastructure, are more commonly recognised and discussed than intangible legacies, which include destination image and civic pride (Preuss, 2007). Due to the ability to quantify and demonstrate tangible legacies, forecasting, planning and evaluation have focused on these types of legacies.

However, research is increasingly demonstrating that tax payers in host cities place much more value on the intangible aspects of events, rather than the tangible aspects (Andersson et al., 2004; Eftec, 2005). The intangible aspects are also recognised as playing an important role stimulating economic and other development over the long-term, beyond the short-term tourism activity associated with hosting a large-scale sport event (Preuss, 2007). However, research and understanding of intangible legacies is only just gaining momentum and warrants further investigation.

Legacy as Positive or Negative

While event bids are predominantly motivated by the positive, or desirable, potential legacies (Essex & Chalkley, 2003; Getz, 1991; Gratton & Preuss, 2008; Hiller, 1999; Preuss, 2003, 2007), there are many examples of negative legacies from hosting sport events. In some cases, the judgement of whether a legacy is positive or negative can be matter of perspective (Matheson, 2010). Chappelet (2003, p. 55) highlights this by indicating that 'although the term 'legacy' has positive connotations, the value of an impact can be both favorable and less so'. For instance, two stakeholders may have very different views of the same outcome. Policy makers and business elites may perceive a rejuvenated public space and business precinct as a positive legacy. In contrast, lower socioeconomic groups may perceive the development as a negative legacy due to social displacement and disruption to community that occurs due to rezoning legislation, and increased land values and rental prices (Garcia, 2003; Searle, 2002).

In addition, policy makers and event organising committees have been criticised for often failing to acknowledge and account for the sometimes negative legacies of

large-scale events (Hall, 2006; Lenskyj, 1998, 2002; Preuss, 2003, 2007; Searle, 2002). For instance, under-utilised sports arenas have presented ongoing costs to host cities (Gold & Gold, 2007; Kasimati, 2003; Preuss, 2007). While recognition of the need to plan to secure and maximise the desired positive legacies is now commonplace in most academic literature, Preuss (2007) highlights that there continues to be a need to research and understand the unplanned, or unanticipated, and intangible legacies of large-scale sport events.

Event-themed versus Event-led Legacy

Smith and Fox (2007) champion the idea of event-themed rather than event-led approaches to maximising the benefits of hosting large-scale sport events. They provide an alternative understanding to Preuss's (2007) Legacy Cube. They argue that host cities that have embedded the hosting of events within existing plans for development and policy contexts have been more effective at securing event legacies than cities that have relied on the hosting of events to encourage development (Carrière & Demazière, 2002; Matheson, 2010; Smith & Fox, 2007). Importantly, Smith and Fox (2007, p.1129) argue that 'cities should aim to build upon the existing resources of an area, rather than overriding them'.

Cities that have pursued an event-themed approach are those in which regeneration was set to occur, and the hosting of a large-scale sport event merely accelerated the process (Matheson, 2010). One of the most commonly referenced events that reflects the event-themed approach in terms of urban regeneration is the Barcelona 1992 Olympic Games (Matheson, 2010; Smith & Fox, 2007). Politicians and developers had discussed a vision of urban development for the city of Barcelona for over 25 years. The bidding and winning of the 1992 Olympic Games provided impetus and a

deadline for fulfilling the vision of urban development, which included infrastructure, housing, commercial, telecommunications, and tourism developments (Smith & Fox, 2007). Twenty years on, the strategy undertaken by Barcelona continues to be considered best practice for the event-themed urban regeneration of a city (Matheson, 2010).

More recently, there has been a shift of emphasis in event-related policy from urban regeneration towards social regeneration, as it has become apparent that investment in tangible infrastructure does 'not necessarily 'trickle down' to local people and small businesses' (Smith & Fox, 2007, p.1128). The Manchester 2002 Commonwealth Games is a commonly referenced event reflecting the event-themed approach in terms of social regeneration (ECOTEC Research & Consulting, 2005; M. Jones & Stokes, 2003; Matheson, 2010). The host government linked the bidding and winning of this event to Manchester's longer-term urban regeneration strategy. For Manchester, a Commonwealth Games-themed program of economic and social regeneration initiatives was successful in gaining funding through a government grants scheme dedicated to regeneration initiatives. In this case, the government saw the Commonwealth Games as a hook means of drawing attention to programs and engaging people who would not typically get involved with social regeneration programs. The research investigating these programs attests to the success of these innovative programs and approaches in the lead-up to the event (ECOTEC Research & Consulting, 2005; Matheson, 2010; Smith & Fox, 2007). However, the post-event sustainability of these programs needed more consideration in terms of 'forward strategies,' as many of the programs lacked post-event planning (Smith & Fox, 2007, p.1138).

In addition, Smith and Fox (2007) highlight that as part of this event-themed approach, it was important to consult local communities in the creation and implementation of urban development and event legacy plans and to achieve a balance between top-down and bottom-up aspirations and the delivery of initiatives to secure legacies. More recently, Matheson (2010, p.11) has extended on this notion of event-themed development by emphasising the importance of policy makers identifying the 'state of play,' that is, developing an understanding of the potential facilitators and inhibitors that exist in an area targeted for legacy. Matheson (2010) also believes that a lack of effort to maintain community support presents a risk for legacy, as unless there is community buy-in, the impacts of an event may be limited. However, consistent with the arguments made in Section 2.2.2, there may be tension if stakeholders are not consulted, but still expected to contribute securing legacies determined at the top level. For these reasons, Smith and Fox (2007, p.1130) indicate that, in practice, there may be an 'incompatibility of short-lived events with long-term planning' (Smith & Fox, 2007, p.1130).

Responsibility for Legacy

In the case of the Manchester 2002 Commonwealth Games, Smith and Fox (2007, p.1139) found that the most positive results in the event-themed legacy program came about when 'a permanent Legacy Programme Co-ordinator was in post (from 2000)'. This provides a powerful case for the allocation of responsibility for legacy to a coordinating body, but there is limited consensus as to who should be responsible for coordinating and resourcing legacy. Allen et al. (2008) suggest that giving the responsibility for event legacy activities to event organising committees may be problematic for two main reasons. First, they already have significant responsibilities in planning and implementing successful delivery of an event. Second, they often

have limited resources and host governments dismantle the temporary organisations soon after event delivery.

While it may be unrealistic to give event organising committees full responsibility for securing legacy, it must be acknowledged that they at least have a role to play, amongst many other stakeholders (Smith & Fox, 2007). From an urban development perspective, Smith and Fox (2007, p.1130) argue:

> Delivering a successful event, whilst ensuring a positive legacy, requires effective co-ordination between Games organisers, regeneration agencies, different levels of government, local businesses and community representatives. Event management bodies tend to concentrate on logistics and marketing, with regeneration and legacy considerations left to conventional urban authorities. This division of responsibility, plus the increasing tendency to establish private-sector event management 'companies', can result in event organisers being artificially divorced from urban governments. This reduces opportunities for regeneration.

Therefore, while there is a case for event organising committees not to be responsible for coordinating and securing legacy, they still need to be sensitive to the importance of legacy and they need to ensure that stakeholders that share the responsibility for legacy understand how to integrate an event into existing development plans to ensure lasting legacies (Smith & Fox, 2007).

Evaluating Legacy

The evaluation of legacy has also come under scrutiny. Evaluation of legacy is rare (Cashman, 2006). Attempts to establish baseline data, and to capture consistent and comparable data to demonstrate event legacies, are often limited (Brown & Massey, 2001; Dickson et al., 2009). In addition, a long-term perspective is needed to determine if legacies have been sustained over the long-term (Matheson, 2010). For instance, Gratton and Preuss (2008) suggest that a timeframe of 15 to 20 years is

needed to determine the true worth of legacies. Such a long timeframe also brings with it issues of attribution (Preuss, 2007; Weed et al., 2009).

Where evaluations of legacy have occurred, they are often celebratory and lacking in critique (Cashman, 2006). The literature has criticised evaluations for focusing only on planned, positive, tangible legacies of events (Matheson, 2010; Preuss, 2007) and failing to 'sufficiently compare outcomes with the stated objectives made to the host city at the time of the bid' (Cashman, 2006, p.18). In terms of stated objectives, Weed et al. (2009) highlight that many studies of sport development legacies have provided unfair assessments of the impact of events on sport development, as many events do not explicitly set sport development objectives.

Recently there have been efforts to address these criticisms of legacy evaluation. For example, in the early 2000s, the IOC formalised commitments to sport development legacies by implementing an evaluation framework – the Olympic Games Impact (OGI). Olympic bid cities are now obliged to respond to sport development-related questions in the IOC's Candidature Procedure and Questionnaire, and host cities are obliged to capture data across a number of indicators 'beginning two years before the election of the host city and continuing until two years after the event' (Veal et al., 2012, p. 161). The indicators cover a range of economic, social, and environmental factors.

While the inclusion of sport development-related legacy questions in the IOC Questionnaire is a step forward, Veal et al. (2012) argue that some of the questions are problematic. For example, sport development is not defined in the questionnaire,

which means that rather than focusing on Sport For All (i.e. mass participation) legacies, bid city responses may focus solely on elite sport development and still meet the IOC's criteria (Veal et al., 2012). Veal et al.'s (2012) appraisal of the new sport development-related legacy questions resonates with MacAloon's (2008) critique of the IOC's notion of legacy more generally, with doubts about how meaningful the IOC's engagement with legacy is and with doubts about the depth of its commitment to securing legacies for host cities. Veal et al. (2012) acknowledge that while the IOC's legacy developments are not perfect, they do demonstrate an evolution from 'rhetorical commitment[s]' to Sport For All, to a 'formal requirement imposed on bidding cities to commit and plan for a sport participation legacy' (Veal et al., 2012, p. 176). It is anticipated that the OGI project and updated Candidature Procedure and Questionnaire will encourage host cities to take an *ex ante* approach to legacies, including those for sport development.

In summary, this section has provided an overview of the concept of event legacy, and specifically sport development legacy, outlining the potential for large-scale sport events to contribute in a myriad of ways to host cities. This section also highlighted the highly politicised nature of event strategies and event legacy promises and the challenges these influences present to securing sustainable, long-term legacies for host cities. The next section introduces the second concept related to maximising benefits from large-scale sport events, event leverage.

2.4.3 Event Leverage

Pragmatic Perspective towards Maximising Benefits of Large-Scale Sport Events

The study of event leverage emerged in response to the limited benefits demonstrated for host cities during the 1990s, and the limited understanding of the relationships between sport events and the anticipated tourism and economic outcomes (Chalip, 2001). Compared with the notion of event legacy, the conceptualisation and investigation of event leverage has been driven by a smaller group of academics (Chalip, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2006; Gardiner & Chalip, 2006; Kellett et al., 2008; O'Brien, 2005, 2006, 2007; O'Brien & Chalip, 2008; Sparvero & Chalip, 2007). For this reason, there is a much narrower range of literature on event leverage.

Chalip (2001) suggests that policy makers had missed a critical point: that event impacts and legacies are only as good as the strategic planning implemented to support them. Chalip (2004, p. 245) argues, 'it is no longer suitable merely to host an event in the hope that desired outcomes will be achieved; it is necessary to form and implement strategies and tactics that capitalise fully on the opportunities each event affords'. As such, stakeholders should be attempting to leverage events to gain the maximum benefit (Chalip, 2002, 2004).

Event leverage is defined as a process of identifying a sport event as an opportunity, and planning and implementing a series of strategies and tactics to ensure that desired outcomes can be achieved (Bramwell, 1997; Chalip, 2002, 2004, 2006; Morse, 2001; O'Brien, 2005; O'Brien & Chalip, 2007, 2008; O'Brien & Gardiner, 2006; Ritchie, 2000). It has been argued that studies of event leverage differ from studies of event impacts and legacies because of their different focuses (O'Brien & Chalip, 2007,

2008). Event impact and legacy studies typically take an *ex post* focus where consultants measure impacts at the end of an event (O'Brien & Chalip, 2007, 2008). In contrast, event leverage studies take an *ex ante* focus and look at the strategies to put in place in the lead-up to an event to increase the chances of realising desired outcomes (O'Brien & Chalip, 2007, 2008). O'Brien and Chalip (2008, p. 322) argue that while the *ex post* focus of impact and legacy studies has been useful for understanding the extent of event impacts, impact and legacy studies have provided limited insights into 'why or how particular impacts occur or are absent'. O'Brien and Chalip (2008, p. 319) explain that an event leverage perspective demands a 'more strategic approach that looks forward to planning how host communities can derive sustainable benefits from sport events'.

Process-Oriented Framework of Event Leverage: Tourism and Economic Event Leverage

The development of the concept of event leverage has relied on investigations of events that have developed and implemented strategic planning initiatives. For instance, the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games greatly influenced the development of the tourism and economic event leverage literature, as it was the first event of its kind to have a strategic program in place to leverage an event to maximise tourism (Chalip, 2001, 2002; Morse, 2001) and business outcomes (O'Brien, 2005, 2006; O'Brien & Gardiner, 2006). Lessons learned from the Sydney 2000 Olympics saw the government implement further event leverage strategies for economic outcomes around the 2003 Rugby World Cup in Australia (O'Brien & Chalip, 2008). The perceived benefits of these programs also saw event leverage strategies for economic outcomes implemented by the host cities of the 2002, 2006 and 2010 Commonwealth Games, and every Olympic Games since Sydney 2000 (O'Brien & Chalip, 2008).

Chalip (2004) presents a schematic representation of event leverage, as illustrated in Figure 3. His model is informed by his observations of the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games and by other event research (Chalip, 2001; Chalip & Leyns, 2002). Chalip identifies a four-stage process required for effective event leverage. The four stages, as represented in the schematic representation of event leverage, include:

1. Leverageable resource – locating the host city's portfolio of events as a leverageable resource;

2. Opportunity – identifying the event visitors and trade, and the event media associated with a host city's portfolio of events, as opportunities to capitalise on and meet strategic objectives;

3. Strategic objectives – aligning strategic objectives to take advantage of the opportunities, including:

   • Optimising total trade and revenue, to address short-term gain; and

   • Enhancing the host destination's image, to address potential long-term tourism benefits.

4. Means – implementing the means or strategies and tactics needed to ensure the strategic objectives are met (See Figure 3 for the specific strategies) (Chalip, 2004).

Figure 3: Chalip's (2004) Schematic Representation of Event Leverage
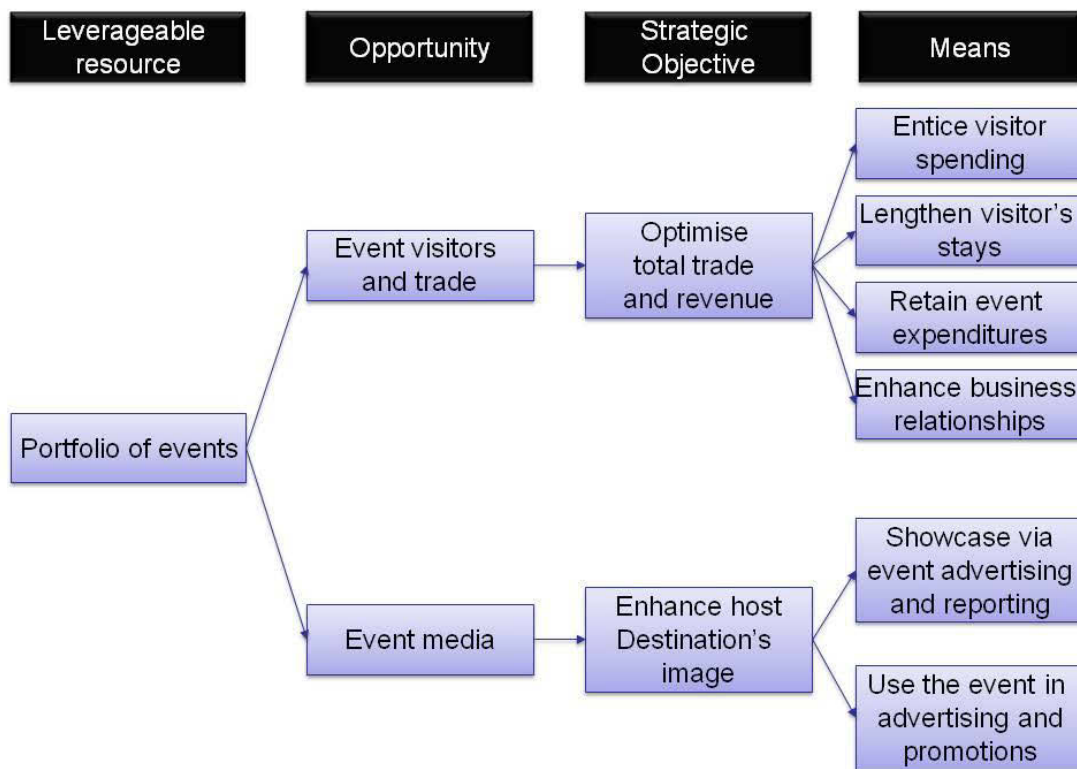
(Source: Chalip, 2004, p. 229)

Broadening of Event Leverage for Social Objectives

More recently, event leverage scholars have followed broader trends in the literature to engage with principles of sustainability and they have set out to develop a similar schema for social event leverage (Chalip, 2006; O'Brien & Chalip, 2008). Importantly, Chalip (2006) highlights that for events to be leveraged for social outcomes, there needs to be a basis of liminality (that is, sociability and celebration) and communitas (that is, a sense of community). Liminality and communitas create a safe and secure environment where sensitive issues can be raised and discussed (Chalip, 2006). This environment is also conducive to creating relationships and networks that can help build organisational capacity to raise awareness about social issues and encourage people to contribute to solutions if that is the desired outcome (Chalip, 2006). Based on his observations of the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games Chalip

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(2006) developed a model, 'Objectives and means for cultivating liminality' (see Appendix 3).

Developing on these concepts of communitas and liminality, O'Brien and Chalip (2007, 2008) adapted Chalip's (2004) model to represent the processes required for effective event leverage for social outcomes, illustrated below in Figure 4. This time the four stages are:

1. Leverageable resource – locating the liminality present around an event as the leverageable resource;

2. Opportunity – identifying the communitas, or sense of community, and the event media associated with an event as providing opportunities to capitalise on;

3. Strategic objectives – aligning strategic objectives to take advantage of the opportunities, including:

    • Focusing event stakeholders' attention on targeted social issues to raise awareness in the short term; and

    • Using the event media to set/change the community agenda for targeted social issues over the long-term.

4. Means – implementing the means, or the strategies and tactics needed to ensure the strategic objectives are met (see Figure 4 for specific means) (O'Brien & Chalip, 2008).

Figure 4: O'Brien and Chalip's (2007, 2008) Proposed Model for Social Event Leverage
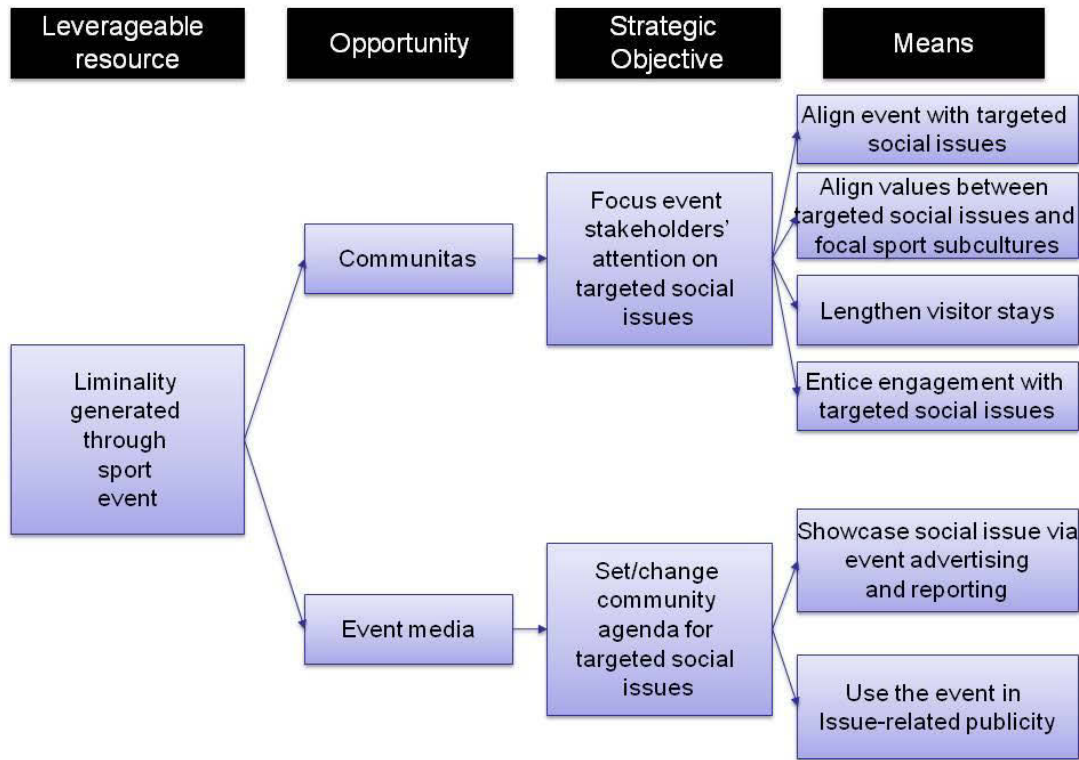
Source: O'Brien & Chalip (2007, p.301; 2008, p.324)

O'Brien and Chalip (2007, 2008) acknowledge the similarities between the earlier model for event leverage for economic outcomes (Chalip, 2004) and their more recent model for social outcomes. They argue that in many cases, the application of social event leverage by targeting opportunities to socialise and celebrate not only provides a platform for achieving broader social outcomes, but also entices visitor spending, thus contributing to both social and economic outcomes. While O'Brien and Chalip (2007, 2008) suggest that social event leverage may inadvertently lead to increased spending and economic outcomes, Chalip (2006) cautions that the relationship will not necessarily occur in the opposite direction, as focusing on economic outcomes can often be detrimental to the cultivation of liminality and communitas. Further, O'Brien

and Chalip (2008) point out that event leverage for social outcomes brings new and different considerations compared to economic outcomes.

These event leverage models are useful in that they set out a schematic process to guide the efforts of event stakeholders to maximise benefits of large-scale sport events. Chalip (2004) and O'Brien and Chalip (2008) acknowledge that the event leverage models are simplistic representations of processes, and that there are more complex influences that warrant further understanding, particularly in the case of social event leverage. O'Brien and Chalip (2008) highlight that the development and implementation of social event leverage strategies has been stunted for reasons including:

- The political expediency of economic development means governments give preference to economic leverage strategies

- The limited financial returns of causes promoting social and public good fail to encourage stakeholder action, with such outcomes benefitting marginalised and disenfranchised groups rather than more powerful business elites; and

- Government fears that social event leverage processes may highlight the deficiencies of governments and their policies.

These reasons are underpinned by Chalip's (2004) arguments that economic leverage activities have come to be institutionalised in the hosting of large-scale sport events. For instance, relevant government departments and industry bodies now typically have established agencies tied into inter-government and public-private networks that are ready to be mobilised as the opportunity arises to capitalise on the economic opportunities afforded by events (Stokes, 2006; 2007). In contrast, social event

leverage, including leverage for sport development legacies, have not experienced such institutionalisation and remain underdeveloped. Chalip's (2004) arguments are supported by research that has found that although tourism and sport stakeholders recognise the potential benefits of collaborating in the hosting of sport events, there is limited evidence of them working together to realise these opportunities (Weed, 2001, 2003; Weed & Bull, 1997).

Factors Influencing Stakeholder Engagement in Event Leverage Activities

Empirical investigations of event leverage have found that various influences have impacted on event leverage initiatives, meaning longer-term benefits, or legacies were not realised to their full potential. Six main themes that impact on the effectiveness of the event leverage process came through in the review of the empirical event leverage literature:

1. Setting clear event leverage objectives (Kellett et al., 2008);

2. Building strategic relationships with key stakeholders (Chalip, 2002; Kellett et al., 2008; O'Brien, 2005, 2006, 2007; O'Brien & Gardiner, 2006);

3. Coordinating and resourcing to achieve event leverage objectives (Chalip 2002; Chalip & Leyns, 2002; O'Brien, 2007; Kellett et al., 2008);

4. Structuring the network of stakeholders in line with event leverage objectives (O'Brien, 2005, 2006); and

5. Understanding the willingness and ability of stakeholders to identify and capitalise on opportunities (Chalip & Leyns, 2002; Kellett et al., 2008).

These influences are explored in more depth below, with particular emphasis on researchers' recommendations to address these issues and improve approaches to event leverage for future events and maximise outcomes and legacies from them.

1. Clear Event Leverage Objectives

Setting clear event leverage objectives is identified by Kellett et al. (2008) in relation to a social event leverage program around the Melbourne 2006 Commonwealth Games, but event leverage objectives are not mentioned in the empirical research pertaining to economic event leverage. Kellett et al. (2008) found that the Victorian Government's attempt to have a loosely defined framework to encourage the development and implementation of locally relevant initiatives for cultural exchange and social impact resulted in mixed uptake and therefore mixed outcomes across different local council areas. Kellett et al. (2008) suggests that the setting of clear event leverage objectives by coordinating organisations may better encourage stakeholder commitment to a defined legacy vision and enable them to interpret, shape and implement initiatives to leverage an event at the local level.

2. Strategic Relationship Building

Building strategic relationships with key stakeholders has been identified as being essential to leverage for both economic and social outcomes from events (Chalip, 2002; Kellett et al., 2008; O'Brien, 2005, 2006, 2007; O'Brien & Gardiner, 2006). Strategic relationship building includes three main elements: stakeholder identification, when to build relationships, and the importance of maintaining these relationships post-event to ensure outcomes post-event. Empirical findings related to each of these points are provided in Table 9.

Table 9: Empirical Findings relating to Strategic Relationship Building

Strategic Relationship Building	Empirical Findings
Stakeholder identification	**Economic Leverage:** • Build relationships with stakeholders who provide access to subsequent networks to maximise economic event leverage outcomes (Chalip, 2002; O'Brien, 2005, 2006, 2007; O'Brien & Gardiner, 2006). **Social Leverage:** • Identify stakeholders whose involvement was critical to the success of event leverage initiatives for social outcomes and building relationships with them (Kellett et al., 2008).
When to build relationships	**Economic Leverage:** • The event itself is the time for building relationships, not for doing business (O'Brien, 2005, 2006, 2007; O'Brien & Gardiner, 2006) • Organisations can capitalise on new relationships to do business post-event. **Social Leverage:** • Stakeholders should establish relationships pre-event to encourage preparation so that cultural exchange initiatives could take place around the time of the event (Kellett et al., 2008).
Importance of maintaining relationships post-event	**Economic AND Social Leverage:** • Plan for the long-term maintenance of new relationships to ensure outcomes can continue to be realised post-event (Chalip, 2002; Kellett et al., 2008; O'Brien, 2005, 2006, 2007; O'Brien & Gardiner, 2006). • Plan for the long-term retention of individuals seconded or contracted for event leverage strategies, otherwise risk losing information and relationships built up before and during an event (Chalip, 2002; Kellett et al., 2008; O'Brien, 2005, 2006, 2007; O'Brien & Gardiner, 2006).

The empirical findings relating to strategic relationship building show there are some clear distinctions between the approaches used for economic and social leverage. They differ in terms of whom to build relationships with and when to do so. The findings reveal similarities in terms of the importance of maintaining relationships post-event.

3. Coordinating and Resourcing Event Leverage Objectives

The importance of coordinating event leverage activities (Chalip, 2002; Chalip & Leyns, 2002; O'Brien, 2005, 2006, 2007) and commitment of resources to maximise event leverage outcomes (Kellett et al., 2008; O'Brien & Gardiner, 2006), have been highlighted in the empirical research. Chalip and Leyns (2002) argue that stakeholders should be coordinated to provide the best possibilities for securing legacies and

encouraging the equitable distribution of benefits from large-scale sport events. Where event leverage is coordinated, the outcomes are generally maximised across stakeholders (Chalip, 2002; Chalip & Leyns, 2002; O'Brien, 2005, 2006, 2007). O'Brien (2005) extends on this notion of coordination, highlighting the importance of stakeholders being encouraged not only to act, but to act in a timely manner.

Similarly, researchers have found that where resources, such as financial and human resources are not dedicated to event leverage initiatives, potential positive outcomes are often inhibited (O'Brien, 2006; Kellett et al., 2008). O'Brien's (2005, p.vi) investigation into business leveraging of the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games, found that 'potentially significant business opportunities went unrealised due to insufficient resource allocation'. In terms of social leverage of the Melbourne 2006 Commonwealth Games, the Victorian Government specifically chose not to fund cultural exchange programs, based on the justification that local governments could 'envision and create their own local [initiatives]' (Kellett et al. 2008, p. 108). However, Kellett et al. (2008) argue that in practice, the absence of funding provided limited impetus for community councils to adopt and implement initiatives. These studies suggest that coordinated and resourced event leverage initiatives are likely to be more effective and have a stronger impact (O'Brien, 2006; Kellett et al., 2008).

Although the event leverage literature has established the importance of coordination and resourcing, responsibility for coordinating and providing resources has attracted limited consensus. Chalip and Leyns (2002, p.154) suggest that event organisers have 'the most to gain if leveraging is fostered, and the most to lose if leveraging remains haphazard'. For instance, event organisers are able to justify public subsidies of

events if economic returns are maximised, but endure the most of criticism if leverage strategies are poorly executed and affect event brand and sponsor investments. However, O'Brien (2005) argues that event organising committees are often only temporary organisations, dismantled soon after an event has concluded, making it impractical for these organisations to be responsible for encouraging stakeholders to capitalise on opportunities post-event. In terms of economic event leverage, O'Brien (2006) highlights the tension that arises when governments invest in and coordinate initiatives for private sector gain in relation to whether this is an appropriate investment of tax-payer funds. In contrast, in the context of social event leverage, Kellett et al. (2008) argue that governments have a greater role to play in investing and coordinating initiatives to bring about social legacies.

4. Structuring the Stakeholder Networks

Both the economic and social leverage contexts highlight the importance of structuring stakeholder networks in line with event leverage objectives (Kellett et al., 2008; O'Brien, 2005). The empirical event leverage research highlights the tendency for structures around event leverage to be formal and hierarchical (Kellett et al., 2008; O'Brien, 2005). The problem with these structures is that they are not conducive to engendering local ownership of desired goals and leverage processes by stakeholders (Kellett et al., 2008; O'Brien, 2005).

In line with the notion of hallmark decision-making (see Section 2.2.2), O'Brien (2005) finds that the tendency for event leverage initiatives to be developed and implemented on a top-down basis means there was a lack of stakeholder input to strategy formulation for the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games. This led to some

stakeholders feeling disenfranchised and with little sense of ownership of desired goals and leverage initiatives. In the case of the Melbourne 2006 Commonwealth Games, Kellett et al. (2008) finds that state government-developed initiatives were designed to be locally adapted and implemented, in an attempt to represent a combination of top-down and bottom-up effort. However, according to Kellett et al. (2008), in this case the state government did not achieve the necessary balance between obligating communities and allowing them to develop their own strategies and tactics. The empirical research suggests that more effort to form horizontal inter-organisational relationships and flatter organisational structures would have been more beneficial for encouraging collaboration, the exchange of information, and local ownership of leverage strategies.

5. Willingness and Ability of Stakeholders to Leverage an Event

Both the economic and social event leverage contexts highlight the importance of understanding the willingness and ability of stakeholders to identify and capitalise on opportunities presented by the hosting of large-scale sport events (Chalip & Leyns, 2002; Kellett et al., 2008). Stakeholders often exhibit varied ability and willingness to engage effectively with event leverage initiatives (Chalip & Leyns, 2002; Kellett et al., 2008; O'Brien & Gardiner, 2006). Importantly, those stakeholders that identify an event as an opportunity to leverage are more likely to dedicate resources to event leverage activities, build relationships with other stakeholders, implement strategies and reap the associated benefits (Kellett et al., 2008; O'Brien & Gardiner, 2006). However, Kellett et al.'s (2008) investigation into the Melbourne 2006 Commonwealth Games indicates a need for coordinators of event leverage initiatives to play a role in upskilling stakeholders to develop creative and strategic event

leverage initiatives that are event-themed and fit their organisational purpose and objectives. With these skills in place Kellett et al. (2008) believe that stakeholders are equipped to identify further opportunities or impediments to performance.

In summary, this section highlighted the politicised nature of legacy, and the potential for legacies to go unrealised unless an event is well integrated into existing plans for development. Event leverage was introduced as involving an *ex ante* approach, whereby rather than leaving legacies to chance, stakeholders are encouraged to put strategic frameworks in place to leverage large-scale sport events and maximise legacies. The event leverage literature identifies a series of challenges to the effective implementation of event leverage strategies, and highlights that these processes are dependent on a series of relationships and interactions among a number of diverse stakeholders. However, there has been limited theoretical development in terms of how these issues should be managed to ensure effective event leverage to secure legacies (Chalip, 2004; O'Brien, 2005, 2006).

O'Brien (2005, 2006) suggests the importance of looking at the influence of inter-organisational networks on event leverage processes. The complexity of the Australian sport system as detailed in Section 2.3, indicates that although event leverage has not been applied to sport development legacies, it is likely that many stakeholders would be required to cooperate and collaborate to leverage an event and secure sport development legacies. Thus, the multiple sources of influence on sport development policy, processes and practice, and the diversity of stakeholder interests represented in an event, creates a network of organisational interactions, rather than a series of stakeholders needing to be managed.

2.5　Summary

The review in this chapter drew on three main bodies of literature to conceptualise and contextualise the concepts of large-scale sport events, sport development legacies and maximising benefits from large-scale sport events (including concepts of event legacies and event leverage). First, the concept of large-scale sport events was defined and conceptualised for the research context of this thesis. The highly politicised nature of large-scale sport events was outlined, highlighting implications that such approaches to bidding and hosting events can have for realising outcomes for host communities.

Second, sport development legacy was defined and conceptualised and the role of government in policy making for sport development was reviewed. The emergence of large-scale sport events as a policy tool for sport development was considered, with this section concluding with remarks on the inadequacy of the trickle-down effect and calls for the integration of large-scale sport events in broader plans for sport development. Third, the concepts of event legacy and event leverage were introduced in response to calls in the sport development literature to maximise the value of large-scale sport events to the sport system. Within this section, the highly politicised nature of event legacy and event leverage was discussed as highlighting the importance of putting in place *ex ante* frameworks to maximise outcomes and legacies from large-scale sport events. The next chapter discusses Interorganisational Network (ION) Theory as an appropriate framework to address gaps in knowledge identified in this chapter and presents the theoretical framework for this thesis

Chapter 3:   Theoretical Framework

3.1   Introduction

This chapter presents the theoretical framework for this thesis. Interorganisational Network (ION) Theory is introduced and discussed as the most appropriate framework for investigating and responding to the research gaps identified in the review of literature in Chapter 2. This chapter argues that ION Theory can contribute to an understanding of how the ION of a large-scale sport event influences the leveraging of the event to secure sport development legacies. The chapter has four main sections. First, ION Theory is defined and conceptualised. Second, the three main characteristics of effective IONs are examined, including Normative Consensus, Mutual Respect and Coordination and Collaboration. Third, the developmental and structural variables of an ION are outlined. Last, the complexities of ION coordination and management are discussed.

Table 10 provides an overview of the chapter structure, listing the four subsections and associated subheadings.

Table 10: Overview of Chapter 3 – Theoretical Framework Subsections and Associated Subheadings

Theoretical Framework Subsection	Associated Subheadings
3.2 Defining & Conceptualising Interorganisational Network (ION) Theory	
3.3 Characteristics of Effective IONs	3.3.1 Normative Consensus 3.3.2 Mutual Respect 3.3.3 Coordination and Collaboration 3.3.4 Interrelationships of Dimensions
3.4 Development, Structure and Management of IONS	3.4.1 Developmental Variables 3.4.2 Structural Variables 3.4.3 Management of IONs
3.5 Summary	

3.2 Defining and Conceptualising Interorganisational Network (ION) Theory

Interest in IONs in the public policy setting in countries like Australia and other post-industrial countries has grown since the 1960s and 1970s as academics and policymakers came to recognise that traditional top-down modes of public sector policy implementation were ineffective for addressing challenges such as globalisation, deindustrialisation and the deregulation of markets (Benson, 1975; Crosby & Bryson, 2005; B. Gray, 1985; Hudson, 2004; Human & Provan, 2000; Huxham & Vangen, 2000; Mandell, 1988). In response, governments have increasingly shifted from hierarchical approaches to network approaches for policy implementation (Hudson, 2004).

Subsequently, governments have sought to partner with not-for-profit organisations, and sometimes private enterprises, to achieve public policy goals that governments could not achieve by acting alone (Benson, 1975; B. Gray, 1985; Hudson, 2004; Huxham & Vangen, 2000; Mandell, 1988; Provan & Milward, 1995; Stokes, 2006). These collaborative approaches to policy, whereby governments partner with private business and/or third sector organisations to deliver policy objectives (Skelcher, 2005), have been labelled public-private partnerships (PPPs). PPPs are characterised by interdependencies, in which organisations are reliant on one another to achieve collective goals in policy settings (Huxham & Vangen, 2000; Mandell, 1988; Osborn & Hagedoorn, 1997; Thorelli, 1986).

The network collaborations for these relationships are characteristically different to a focal organisation coordinating the efforts of stakeholders, and need to be approached

and understood accordingly. For instance, other organisational theories that have become popularised in the literature, including Stakeholder Theory or Corporate Social Responsibility, focus on the dyadic relationships of a focal firm and understand organisational decision-making to occur within the boundary of a firm. Within the lens of these theories, organisations are considered to make independent and rational decisions regarding if and when to respond to external constituencies such as unions, consumers, and employees (Freeman, 1984; B. Gray, 1985; Rowley, 1997). However, to focus on the decision-making of a focal organisation within a set of organisations precludes an understanding of a much more complex situation (B. Gray, 1985; Human & Provan, 2000; Osborn & Hagedoorn, 1997; Rowley, 1997). Instead, the lens of ION Theory encourages researchers to focus on the relational data through the patterns of relationships among organisations participating in the ION (Benson, 1975; Hudson, 2004; Rowley, 1997).

Figure 5 provides an illustrative comparison of Stakeholder and ION Theory. Diagram 1 represents an understanding of organisational decision-making through Stakeholder Theory, whereby the decision-making of organisation A is the focal point, and A's management of its relationships with stakeholders B, C, D and E is investigated. Diagram 2 represents an understanding of organisational decision-making through ION Theory, whereby the boundary of analysis widens to investigate the decision-making and management of relationships among a network of organisations, A, B, C, D and E. In addition, the context surrounding this ION is also considered, with the lighter-coloured circles and linkages representing secondary influences and interactions that have the potential to impact on the set of organisations in the network under investigation. The acknowledgement of the context provided by

the web of interactions among organisations becomes important in providing an understanding of why organisations choose to cooperate, or not, in given settings.

Figure 5: Organisational Decision-Making through the Lenses of Stakeholder Theory and ION Theory

Diagram 1: Stakeholder Theory
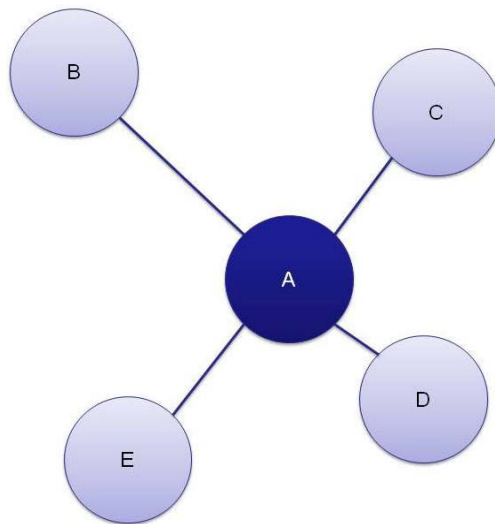
Diagram 2: ION Theory
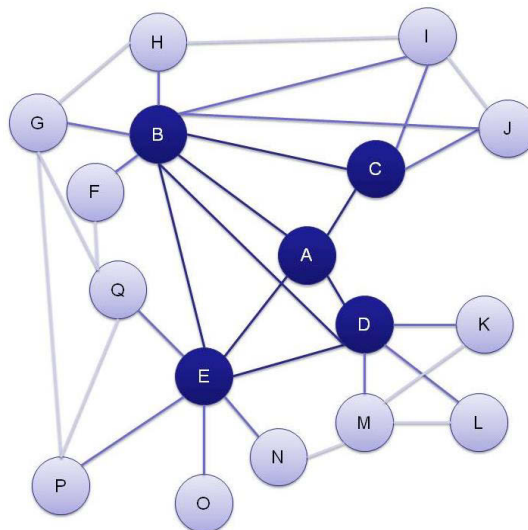
(Source: Rowley, 1997)

The value of network theories is being increasingly demonstrated in contexts including: event management (Erickson & Kushner, 1999; Larson, 2002; Stokes,

2006, 2007); sport management (Babiak, 2007; Morrow & Idle, 2008; Olkkonen, 2001); and in particular, sport event legacies (Leopkey & Parent, 2013; Parent et al., 2013). Recent work by Parent and others (Leopkey & Parent, 2013; Parent, 2012; Parent et al., 2013) in the area of sport event management and sport event legacies echoes Rowley's (1997) work, recognising the need to move beyond stakeholder analyses of large-scale sport events. Parent et al. (2013, p.4) highlight the need to move towards 'analysis of the multiple stakeholder ties that form the network ... [of] stakeholder influences'.

The broader lenses that network theories encourage offer utility in expanding our knowledge of organisational decision-making (Borch & Arthur, 1995; Jack, 2005). However, network theories also present the challenge of ensuring that network concepts are translated into useful analytical tools, not just investigations that present mere descriptions of interorganisational interactions (Borch & Arthur, 1995; Jack, 2005). In addition, network researchers from mainstream business contexts caution that the increased popularity of the network concept and the proliferation of jargon presents a risk that the network concept could become meaningless (Jack, 2005; Osborn & Hagedoorn, 1997). Event and sport literature has drawn on various streams of network theory and analytical frameworks (e.g. core competencies (Erickson & Kushner; 1999); relationship building (Babiak, 2007); collaborative partnerships (Stokes, (2007)). More recently, sport event literature has combined network theories with stakeholder and institutional theories to make up for inadequacies observed in individual theories (Morrow & Idle, 2008; Leopkey & Parent, 2013; Parent et al., 2013). This makes for a mixed basis of interorganisational network investigations in

the sport event setting and means no conventions have been established regarding the application of interorganisational network research a sport event.

In an attempt to address this deficiency in the interorganisational network research of sport events, Benson's (1975) seminal contribution of the Theory of Interorganisational Networks (ION Theory), is applied in this thesis. Benson (1975), an organisational theorist specialising in policy settings, observed interdependencies among organisations in policy settings and argued that organisational decision-making is not always independent and rational. Instead, taking a resource-dependency view of organisations, Benson (1975) suggested that organisational decision-making has multiple influences. Organisational decision-making is influenced by the interdependencies and interactions among participating organisations, and between these organisations and their external operating environments (Benson, 1975). These ION and contextual influences occur simultaneously, contributing to a complex environment for organisational decision-making (Benson, 1975).

As the theory was developed in a public policy setting dealing with cross-sector interactions, it has similarities with the securing of sport development legacies from a large-scale sport event. Hudson (2004, p.83) highlights the benefits of Benson's (1975) ION Theory over other types of network theories, in particular, social network theories:

> Social network analysis can be so focused upon the minutiae of social relationships that the impact of this upon policy implementation is ignored; policy network analysis tends to be directed towards central rather than local policy matters, and in any case is conceptual rather than empirical in outlook; and organization studies often seem more interested in the implications for management style than policy outcomes.

Hudson (2004, p.82) argues that Benson's (1975) ION Theory has considerable potential to frame empirical research in new contexts of policy governance. Benson (1975) suggests that to understand the operation of IONs, there is a need to recognise that IONs, and the organisations participating in those IONs, are susceptible to the relevant political economies surrounding them. Benson (1975) suggests that organisations connected in an ION with shared goals are underpinned by a sub-structure (i.e. the political economy in which those organisations interact), which will shape the superstructure (i.e. the degree of cooperation, or conflict, among the organisations).

At the sub-structural level, Benson (1975) observes that while organisations are dependent on one another to achieve outcomes they could not achieve individually, they are at the same time competing for the same scarce resources within a political economy to achieve their organisational goals (Benson, 1975). In addition, other contextual factors including authorities, legislative bodies, and public interest groups, can influence the flow of resources to, and within, an ION (Benson, 1975). Thus, at the sub-structural level, organisations are often in mutually conflicting positions of interdependence and competition, and are motivated to ensure their access to resources (Benson, 1975; Hudson, 2004).

This complex and contested environment at the sub-structural level influences the likelihood that participating organisations will cooperate in an ION towards a collective goal. As the broader political economy shifts and organisations participating in the ION take action to defend or improve their position in the network, the political economy is constantly evolving (Benson, 1975). With this

complex interplay of interorganisational interactions and political economy influences, Benson (1975) outlined characteristics of effective IONs, as detailed below. Benson's initial ideas are elaborated upon with the ideas of other network researchers.

3.3   Characteristics of Effective IONs

Benson (1975) argues that at the superstructural level, effective IONs require their participants to establish Normative Consensus and demonstrate Mutual Respect. These notions are critical to achieving Coordination and Collaboration in an ION. Each of these concepts is detailed below.

3.3.1 Normative Consensus

Normative Consensus refers to agreement amongst participating organisations as to the nature of the issue to be addressed (i.e. domain consensus) and the appropriate means by which to address the issue (i.e. ideological consensus) (Benson, 1975). Domain consensus refers to agreement by all organisations regarding the domain, or scope of activities, of the ION (Benson, 1975). The establishment of domain consensus is a critical underpinning for achieving an effective ION as it provides the foundational understanding of a problem, from which stakeholders can make decisions regarding the actions to be undertaken. Foundational understanding guides how stakeholders might interact with one another (Bengtsson & Kock, 2000; Benson, 1975).

Ideological consensus refers to agreement by all organisations regarding how they should address the scope of activities, or tasks presented to the ION. The

establishment of ideological consensus is the next important underpinning of an effective ION as it provides a foundation for agreement by participating organisations as to the most appropriate approaches they should collectively take to address the scope of activities presented to the ION (Benson, 1975; B. Gray, 1985; Hudson, 2004). Ideologies are derived from a set of beliefs and values and inform the way tasks and approaches are perceived and negotiated (Benson, 1975; B. Gray, 1985). As each organisation will have its own ideology that guides how they interpret and approach issues, coordinators of IONs need to be able to balance these various ideologies (Benson, 1975; Hellgren & Stjernberg, 1995; Hoberecht, Joseph, Spencer, & Southern, 2011; Rowley, 1997).

The negotiation of tasks and methods and the establishment of domain and ideological consensus are critical for organisations to recognise interdependencies among the organisations participating in the ION. This agreement and understanding of the whole is needed for organisations to recognise, and agree to, their roles, and responsibilities when participating in the ION (Benson, 1975).

3.3.2 Mutual Respect

Mutual Respect relates to positive interorganisational evaluation by participating organisations regarding the contribution of the other organisations participating in the ION to the collective goals (Benson, 1975). Hudson (2004, p. 87) indicated that organisations' perceptions of one another develop through interactions where they gain insights into the 'competencies, capabilities, intentions, needs, limitations and personal qualities' of other participating organisations. These insights help organisations determine whether they can trust one another to contribute to the

collaboration rather than to act opportunistically in their own interest (B. Gray, 1985; Hellgren & Stjernberg, 1995; Hudson, 2004; T. Williams, 2005). These insights, combined with the benefits to the organisation achieved through the collaboration, will inform an organisation's perception of the other organisations in the ION (Hudson, 2004). Where organisations trust and respect the other organisations in the ION, they will be more likely to cooperate with each other (B. Gray, 1985; Hudson, 2004).

3.3.3 Coordination and Collaboration

Coordination and Collaboration relates to the demonstration of coordinated and collaborative patterns of work among participating organisations in the ION to achieve the common goals of the ION (Benson, 1975). The extent to which the programs and activities of participating organisations complement one another for maximum effectiveness and efficiency, will determine the extent to which they have coordinated and collaborative patterns of work (Benson, 1975). Governments often use legislative arrangements, incentives, or disincentives to influence the collaborative behaviour of organisations in public-private partnerships (PPPs) (B. Gray, 1985). However, Gray (1985, p. 929) argues, 'mandate alone does not guarantee that effective collaboration will occur,' and IONs will be most effective when arrangements are voluntary.

3.3.4 Interrelatedness of Dimensions

Benson (1975) suggests that the dimensions of Normative Consensus (constituted by Domain and Ideological Consensus), Mutual Respect and Coordination and Collaboration, are interrelated, meaning improvements in one dimension should be

met by improvements in the other dimensions. Similarly, declines in one dimension will lead to declines in the other dimensions. Low or medium levels of the dimensions does not mean that the ION stops operating, but it does suggest that the most effective collaborative outputs are associated with higher levels of the dimensions (Hudson, 2004).

The sub-structural level of interaction in an ION influences these dimensions of Normative Consensus, Mutual Respect and Coordination and Collaboration. The following section provides a review of relevant literature to inform an analysis of the sub-structural level interactions and considers how these impact on securing consensus and coordination by organisations participating in an ION.

3.4   Development, Structure and Management of IONs

This section identifies developmental and structural variables to be considered in the framework of analysis of interorganisational interactions among sport development stakeholders of a large-scale sport event, and the influence this has on securing sport development legacies. The developmental and structural variables of an ION are important to consider for two main reasons. First, different scenarios can be conducive to different collaborative outcomes (B. Gray, 1985). Second, the opportunities and incentives presented to organisations through the development and structure of an ION can determine the likelihood that an organisation will choose to participate (B. Gray, 1985; T. Williams, 2005). As such, this section identifies a set of developmental and structural variables that have the potential to impact on, and be impacted by, the political economy of an ION (Benson, 1975).

The developmental and structural variables include:

- Developmental variables (see Section 3.4.1)

  1. Rationale for ION development; and

  2. Identification of stakeholders.

- Structural variables (see Section 3.4.2)

  1. Formalisation;

  2. Density;

  3. Intensity;

  4. Centrality; and

  5. Stability.

Each of these is elaborated below.

3.4.1 Developmental Variables

The two developmental variables identified in the literature are: Rationale for Development and Identification of Stakeholders (Benson, 1975; B. Gray, 1985; Hellgren & Stjernberg, 1995; Hudson, 2004; Huxham & Vangen, 2000; Mandell, 1988).

Rationale for Development

The rationale, or purpose, of ION development is a key influence on the Development and Structure of an ION (Benson, 1975; B. Gray, 1985; Mandell, 1988). Mandell (1988) identified three main reasons governments seek to develop IONs:

1. Problem solving: a diversity of organisations come together to formulate and implement strategies to do something constructive in a particular context

2. Strategic and coping behaviour: a diversity of organisations, often with differing perspectives, interact formally and informally on an ongoing basis to achieve goals

3. Communication: a diversity of organisations communicate with one another on an ongoing basis to build mutual trust and respect as a means to make things work more effectively.

Each of these rationales is fundamentally different in desired outcome, and therefore requires different approaches in terms of both ION structure and types of interactions necessary among participating organisations. For instance, IONs can develop as permanent or temporary collaborations (Hellgren & Stjernberg, 1995; Mandell, 1988). Permanent IONs, known as functional IONs, may be established on an ongoing basis and may focus on different projects at different times, but they continue to exist whether or not there is a specific task to be addressed (Mandell, 1988). Temporary IONs, known as project IONs, may be set up to problem solve, that is, to accomplish a specific type of project (Mandell, 1988). A substantial amount of investment in modern society takes place in temporary project networks, such as PPPs (Hellgren & Stjernberg, 1995; Mandell, 1988).

Organisations can belong to both functional and project networks simultaneously (Mandell, 1988). For instance, organisations operate in functional networks that support their day-to-day objectives (Mandell, 1988; T. Williams, 2005), as well as project networks that are often imposed to guarantee the delivery of short-term projects (Hellgren & Stjernberg, 1995; Mandell, 1988). In situations where dual membership is evident, organisational decision-making can involve complex negotiations by organisations to balance their efforts in the different IONs in which

they participate (Mandell, 1988). Often, the position and motivation of organisations in functional IONs will influence how these organisations come to interact within temporary project IONs (Mandell, 1988). This is because organisations will be most likely to act to secure their position and access to resources in day-to-day IONs, rather than respond to short-term opportunities in project IONs (Mandell, 1988).

The main difference between project and functional IONs is the degree of ongoing interaction among participating organisations, and this has implications for achieving agreement (i.e. Normative Consensus) and trust (i.e. Mutual Respect) in an ION (Mandell, 1988). Where ION coordinators bring organisations together from different sectors, activities and geographic locations, there are often differences in terms of professional and organisational cultures, languages and operations. In these situations it will take time to build good working relationships and develop an understanding of the operations and expectations of the other organisations involved (Benson, 1975; Hudson, 2004; Huxham & Vangen, 2000). This means that agreement and trust among participating organisations are likely to be higher in functional IONs and lower in project IONs based on the amount of time available for organisations to build relationships (Huxham & Vangen, 2000).

The event and sport literature has expanded on the notion of functional and project IONs by demonstrating that IONs in sport event contexts can often reflect the different types of IONs depending on the point in the event life cycle. For instance, in the context of sport sponsorship, Olkkonen (2001) argues that the relationships among the key organisations are characterised by both a long-term development cycle (i.e. the formal contract period) and a short-term project cycle (i.e. events held throughout

the year). Similarly, Leopkey and Parent (2013, p.1) found that event management networks are made up of a 'combination of constant (e.g., government, International Olympic Committee), emergent constant (e.g., Paralympic committees), and context-specific actors (e.g., Four Host First Nations) that change over time due to evolving network goals'. Based on these event lifecycle dynamics, Leopkey and Parent (2013, p.1) suggest that 'a multi-organizational network alternates between deliberation and action in its lifecycle; and as such, issues, agreements, and action plans must be constantly reviewed to ensure they are continuing to meet long-term objectives and stakeholder expectations'. However, there is limited empirical understanding of how rationales for development, and the evolution of IONs, influence sport development legacies from a large-scale sport event.

Identification of Stakeholders

The identification of stakeholders is critically important to encouraging collaborative advantages and avoiding situations of collaborative inertia towards ION objectives (Huxham & Vangen, 2000). Other studies that have looked broadly at the networks of sport event management have utilised stakeholder theory to identify stakeholders as a preliminary step to network analysis (Leopkey & Parent, 2013; Parent, 2012; Parent et al., 2013). However, this thesis takes a much narrower and targeted focus, and thus relies on stakeholder selection being strategic in terms of targeting organisations with resources or expertise relevant to the issue (Benson, 1975; B. Gray, 1985; Huxham & Vangen, 2000). Gray (1985, p.64) argues that an effective ION will be 'the collection of stakeholders … whose expertise is essential to constructing… [a] comprehensive picture' of the objective of the ION.

The identification of stakeholders is often complex due to the difficulties in establishing the focus and boundaries in a network through such an iterative process (B. Gray, 1985). Gray (1985, p. 262) argues that 'one of the most serious limitations [to collaborative efforts] is not involving key stakeholders'. The failure to include those with the power to implement decisions greatly reduces the execution of processes for achieving ION objectives (B. Gray, 1985). Gray (1985) highlighted the need for network instigators to consider:

1. The purpose of the collaboration;

2. The contribution required by each of the individual organisations towards reaching the goals of the ION;

3. The ownership of resources required to reach the goals of the ION; and

4. The nature of the collaboration, whether outcomes are based on individually executed efforts, or collective efforts where each organisation's contribution depends, or is dependent on, the next organisation's contribution.

While Parent and others (Leopkey & Parent, 2013; Parent, 2012; Parent et al., 2013) have recently advanced our knowledge of the breadth and diversity of stakeholders involved in the hosting of large-scale sport events, they acknowledge that the complexity of stakeholder interactions in sport event networks requires further investigation. One common finding in the event and sport literature is that stakeholder attractiveness is enhanced when a potential stakeholder can bring subsequent networks of value-adding relationships to a focal ION (Erickson & Kushner, 1999; Olkkonen, 2001). However, beyond these commercially-oriented research contexts of event logistics and sport sponsorship, the notion of strategically identifying

stakeholders to secure sport development legacies has received limited coverage in the literature.

As outlined here, the framework for analysis includes the developmental variables, including the rationale for ION development and the identification of stakeholders. Following on from these developmental variables, the following sections look at the structural variables and the potential impact they have on the extent of coordination and collaboration in an ION.

3.4.2 Structural Variables

The five structural variables discussed here are: formalisation, density, intensity, centrality, and stability (B. Gray, 1985; Hellgren & Stjernberg, 1995; Torfing, Peters, Pierre, & Sorensen, 2012; T. Williams, 2005).

Formalisation

Formalisation relates to the extent to which connections across a network are based on informal arrangements or formal agreements between organisations (T. Williams, 2005). Some networks will have formal and explicit agreements defining the rights and obligations of the organisations participating in an ION, including legislation and binding contracts (B. Gray, 1985; T. Williams, 2005). Other networks will feature informal agreements between organisations to cooperate towards desired outcomes, including non-written and verbally discussed arrangements (B. Gray, 1985; T. Williams, 2005).

Formal agreements are most likely to exist in contexts where the ION deals with high levels of commitment or risk by the participating organisations, and where there are low levels of trust among organisations (T. Williams, 2005). These conditions of high risk and low trust are often found in project networks where a diverse range of organisations that do not typically work together are brought together to cooperate towards a desired outcome in a short timeframe (Hellgren & Stjernberg, 1995).

The challenge presented by an emphasis on formal agreements between participating organisations is that such agreements can operate to narrowly focus collaborative efforts on those tasks included in formal agreements, meaning that other opportunities or advantages presented through the collaboration may not be realised (Borch & Arthur, 1995; T. Williams, 2005). In addition, as each organisation participating in an ION is a separate and independent entity, often operating within several other functional networks, there is a risk that formal agreements may be unenforceable (T. Williams, 2005). Based on these limitations, Mandell (1988) cautions against an over-emphasis on formal agreements, pointing out that informal interaction can have more influence in a network of organisations than formal mechanisms including rules, regulations or mandates.

The event and sport literature demonstrates the likelihood that formal networks will develop for the delivery of large-scale sport events (Leopkey & Parent, 2013; Olkkonen, 2001; Stokes, 2007). However, the event and sport literature has identified that there is often a duality in relationships between participating organisations (Leopkey & Parent, 2013; Olkkonen, 2001; Stokes, 2007). For instance, IONs of sport events can be characterised as having long-term interactions which are developmental

(Olkkonen, 2001) and constant (Leopkey & Parent, 2013), as well as short-term interactions which are emergent, contextual (Leopkey & Parent, 2013) and project-focused (Olkkonen, 2001). This means that connections may exist among participating organisations, but these interactions may be activated for different reasons at different points in time. This finding in the event and sport literature highlights a complexity that has not previously been investigated in the context of securing sport development legacies.

Density

Density relates to the extent to which organisations are directly connected with the range of participating organisations across the ION (T. Williams, 2005). Density will be higher in situations where an ION is structured in a web-like configuration and it will be lower in situations where an ION is structured in a hub-and-spoke configuration (T. Williams, 2005). In high density IONs, participating organisations are likely to find more opportunities to pursue cross-network relationships and meet multiple outcomes, and therefore cooperation among participating organisations is more likely (T. Williams, 2005). Williams (2005, p.227) suggests that 'in an ION that provides a large number of alternative contacts, members may be motivated to manage their relationships through informal cooperation for mutual gain rather than requiring formal coordination'. IONs whereby interactions are restricted to those between the central coordinating organisation and each individual organisation (i.e. hub-and-spoke configurations), are considered to be low density (T. Williams, 2005). Low density IONs present fewer opportunities for participating organisations to pursue cross-network relationships and meet multiple outcomes (T. Williams, 2005).

Williams' (2005) discussion of the redundancy and diversity of connections provides valuable insights into how the density of an ION may positively or negatively, affect the potential of an ION to secure sport development legacies. Redundancy refers to whether the network provides access to multiple organisations operating in similar domains, thus providing many options to achieve the same outcomes (T. Williams, 2005). In the context of a large-scale sport event, redundancy might be apparent to a government agency through the presence of multiple NSOs in an ION, to whom the government agency may be able to promote the same policy objectives. Diversity refers to whether the network includes many different organisations, thus providing many options for achieving a range of different outcomes (T. Williams, 2005). In the context of a large-scale sport event, diversity might be apparent to a sport organisation through the presence of government agencies and corporate sponsors, whereby the sport organisations may have the opportunity to lobby the former for policy changes, and build relationships with the latter for increased revenues.

Related to these notions of redundancy and diversity is the potential for IONs to overcome vertical and horizontal distinctions 'between central and local, between politician and bureaucrat, and between public and private' (Torfing et al., 2012, pp. 87-88). Vertical connections typically refer to processes of steering and coordination that are targeted downwards or upwards in a chain of institutions (Torfing et al., 2012). Horizontal connections typically refer to the connections among political centres and the organisations involved in policy implementation that branch out from these centres (Torfing et al., 2012). In the context of IONs, the range of organisations involved provides opportunities to cut across vertical and horizontal structures and embark on 'diagonal' and collaborative interactions for mutually beneficial solutions,

rather than addressing problems through control or command (Torfing et al., 2012, p.87).

The event and sport literature provides evidence of both high and low density IONs. In the sport sponsorship context Olkkonen (2001) observes that in scenarios where participating organisations are engaged based on their core competencies, there are limited reasons for participating organisations to interact with anyone else but the coordinating organisation. In contrast, Parent et al.'s (2013) examination of the sustainability of the Innsbruck 2012 Youth Winter Olympic Games found the event network demonstrated connections among all 23 actors identified in the study. These findings indicate that it is important for the objectives and structure of an ION being congruent. However, there is limited empirical understanding of this notion of density, including redundancy, diversity or diagonal interactions, and its influence on securing sport development legacies.

Intensity

Intensity relates to the magnitude of the financial and informational resources committed to the collaborations by participating organisations, and in turn, their concern for realising collaborative outcomes (T. Williams, 2005). Where organisations have committed significant resources, intensity will be high, and vice versa. It is also possible for IONs to have high and low intensity relationships simultaneously. Williams' (2005) review of empirical ION literature reveals that in most cases IONs exhibiting high resource investment are more likely to perceive the commitment as a risk and are less likely to exhibit trust, which in turn impacts on

cooperation. In contrast, Williams (2005) found that where intensity is moderate, voluntary cooperation is more likely to be sustained.

Other literature highlights the importance of participating organisations perceiving a sense of mutual benefits in their interactions (Hellgren & Stjernberg, 1995; Mandell, 1988). This notion of mutual benefit is consistent with Williams' notion of participating organisations being concerned for collaborative outcomes. Mandell (1998) argues that organisations participating in IONs will be concerned with meeting both their own individual goals and the goals of the ION (Mandell, 1988). The ability to balance the achievement of these goals will have an impact on the extent to which organisations seek to cooperate within the ION (Mandell, 1988). There is scant coverage in the event and sport literature relating to this notion of intensity, and therefore limited understanding how intensity may influence securing sport development legacies from a large-scale sport event.

Centrality

Centrality relates to the proximity of participating organisations to the core of the ION's system of exchanges (T. Williams, 2005). In the network literature high centrality is also associated with a hierarchical or top-down approach (Mandell, 1988). Highly centralised structures are often utilised in project ION settings where a central organisation will be responsible for the coordination and accountability of the project (Huxham & Vangen, 2000; Provan & Milward, 1995). For such coordination to occur, the participating organisations must see the coordinating organisation as having the legitimacy to take on this role and coordinate in the ION (B. Gray, 1985). In policy settings, government organisations may consider themselves as a

hierarchical top, however, their authority may only be applied according to particular rules and in particular situations (Hellgren & Stjernberg, 1995). Other actors will base their influence more on their expertise than their legal rights (Hellgren & Stjernberg, 1995). One issue with highly centralised structures is that the more central control one organisation has over an ION, the less innovation will be encouraged across the network due to the narrow source for the ideas driving the ION (Hakansson & Ford, 2002).

Low centrality IONs occur when responsibility for relationships is distributed amongst organisations in an ION and interactions are represented by a flatter structure where organisations perceive themselves as equal in the ION (Hudson, 2004; Mandell, 1988; T. Williams, 2005). In low centrality IONs, the perception of equality is important, as organisations which are equal are less likely to act opportunistically, and as a result relationships are more likely to be built on trust and voluntary cooperation is more likely to occur (Hudson, 2004; T. Williams, 2005). Another benefit of low centrality is that the level of formality is likely to be lower, which is considered to be more conducive to freer flows of information among participating organisations (T. Williams, 2005). This freer flow of information and knowledge provides a platform for organisational learning to occur among organisations participating in the ION (Benson, 1975; Hudson, 2004). Despite discussion in the event and sport literature regarding the need to coordinate networks, there is scant coverage of this notion of centrality, and therefore a limited understanding of how centrality may influence the ability to secure sport development legacies from a large-scale sport event.

Stability

Stability relates to the predictability of relations among participating organisations over time (T. Williams, 2005). Organisations are often motivated to participate in IONs to reduce uncertainty in their environments (Benson, 1975). In addition, Williams (2005) argues that organisations are more likely to cooperate in IONs where connections are stable and predictable over time (T. Williams, 2005). Conversely, Crosby and Bryson (2010, p.217) highlight the importance of turbulence in an ION, seeing it as providing opportunities for systems to re-organise and maximise efficiencies and effectiveness.

Consistent with this desire for turbulence, it is acknowledged that collaborative arrangements are not always stable, and are often complex and dynamic (Benson, 1975; Hellgren & Stjernberg, 1995; Huxham & Vangen, 2000). The structure, means and ends of projects are continually redefined, even in project IONs where goals and tasks are typically considered to be pre-defined and pre-determined (Hellgren & Stjernberg, 1995; Huxham & Vangen, 2000). Huxham and Vangen (2000) explain that pressures and changes at an organisational level can influence interactions at the ION level, which has implications for the focus of the collaborative purpose, and for existing, or new, stakeholders who can or should participate in the ION. Huxham and Vangen (2000) provide examples of external pressures and changes, including the withdrawal of funding for particular initiatives, public sector reorganisations, or mergers meaning some organisations will cease to exist and others may emerge. Individual changes can also influence the focus of IONs and stakeholder participation (Crosby & Bryson, 2005; Huxham & Vangen, 2000). Huxham and Vangen (2000) identify role changes, career moves, and the ending of contracts, as reasons why

individuals may no longer represent their organisation in a collaborative setting. Individual changes can lead to new representatives taking up a role, or organisations leaving the collaboration completely, thereby destabilising collaborative settings (Huxham & Vangen, 2000).

The complex and dynamic nature of IONs is evident in sport event IONs, which are typically characterised by both collaborative and conflicting interactions (Babiak, 2007; Larson, 2002; Stokes, 2007). In line with Crosby and Bryson's (2010) preference for turbulence, Babiak (2007) found that tensions in a sport management ION simultaneously constrain and enable the effectiveness of an ION. For instance, the opportunities presented to sport organisations through increased access to resources also present the challenge of having to coordinate multiple partnerships with organisations in the ION (Babiak, 2007). In addition, Larson (2002) found that the turbulence in an event management ION leads to innovation by way of the renewal of a festival product and marketing strategies. However, there is limited empirical understanding of how this notion of stability may influence securing sport development legacies from a large-scale sport event.

This section has identified and discussed the developmental and structural variables (including formalisation, density, intensity, centrality, and stability) included in the framework for analysis in this thesis. The following section builds on these developmental and structural variables by highlighting the complexities of ION coordination and management.

3.4.3 Managing IONs

This section highlights the complexities of managing and coordinating IONs, and further informs the framework of analysis of interorganisational interactions among sport development stakeholders of a large-scale sport event. It examines the influence these complexities have on securing sport development legacies. There is general agreement in the literature that long-term functional IONs operate best without a coordinator. However, short-term project IONs are generally seen as requiring some level of coordination to realise objectives effectively and efficiently (Huxham & Vangen, 2000; Mandell, 1988). Yet, there is limited consensus as to who should be responsible. The balancing of organisational interests and power in IONs can be complex, not only because organisational involvement can be voluntary or mandated (Benson, 1975), but also because significant power imbalances can be present (Babiak, 2007; Benson, 1975; Larson, 2002; Leopkey & Parent, 2013; Morrow & Idle, 2008; Parent et al., 2013; T. Williams, 2005).

The need for stakehodler coordination in networks has been identified in event legacy literature (Smith & Fox, 2007); event leverage literature (Chalip, 2002; Chalip & Leyns, 2002; Kellett et al., 2008; O'Brien, 2007); and sport development legacy literature (Cashman, 2006; Coalter, 2004; Frawley et al., 2013; Kidd, 2003; McCloy, 2003; Veal et al., 2012). However, there is limited consensus regarding who should be responsible. The event and sport management ION research highlights that the organisations with the most powerful positions in sport event IONs are typically event organisers (Larson, 2002; Morrow & Idle, 2008) and event governing bodies (Parent et al., 2013). However, as discussed earlier, there are valid arguments for why event organisers should not be responsible for securing legacies and coordinating leverage

iniatives (see Sections 2.4.2 and 2.4.3). What is definitive is that a lack of coordination in such an ION is likely to threaten its long-term effectiveness in meeting policy objectives (Stokes, 2006). As such, there is a need to better understand coordination of project IONs in a large-scale sport event context.

In terms of what is needed to coordinate and manage an ION, there are three main conditions which must be met to achieve Normative Consensus. They are:

- The organisations have similar influence on the direction-setting of the ION (B. Gray, 1985);

- The domain, or scope of activities, and the associated outcomes are attractive to participating organisations, for instance in terms of offering some extent of return on investment (Hellgren & Stjernberg, 1995); and

- Participating organisations do not perceive the proposed tasks and approaches as a threat to their position in an ION (i.e. threatening access to resources) (Benson, 1975; Hellgren & Stjernberg, 1995).

Gray (1985) indicates that these conditions are best achieved through collective discussion among stakeholders participating in an ION. Collective discussion is necessary to ensure stakeholders collectively define and agree upon tasks presented (i.e. domains) and ways to address them (i.e. ideologies) (Benson, 1975; B. Gray, 1985; Mandell, 1988). The process of collective discussion provides opportunities to engage with stakeholders and the context of an issue (B. Gray, 1985; Mandell, 1988). The event legacy research calls for policy makers to understand the context in which legacy initiatives are implemented and to identify potential challenges to

implementation (Matheson, 2010). This demonstrates the applicability of ION Theory to securing sport development legacies from a large-scale sport event,

The processes undertaken to collectively and cooperatively define the domain and establish ideologies can assist in addressing any imbalances of power or motivation among the various participants (B. Gray, 1985). In addition, collective discussion can highlight interdependencies among participating organisations (Huxham & Vangen, 2000). This notion of interdependencies is important because a critical factor in the success of IONs is that there is more than just a linking together of organisations, and that stakeholders acknowledge and understand their interdependency with one another in achieving collective goals (Hellgren & Stjernberg, 1995; Human & Provan, 2000; Mandell, 1988). Gray (1985, p. 916) suggests that the collective definition of a domain should facilitate a 'mutual acknowledgement [by participating organisations] of the issue which joins them'. In this way, the ION comes to represent 'a linking of a diverse number of organisations and/or individuals into a purposive whole' (Mandell, 1988, p.401, original emphasis).

The process of collective discussion among stakeholders reflects a far more iterative and incremental process in relation to establishing an overarching purpose, and coordinating activities to address the purpose collectively (B. Gray, 1985; Mandell, 1988). This does not mean that collective goals are necessarily static or fully agreed to by all participating organisations. For instance, the need to balance a range of interests across an ION means IONs are often subject to an ongoing 'renegotiation of purpose' (Huxham & Vangen, 2000, p. 793). These various interactions and influences mean that the domain consensus of an ION can shift over time, bringing new collaborative

purposes and goals (Hudson, 2004; Huxham & Vangen, 2000; Mandell, 1988; T. Williams, 2005). In addition, Mandell (1988, p.404) argues that the complexities involved with encouraging a number of different organisations to collaborate towards the same goal can make it difficult to achieve 'complete agreement, but there is a basis on which to build agreement'. Importantly, Mandell (1988) points out that making the effort to establish the overall scope of an issue creates an opportunity to allow for trade-offs to ensure the objectives of the ION and each of its participating organisations can be met. In line with Mandell's argument, Morrow and Idle (2008) recognise the importance of dialogue among stakeholders participating in a sport development ION as a pre-requisite to determining the issue presented to the ION, encouraging stakeholder buy-in, and restructuring the ION for commercial reasons.

Collective and cooperative discussion can focus efforts of participating organisations in areas that have previously been ignored and areas of new development (B. Gray, 1985; Kraatz, 1998). The collective and cooperative discussions are seen to provide opportunities for the transfer of knowledge that occurs among participating organisations and the mutual learning that occurs as a result (Hudson, 2004; Kraatz, 1998; Olkkonen, 2001; T. Williams, 2005). This opportunity is relevant to securing sport development legacies, due to the expectation that sport organisations will be strengthened as a result of their participation in, and interaction with, large-scale sport events (Halbwirth & Toohey, 2013; Hanstad & Skille, 2010; Hodgett et al., 2008; Kidd, 2003; McCloy, 2003; Parent, 2008b). However, beyond investigations of the transfer of event management knowledge (Halbwirth & Toohey, 2013), there has been a dearth of investigation as to if and how these outcomes occur around large-scale

sport events in terms of increasing the capacity of sport organisations to deliver sport opportunities.

Lane and Lubatkin (1998) argue that processes of organisational learning are not automatic, and there are many factors influencing interorganisational learning. Hodgett et al.'s (2008) investigation of interorganisational learning reflects these sentiments, indicating that organisational learning does not occur automatically, but requires facilitation. Lane and Lubatkin (1998) provide a deeper understanding of this interorganisational transfer of knowledge. For instance, participating organisations need to demonstrate a degree of absorptive capacity, that is, an ability to recognise the value knowledge or technology held by other organisations in a network, followed by the ability to relate this knowledge or technology to a learning organisation's own context, and finally, to apply this new knowledge (Kraatz, 1998; Lane & Lubatkin, 1998). In addition, other authors argue that for organisational learning to occur, organisations must perceive the learning achieved through collaborative efforts as something of value to which the organisation aspires (B. Gray, 1985; Kraatz, 1998). Where there is no desire for an organisation to achieve the learning outcomes available through collaborative efforts and no absorptive capacity, then it is unlikely that interactions will lead to organisational learning (Kraatz, 1998; Lane & Lubatkin, 1998).

This section has highlighted the complexities of ION coordination and management. This chapter is summarised in the following section.

3.5 Summary

This chapter has discussed Interorganisational (ION) Theory as a framework for this thesis. First, ION Theory was defined and conceptualised, and the need to move beyond stakeholder analyses of large-scale sport events towards the analysis of multiple stakeholder ties in an ION was highlighted, thus justifying ION Theory as an appropriate framework for addressing the gaps in knowledge identified in Chapter 2.

Second, the three main characteristics of effective IONs were examined, including Normative Consensus, Mutual Respect and Coordination and Collaboration. As these three characteristics are influenced by the sub-structural level of interactions in an ION, the subsequent sections detailed a framework for analysis. Third, the development, structure, and management of IONs were discussed. The developmental and structural variables of an ION were outlined. The developmental variables identified in the literature included: Rationale for Development and Identification of Stakeholders. The structural variables identified and discussed included Formalisation, Density, Intensity, Centrality, and Stability. The notion of collective discussion was highlighted as a key requirement in the coordination and management of an effective ION. The next chapter will detail the research design developed to carry out the empirical research for this thesis.

Chapter 4:   Research Design

4.1   Introduction

This chapter presents the research design for the thesis. First, the research question and subsidiary research objectives will be outlined. Second, the research approach used in the thesis will be discussed. Third, the use of a case study design in this thesis will be described and justified. Fourth, the methods of data collection will be explained. Fifth, the processes of data analysis will be described. Sixth, the trustworthiness of the research will be discussed. Seventh, the ethical considerations involved with the research will be outlined. Last, the limitations of the research design will be highlighted and justified.

4.2   Research Question and Subsidiary Research Objectives

The central research question for this thesis was:

How do the interorganisational networks (IONs) associated with a large-scale sport event influence sport development legacies?

To address this question, three subsidiary research objectives were developed, including:

1. Understand the sport development stakeholders that might form an ION to secure sport development legacies from a large-scale sport event;

2. Identify factors that influence relevant sport development stakeholder's efforts towards securing sport development legacies; and

3. Determine how the relevant of sport development stakeholders conceptualise and operationalise sport development legacies.

The following sections in this chapter set out the research design developed to answer these subsidiary research objectives and address the central research question.

4.3   Research Approach

The approach taken by a researcher to investigate a social phenomenon is underpinned by the researcher's worldview, that is, how they understand the nature of reality and the experience of being (i.e. ontology) and how they understand the creation, value and prioritisation of knowledge in society (i.e. epistemology) (Walter, 2013; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Lincoln; Lynham & Guba, 2011). There are various viewpoints that social researchers uphold in terms of how humans and their society should be studied (Bryman, 2008). Two worldviews that are often discussed in the literature to highlight the differences in philosophy and approaches to research include positivism and constructivism (Lincoln, et al., 2011).

A positivist viewpoint purports that there is a single and identifiable reality that is independent of social contexts that can be measured and studied (Bryman, 2012; Lincoln, et al., 2011). It is upheld through this viewpoint that social entities can be understood in the traditions of natural science, whereby social phenomena are underpinned by external factors beyond the reach or influence of social entities (Bryman, 2012). This means social phenomena can be investigated independently of researcher interactions, without the potential for human contamination and with objectivity (Bryman, 2012; Lincoln, et al., 2011). The understanding of separation

between a researcher and their subject positions researchers as objective inquirers who seek to explain social phenomena and produce findings that are considered to be true and generalisable (Lincoln, et al., 2011). As such, positivist viewpoints often operationalise with quantitative research designs.

In contrast, a constructivist viewpoint purports that reality is socially constructed, and that there are infinite versions, interpretations and meanings of reality (Lincoln, et al., 2011). As such, constructivists believe that realities need to be interpreted as creations of social actors influenced by pre-existing organisations and cultures, which at the same time influence and constrain the social actors that have participated in creating them (Bryman, 2012; Lincoln, et al., 2011). A constructivist viewpoint is characterised by an understanding that the research process is tied to the social construction of reality and creation and prioritisation of knowledge (Lincoln, et al., 2011). This means researchers are unable to be objective, and instead take a subjective standpoint acknowledging a connection between a researcher and social actors and understanding that research findings are the creation of the process of interaction between researcher and social actor (Bryman, 2012; Lincoln, et al., 2011). This means research generated from a constructivist stance typically accepts researcher subjectivity and bias, and is often seen as valuing the search for understanding of human behaviour, rather than the explanations of human behaviour sought in positivist research (Bryman, 2012; Gratton & Jones, 2004; Lincoln, et al., 2011). Constructivist interpretivist viewpoints are typically operationalised through qualitative research designs.

The researcher's experiences, training and conceptualisation of the research problem best reflected a constructivist viewpoint, seeking to understand the social phenomena of interorganisational IONs, as opposed to seeking to explain and find truths. While organisational research and strategy research has traditionally favoured positivist traditions (Borch & Arthur, 1995), Benson's (1975) ION Theory provided momentum for the constructivist viewpoint. Benson (1975) purported that organisational decisions are influenced by a series of interactions among individuals and organisations, and thus acknowledges reality as a social construction. In addition, organisational and network researchers have increasingly acknowledged the potential for multiple realities and their subjective positions in their investigations (Borch & Arthur, 1995). Further, Borch and Arthur (1995) argue that a constructivist viewpoint enables researchers to contribute increased contextual insights and knowledge regarding the processes within networks and that this is more valuable than positivist objectivist ontologies for the development of network theory and improvements in network management. Thus, such an approach is useful to both the management and academic communities (Borch & Arthur, 1995; Olkkonen, 2001). Consistent with trends in in these disciplines,

A qualitative research design was justified based on the conventions of constructivist research (Bryman, 2012; Lincoln, et al., 2011). Qualitative research methods focus on words and meanings rather than quantification. They are characteristically inductive (i.e. generating theory), commonly pursued by researchers who adopt interpretivist positions and who understand reality to be socially constructed (Bryman, 2012). The qualitative research design was also backed up by a detailed analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of the different research methodology approaches in network

analysis, undertaken by Borch and Arthur (1995), summarised in Table 11. Table 11 details the methodological characteristics, strengths, and weaknesses of three approaches to network methodologies including objectivist (i.e. quantitative) approaches, subjectivist (i.e. qualitative) approaches, and objectivist/subjectivists rapprochement (i.e. mixed methods) approaches.

Table 11: Strengths and Weaknesses of Network Methodology Approaches

Approach \ Features	Objectivist Approach	Subjectivist Approach (i.e. Constructivist)	Objectivist/ Subjectivist Rapprochement
Research Design	• Large representative samples • Limited number of theoretical concepts • Limited number of background variables • Linear research style	• One or few cases • Priority to in-depth study of case(s) • Focus on a larger set of concepts and linkages • Cyclical style	• Multi-case priority • Less in-depth study of concepts • More linear than cyclical style
Data Collection	• Distance from respondents • Structured questionnaires • Mostly cross-sectional data	• Passive or participant observation within the network • Conservations • History presentations	• Key informant interviews • Archival data • Open-ended questionnaires • Respondent confrontation
Data Analysis	• Multivariate techniques • Socio-metric data	• Retrospective analysis • Symbol interpretation • Concept development • Categorisations	• Simple statistical analysis • Triangulation of data
Data Presentation	• Tables, mathematical terminology	• Rich illustrative descriptions • Citations • Symbol presentations	• Descriptive tables • Written case presentations • Citations
Strengths	• Explanation • Structural knowledge • Internal validity • Generalisability • Prediction • Inexpensive	• Understanding • Process-knowledge • Base data for transformation • Richness • Practical relevance • Action-orientation	• Understanding • Partly richer dataset • Overview and broadness • Not too expensive
Weaknesses	• Limited models • Simplistic • Ethnocentricity • Distance to reality • Lack of practical application • Static models	• Lack of generalisability and predictability • Too large data sets • Costly	• Ethnocentricity • Limitedness • Static/lack of procedural data • Partiality • Lack of generalisability

(Source: Adapted from Borch and Arthur, 1995, p.427)

Network analysis has a strong tradition in objectivist quantitative research approaches and mathematical network analyses (Borch & Arthur, 1995). Objectivist quantitative methods in network research provide strengths in validity and generalisability (Borch & Arthur, 1995; Bryman, 2012). However, Borch and Arthur (1995) argue that the static and distanced approach taken in these research methods limited their ability to gain insights into network dynamics and subtleties. They make similar criticisms of mixed method research in that while it potentially provides richer datasets, there is a danger of ending up 'stuck in the middle … [where a researcher may] avoid the subjectivist approach to fulfil the demands for methodological rigour, objective quantifiable data, and validity measures' (Borch & Arthur, 1995, p.431). Borch and Arthur (1995) conclude that qualitative research methods are thus the most effective for gaining increased contextual understanding, insights into the subtleties of organisational interactions at different levels of analysis, and insights into network processes.

A qualitative research methodology is also supported by the tendency for researchers in the following fields to use qualitative methods: event and sport network research (Babiak, 2007; Erickson & Kushner, 1999; Larson, 2002; Morrow & Idle, 2008; Olkkonen, 2001; Stokes, 2006, 2007), sport development legacy research (Bell & Blakely, 2010; Frawley & Cush, 2011); and event leverage research (Chalip & Leyns, 2002; Gardiner & Chalip, 2006; Kellett et al., 2008; O'Brien, 2005, 2007). All of these previous studies have relied on in-depth qualitative analysis of instrumental case studies including various combinations of document analysis, interviews and observation.

The case study constructed in this thesis drew on the multiple methods of document analysis, semi-structured in-depth interviews, and event observation. The decision to use multiple methods is common in qualitative case study research, enabling various insights into the phenomenon being studied. It is typically referred to as triangulation (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Stake, 2000). Triangulation enables findings from one method to be challenged or substantiated by findings generated through other methods (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009; Yin, 2003). The utilisation of multiple methods within a case study contributes to creating a more comprehensive response to the research problem (Sigglekow, 2007; Yin, 2003) and as such is well suited to ION research (Borch & Arthur, 1995).

The case study design utilised in this thesis is discussed in Section 4.4, followed by a detailed description of the processes of data collection in Section 4.5 and data analysis in Section 4.6. The remainder of this chapter outlines the case study method utilised in this thesis, and details the methods and methodological considerations for qualitative research designs.

4.4   Case Study

Case studies are used when the aims of a study are to develop an in-depth understanding of complex social phenomena (Stake, 2000; Yin, 2003). Different types of case studies are undertaken for different reasons (Stake, 1994). Stake (1994) identifies three main types of case studies:

- Intrinsic case studies – undertaken when a researcher wants a better understanding of a particular case;

- Instrumental case studies – undertaken when a researcher wants insight into a particular issue or for refinement of theory; and

- Collective case studies – undertaken when a researcher wants to inquire about a phenomenon, population, or general condition across several settings.

In this thesis, a single case study was utilised to address the central research question and subsidiary objectives, which sought to provide insight into the phenomenon of interorganisational networks and sport development legacies. Thus, the case study is an example of Stake's (1994) instrumental case study as it was undertaken to facilitate understanding and advance knowledge in a particular area (Stake, 1994). The purposive nature of instrumental case studies means that researchers will often approach case study construction with preconceived frameworks (Stake, 2000), such as those established in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3. Siggelkow (2007, p. 21) justifies this approach to case study research by explaining that while the researcher should seek to be surprised by findings from the case study, the empirical research should be guided by 'initial hunches and frames of reference'. Essentially, 'an open mind is good; an empty mind is not' (Sigglekow, 2007, p. 21).

Case study inquiry has come under scrutiny for reasons including the limited ability of the researcher to control research outcomes, the limited ability to replicate the study and/or the limited ability to generalise findings for other research contexts (Stake, 1994, 2000; Yin, 2003). However, there is increasing acknowledgement of the value of case studies in achieving more comprehensive and contextual understandings of social phenomena than is possible through quantitative research (Flyvberg, 2006b; Stake, 1994, 2000; Yin, 2003). The value of case study research is seen to come from

its more flexible and iterative investigation that encourages deeper analysis and enables the researcher to investigate what becomes important as the case study progresses (Bryman, 2012; Stake, 1994, 2000; Yin, 2003). The process guiding the case study selection and an overview of the case study is provided below. Following this, the data collection (see Section 4.5) and data analysis (see Section 4.6) of the qualitative methods will be explained.

4.4.1 Case Study Selection

For instrumental case study inquiry, a researcher must purposefully select a case that provides access to certain insights that other cases would not be able to provide (Sigglekow, 2007; Stake, 1994). Stake (1994, p.243) suggests that the 'potential for learning is a different and sometimes superior criterion to representativeness'. As such, criterion sampling was employed to identify several desirable characteristics that a potential large-scale sport event would demonstrate to provide the best opportunity from which to learn. Previous research in this area of sport events has utilised case study inquiries of premier elite international sport events, including Olympic Games (including Paralympics and Youth Olympics), Commonwealth Games, and world cups across various sports. The difficulty in researching the phenomenon set out in this research design is that large-scale sport events, particularly mega-events, are infrequently occurring, and when they do occur, are often tightly controlled by gatekeepers and commercial-in-confidence requirements. These inherent characteristics of large-scale sport events therefore present challenges in terms of access for investigation and data collection. As such, the final criteria determined was informed by the literature, with a broad lens so to be able to identify an event that represented the phenomenon being studied and was occurring during the

data collection period for the thesis, and that would be accessible and allow the researcher to spend time in the event setting to enable the opportunity for learning (Stake, 2000).

The final criteria decided upon required that the selected event demonstrated:

- Evidence of a formal bid process;

- Involvement of government in the event bid and/or organising of the event;

- Significance in terms of an urban event involving:

    o At least $10 million projected economic impact;

    o Opportunities to refocus the city as a centre for leisure and consumption through capital investment and/or event duration of at least five days; and

    o Opportunities for place marketing through international media coverage and/or at least 1000 domestic/international participants; and

- Evidence of objectives for sport development outcomes.

At the time the research design was being developed for this thesis in late 2008/early 2009, the Sydney 2009 World Masters Games Organising Committee (SWMGOC), was in discussions with the researcher's institution, the University of Technology, Sydney, regarding a research partnership. As demonstrated in Table 12, the Sydney 2009 World Masters Games (SWMG) met the criteria that had been set out in the research design.

Table 12: Summary of Case Study Sampling Criteria and Characteristics of the SWMG

Case Study Criteria	Characteristics of the SWMG
Evidence of a formal bid process	• Bid document submitted in 2003, event awarded to host city in 2004
Involvement of government in the event bid and/or organising of the event	• Bid submitted by New South Wales Government's Major Events Board, situated within the Premiers Department • Event Organising Committee set up as a statutory authority under special event legislation
Evidence of the large-scale event as being an urban project	Was an urban project because: • $48mill economic impact for NSW • Minor investments in sport infrastructure (new and upgraded) and duration of 12 days including official practice days, opening and closing ceremonies and competition days • Place marketing opportunities through local media coverage and an expected 30,000 participants (10,000 local, 10,000 interstate, 10,000 international).
Evidence of objectives for sport development outcomes	• Bid document refers to sport development outcomes by way of impacts and legacies for the host city and the masters movement.

In terms of access to data, the researcher, UTS and Communities NSW (the government agency with responsibilities for research and legacy items from the SWMG), signed a formal agreement regarding access to data and sharing of information. A background to the SWMG is provided below.

4.4.2 Case Study: The Sydney 2009 World Masters Games

The Sydney World Masters Games

In December 2003, the NSW government submitted a bid document to the International Masters Games Association (IMGA) to host the 2009 World Masters Games in Sydney. The bid document promised a series of impacts and legacies for both the host city of Sydney, and the masters sport movement. In terms of the host city, bid promises included:

• The 'direct economic benefit of the expenditure by visiting athletes and accompanying people';

- The utilisation of Sydney's world-class sporting facilities by 'the broader sporting community';

- The extension and reinforcement of 'the skills of local officials, volunteers and administrators'; and

- The promotion of 'messages and programs of key State government departments and agencies in regard to healthy and active lifestyles' (NSW Major Events Board, 2003, Section I, p.1).

In terms of the masters movement, bid promises included:

- Delivering a '"knowledge legacy" program, in close consultation with the IMGA' to ensure event data and procedures are available for future hosts;

- Increasing 'the profile and patronage of the Games around the world';

- Fostering 'discussion and development of the masters sport movement'; and

- Encouraging and increasing 'the capacity and willingness of sporting bodies and government agencies in the region to adopt and promote programs, activities and events for mature age sportspeople' (NSW Major Events Board, 2003, Section I, pp.1-2).

On 13 June, 2004, the IMGA awarded Sydney the rights to host the 2009 World Masters Games. The Sydney 2009 World Masters Games (SWMG) were held from 10–18 October, 2009. Some 27,500 participants competed across 28 sports hosted at 72 venues over the nine days of competition.

As outlined here, the SWMG was not a mega-event, not about elite sport, nor likely to attract the same media attention or public interest as mega-events such as Olympic

Games, FIFA World Cups or Commonwealth Games. The majority of conceptual development and research into legacy has occurred within the mega-sport event setting, particularly the Olympic Games (Shipway & Kirkup, 2012). As such, the researcher acknowledged the potential challenges in applying legacy concepts drawn from a sport event legacy literature that is dominated by research undertaken in mega event settings. However, although the SWMG was not of mega-sport event status, the criteria for case selection and the characteristics of the SWMG, highlighted in Table 12, indicate that this large-scale multi-sport event demonstrated the kind of government involvement and formalisation typical of mega-sport events, and based on this, legacy concepts drawn from mega-event research were considered appropriate, albeit imperfect.

In addition, the challenge of applying mega-event-centric legacy literature to a non-mega-event was balanced, to an extent, with the growing interest of event stakeholders in tapping into the broad potential of events, of any size and status (Shipway & Kirkup, 2012). This is demonstrated through the broad application of event leverage across various scale events, with stakeholders seeking various types of outcomes (see Section 2.4.3). Based on this growing interest in maximising the positive outcomes from events of any size and scale, it seemed logical to anticipate that many of the elements of legacy discussed from a mega-event context may translate to non-mega large-scale sport events. This transferability has certainly been evidenced in other areas of event research more generally, where we have seen best practice principles and practices developed through well-resourced mega-events, and these principles and practices have gradually become implemented in lesser-scale event settings.

Further, a case study of a large-scale mass-participation event, such as the SWMG, provided an opportunity to test the transferability of the mega-event-centric literature to a lesser-scale event, of which there are a greater quantity of, and occur more frequently (Wilson, 2006). Events of lesser scale are also argued to offer greater potential to deliver significant benefits, such as social and psychological impacts and outcomes (Fredline, 2005; Higham, 1999; Shipway & Kirkup, 2012). Accordingly, the specific inclusion of socially-oriented sport development legacy commitments in the SWMG bid document and political and marketing discussions meant the SWMG provided a key opportunity for investigation, as such objectives and commitments have been lacking from those mega-events featured in the legacy literature (Weed et al., 2009). Overall, the SWMG had the potential to offer unique opportunities to the masters sport movement for the host city of Sydney, the state of NSW and Australia, and thus presented a rich case study for investigation.

The Significance of Legacies to Masters Sport

Masters sport is the term used for sport competition 'conducted with a minimum age qualification, i.e. over 35 and is typically organised for those beyond the age usually associated with mainstream sports participation' (Burns, 1992, p.1). The minimum age varies depending on the nature of the sport, but 30–35 years is a typical minimum age in most sports (Shilbury & Kellett, 2011). A common characteristic of masters sport is specific age groupings for competition to ensure competitors are matched to peer and ability groups. In addition, some sports make modifications to rule and/or equipment to be more inclusive of masters participants.

Despite the growth of masters sport since the 1980s (Burns, 1992), older adults are typically underrepresented in organised sport and their participation is often too low

to gain health benefits (Burns, 1992; Shilbury & Kellett, 2011). Since the 1990s, researchers and policy makers have identified this group as requiring special attention in terms of the mainstream structures of sport designing strategies to be more inclusive of this group to promote participation (Burns, 1992; Shilbury & Kellett, 2011). In 1992, Burns conducted a review of masters sport delivery in Australia, and found a diversity of delivery approaches and governance structures ranging from organisations with integrated strategies through to organisations that did not intend to engage with masters sport.

In terms of delivery approaches, Burns (1992) found that negative stereotypes and unsubstantiated fears of the health risks of older people's participation in sport inhibit opportunities for masters sport participation. Organisations that did not provide targeted masters sport opportunities justified their actions based on three main reasons:

1. Masters sport was not necessary because people can compete in their sport equally, regardless of age;

2. Masters sport was not appropriate due to the contact nature of their sport; and

3. As new sport organisations, their priorities were in different areas, or they did not have resources at the time to commit to masters sport (Burns, 1992).

However, Burns (1992) provides strong arguments against points 1 and 2. First, in response to the perception of equal opportunities to participate, Burns (1992, p. 19) argues, 'assumptions like this have been made before in sport and have led to the establishment of autonomous Masters organisations'. For instance, he reported that the existing masters associations and groups believed 'that Masters is better when

administered by Masters … those in mainstream sport do not really understand Masters competitors' needs or expectations or… [believed that] Masters is a low priority' (Burns, 1992, p. 18). Burns (1992, p. 19) also highlights the need to support and encourage sport organisations to develop masters sport opportunities through 'funding, promotion, structure of masters sport, communication with former players, modified rules, and policy matters such as age groups, rules, medical considerations and drugs.'

Second, Burns (1992) cautions against negative stereotypes and beliefs about the appropriateness of older adults participating in contact sport. In response to concerns and/or stereotypes about the health and physical risks of masters participation in sport, Burns (1992) notes that most research has found that the economic, social and health benefits of older people's participation in sport far outweigh any negative consequences. In addition, a growing body of literature also argues that older people are much more active and prepared for physical exertion than previous generations have been (Burns, 1992; Shilbury & Kellett, 2011).

In terms of governance structures, Burns (1992) found that the governance structures were ad hoc and varied greatly in the 51 SSOs in his sample, ranging from some form of integration into the traditional sport offerings of mainstream sport organisations, through to completely independent organisations that were in conflict with the mainstream sport organisations. One of the major issues Burns (1992) highlights in relation to the rapid growth of independent masters associations was the potential strain that new organisations would have on the distribution of government funding,

and therefore whether the growth of independent masters associations was sustainable for the sport industry.

As a result of his findings, Burns (1992) argues that governments and sport organisations, at all levels, should be working across various activities for masters sport development, including: dispelling stereotypes; providing opportunities; and encouraging older people's participation. In line with this argument, Burns makes a number of recommendations to governments and sport organisations to support and manage the ongoing development of masters sport. Underpinning these recommendations is a central theme that masters sport needs to be recognised as a distinct area of sport participation, 'similar to Junior Sport, Women in Sport and Sport for People with Disabilities' (Burns, 1992, p. 20). Similar to these other distinct areas of sport participation, Burns (1992) recommends some sports should be encouraged to implement modified rules and competition structures to encourage long-term participation. Further, Burns (1992) suggests that the Australian Sports Commission (ASC), and other government agencies which fund sport organisations, require sport organisations to include masters sport in their strategic planning as an eligibility criterion for funding.

More recently, a burgeoning body of research into masters sport has revealed idiosyncrasies of masters sport, including a diversity of participant motivations and expectations (Dionigi, 2005; Dionigi & O'Flynn, 2007; Gillett & Kelly, 2006; Hodge et al., 2008; Ryan & Lockyer, 2001). In addition, a sociology of ageing literature highlights that masters sport participants often need to negotiate a series of socio-cultural factors to participate in sport. For instance, masters sport participants need to

negotiate societal expectations, specifically the expectations of significant others and what they deem to be appropriate activities for an older person (Dionigi, 2002; Tulle, 2008), as well as negotiate the physical realities of ageing (Dionigi, 2006; Tulle, 2008).

Since Burns' (1992) report, there has been limited strategic direction or policy development for masters sport participation, which has meant that the development of masters sport has been ad hoc and continues to exist as an under-developed area of sport. Since the mid-1980s the hosting of various masters games events has increased significantly, with Burns (1992) reporting an increase from just two Australian masters multi-sport festivals in 1986/87 to at least 10 in 1993/94. Alongside local masters sport events, the SWMG were the third WMGs to be held in Australia, with previous WMGs hosted by Brisbane in 1994 and Melbourne in 2002. The Crawford Report (2009) identifies the ageing population and masters sport as one of nine areas important to ensuring sport opportunities for all. This socio-political context means the SWMG bid promises regarding the development of masters sport were significant in providing an opportunity to take stock of masters sport in NSW and Australia, assess needs and areas for development, and provide leadership and strategies to develop masters sport.

4.4.3 Setting the Boundaries for Investigation

The boundaries for a case study inquiry are sometimes difficult to establish, as the boundaries between a phenomenon and its context are not always clear (Stake, 1994, 2000; Yin, 2003). Likewise, the boundaries for an ION are also difficult to determine due to the difficulty in drawing lines in the sand in relation to the potentially

exponential linkages and interdependencies among organisations and their contexts in an ION (Benson, 1975; Borch & Arthur, 1995; Osborn & Hagedoorn, 1997).

As the ION of a large-scale sport event and its influences on securing sport development legacies has not previously been investigated, the researcher consulted with SWMGOC, the event organising committee, to determine who it considered to be the key stakeholders participating in the SWMG ION that were relevant to securing sport development legacies. The researcher had a preliminary meeting with the SWMGOC representative responsible for managing the research partnerships, explaining the research focus and the researcher's need to contact key informants in SWMGOC and the organisations identified by SWMGOC as being relevant to securing sport development legacies from the SWMG.

Consultation with SWMGOC identified the following organisations as being influential to securing sport development legacies:

- NSW Major Events Board, responsible for submitting the bid document for the SWMG (2000–2007);

- International Masters Games Association (IMGA), the event governing body for the World Masters Games;

- The sport organisations contracted by SWMGOC to deliver the sport competition component of the SWMG. These were mainly SSOs but also included some NSOs;

- NSW Sport and Recreation (NSWSR), the agency responsible for promoting sport and physical activity in NSW;

- Events NSW, the agency responsible for attracting, developing and leveraging sport events in NSW (2007–2011); and

- Communities NSW, a department that became responsible for NSW Sport and Recreation just prior to the staging of the SWMG.

These organisations formed the sampling frame for this thesis. A visual representation of the stakeholders identified as participating in the SWMG ION and relevant to securing sport development legacies is provided in Figure 6. This initial map depicts SWMGOC as the central organisation within the ION responsible for coordinating the activities of the stakeholders relevant to sport development legacies. NSW Major Events Board is not included in the visual representation as the organisation was superseded by Events NSW in 2007. While SWMGOC reported to the NSW Minister for Tourism at the time the research was undertaken, the Minister and Department of Tourism were not included in the sample frame due to the specific focus of the agency on tourism development.

Figure 6: Map of Sport Development Stakeholders Participating in the SWMG ION
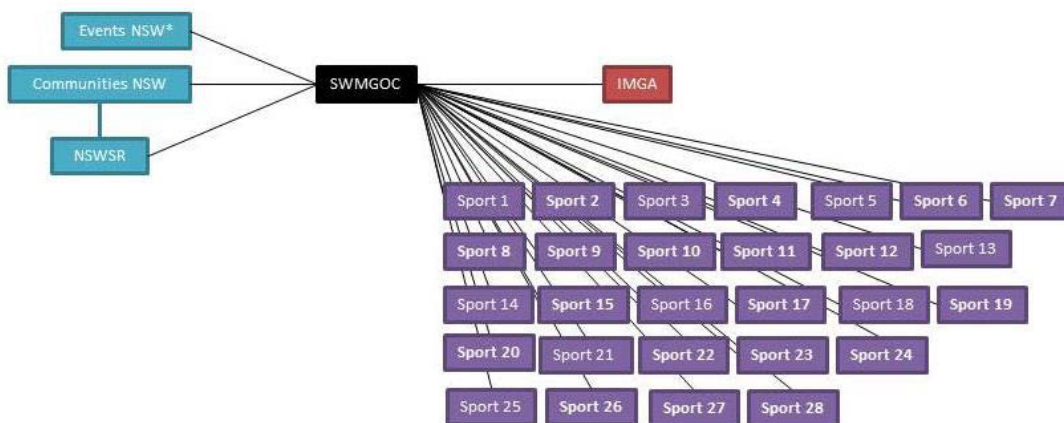
4.5   Data Collection

To construct the case study, the methods used included document analysis, semi-structured in-depth interviews, and event observation. Each of these methods is detailed in this section.

4.5.1 Documents as a Data Source

Documents are considered to constitute a 'particularly rich source of information' (Patton, 2002, p. 293). This is because documents are situated within a particular time period and therefore these recorded materials enable insights into a phenomenon at a particular point in time (Patton, 2002; Prior, 2003). Documents are different to other data sources such as in-depth interviews, as they are generally written for a specific purpose and need to be understood within the conditions within which they were produced (Bowen, 2009; Hodder, 2000; Prior, 2003). Documents often provide a useful background for case study research, providing insights that otherwise may not be available (Bowen, 2009; Patton, 2002).

Sample

Purposive sampling was applied to the collection of documents across the 32 stakeholder organisations identified by SWMGOC as participating in the SWMG ION. These included:

- SWMGOC;

- The NSW Major Events Board;

- The IMGA;

- The 28 sports contracted by SWMGOC;

- NSW Sport and Recreation;

- Events NSW; and

- Communities NSW.

Documents sought included both general organisational documents to gather data relevant to each of the organisation's backgrounds, strategic directions and priorities, and documents specific to the SWMG to gather data relating to interactions among participating organisations for the SWMG and sport development legacies.

In all, the researcher collected 57 documents across 30 stakeholders that participated in the SWMG ION and that were relevant to securing sport development legacies.

Procedure

Documents were collected through several means. First, documents that were available publicly online were downloaded. Second, the research partnership between the UTS, SWMGOC and Communities NSW (see Section 4.4.1) provided another access point to collect documents. Softcopy and hardcopy documents were converted to Word format in preparation for data analysis.

Due to the cross-sector nature of the SWMG ION, there was no consistent type of document gathered, and a range of management documents across the different organisations were sourced, as listed in Table 13. In addition, the researcher was unable to access adequate documentation for all sport organisations. Some organisations simply did not have relevant documents that were publicly available. This was probably influenced by the voluntary nature of these organisations and their limited resources for such record keeping (Shilbury & Kellett, 2011). Based on

information provided in interviews with the sport organisations, one additional document was sourced from an organisation outside of the sample frame to triangulate the data; this was the Australian Sports Commission's *2009–2010 Annual Report.*

Table 13: Summary of Documents Collected for Analysis

Organisation and Documents	Endnote Reference used in Case Study
SWMGOC	
Corporate Plan	
SWMGOC. (2007). Sydney 2009 World Masters Games Organising Committee Corporate Plan June 2007 (Internal Document). Sydney, Australia: Sydney 2009 World Masters Games Organising Committee	(SWMGOC, 2007b)
Annual Reports	
SWMGOC. (2006). Sydney 2009 World Masters Games Organising Committee (SWMGOC) Annual Report 2005-06. Sydney, Australia	(SWMGOC, 2006)
SWMGOC. (2007). Sydney World Masters Games Organising Committee Annual Report 2006-07. Sydney, Australia	(SWMGOC, 2007a)
SWMGOC. (2008). Sydney 2009 World Masters Games Organising Committee Annual Report 2007-2008. Sydney, Australia	(SWMGOC, 2008a)
Contractual Agreement	
SWMGOC. (2008). Sports Agreement (Internal Document - Master copy). Sydney, Australia: Sydney 2009 World Masters Games Organising Committee	(SWMGOC, 2008d)
Event Evaluation	
Inside Story. (2009). Sydney 2009 World Masters Games Pre and Post Visitor Survey. Sydney, Australia: Sydney 2009 World Masters Games Organising Committee.	(Inside Story, 2009)
SWMGOC. (2010). Sydney 2009 World Masters Games: Final Report. Sydney: Sydney World Masters Games Organising Committee.	(SWMGOC, 2010)
Other Documents	
SWMGOC. (2008). Record of Sport Association Contract Status at 24 9 08. Sydney: Sydney World Masters Games Organising Committee	(SWMGOC, 2008c)
SWMGOC. (2008). Games Information Guide Sydney, Australia.	(SWMGOC, 2008b)
SWMGOC. (2009). Sydney 2009 World Masters Games - Fact Sheet: Sydney 2009 World Masters Games Organising Committee.	(SWMGOC, 2009)
NSW Government. (2010). State Archives Investigator - Sydney 2009 World Masters Games Organising Committee. Sydney, NSW	(NSW Government, 2010)
NSW Government. (2011). State Records Archive Investigator - Tourism. Sydney, NSW	(NSW Government, 2011)

Table 13: Summary of Documents Collected for Analysis (continued)

Organisation and Documents	Endnote Reference used in Case Study
NSW Major Events Board	
Event Bid	
NSW Major Events Board. (2003). World Masters Games 09, Sydney Australia. Sydney, Australia: New South Wales Major Events Board	(NSW Major Events Board, 2003)
Hansards & Legislation	
Sydney 2009 World Masters Games Organising Committee Bill: Second Reading - Extract from NSW Legislative Assembly Hansard and Papers Wednesday 25 May 2005 (2005).	(NSW Legislative Assembly, 2005d)
Sydney 2009 World Masters Games Organising Committee Bill: Second Reading - Extract from NSW Legislative Assembly Hansard and Papers Thursday 23 June 2005 (2005).	(NSW Legislative Assembly, 2005c)
Sydney 2009 World Masters Games Organising Committee Bill 2005, 65, NSW Legislative Assembly (2005).	(NSW Legislative Assembly, 2005a)
Sydney 2009 World Masters Games Organising Committee Bill Explanatory Note, 65, NSW Legislative Assembly (2005)	(NSW Legislative Assembly, 2005b)
Sydney 2009 World Masters Games Organising Committee Act (2005)	(NSW Government, 2005)
IMGA	
Constitution and Intent Documents	
IMGA. (1995). International Masters Games Association Constitution: International Masters Games Association.	(IMGA, 1995)
IMGA. (2003). World Masters Games Candidature Guidelines: International Masters Games Association.	(IMGA, 2003)
Contractual Agreement	
IMGA. (2004). Host City Contract: IMGA & NSW Government.	(IMGA, 2004a)
Other	
IMGA. (2004, 13 August 2009). Sydney, Australia Named Host City for 2009 World Masters Games: Welcoming the world.	(IMGA, 2004b)

Table 13: Summary of Documents collected for Analysis (continued)

Organisation and Documents	Endnote Reference used in Case Study
Sport Organisations	
Archery NSW	
Archery NSW. (no year). Constitution. Sydney, Australia.	(Archery NSW, n.d.)
Athletics NSW	
Athletics NSW. (2009). Annual Report 2008/09. Sydney, Australia.	(Athletics NSW, 2009)
Badminton	
Badminton NSW. (no year). About Us page on website	(Badminton NSW, n.d)
Baseball	
NSW Baseball League Inc. (2005). Constitution. Melbourne, Australia: Lander & Rogers Lawyers.	(NSW Baseball League Inc., 2005)
Basketball	
Basketball NSW. (2008). Constitution. Sydney, Australia.	(Basketball NSW, 2008)
Canoe/Kayak – ran by Australian Canoeing	
Australian Canoeing Inc. (2003). Constitution. Sydney, Australia.	(Australian Canoeing Inc., 2003)
Cycling	
Cycling NSW. (2008). Constitution. Sydney, Australia.	(Cycling NSW, 2008)
Diving	
Diving NSW. (2004). Statement of Purposes and Rules.	(Diving NSW, 2004)
Football	
Football NSW. (2007). Constitution: Football NSW Limited.	(Football NSW Limited, 2007)
Golf	
Golf NSW. (no year). Constitution. Sydney, Australia.	(Golf NSW, n.d.)
Hockey	
Hockey NSW. (2009). Constitution of Hockey New South Wales Limited.	(Hockey NSW, 2009)
Lawn Bowls	
Royal NSW Bowling Association. (2007). Constitution. Sydney, Australia.	(Royal NSW Bowling Association, 2007)
Netball	
Netball NSW. (2008). Annual Report.	(Netball NSW, 2008)
Orienteering – ran by Orienteering Australia	
Orienteering Australia. (2009). Orienteering Australia Constitution.	(Orienteering Australia, 2009)
Rowing	
NSW Rowing Association Inc. (2007). RULES. Sydney, Australia.	(NSW Rowing Association Inc., 2007)

Table 13: Summary of Documents collected for Analysis (continued)

Organisation and Documents	Endnote Reference used in Case Study
Rugby Union	
NSW Rugby Union. (no year). NSW Rugby Union Constitution.	(NSW Rugby Union, n.d.)
Sailing – ran by Yachting NSW	
Yachting NSW. (2004). Constitution. Sydney, Australia: Yachting New South Wales.	(Yachting NSW, 2004)
Shooting – No documents publicly available	
Softball	
Softball New South Wales Inc. (2007). Statement of Purposes and Rules. Sydney: Softball New South Wales Inc.	(Softball New South Wales Inc., 2007)
Squash	
NSW Squash Limited. (2009). 2009 Annual Report.	(NSW Squash Limited, 2009)
Surf Lifesaving – Australian Surf Lifesaving	
Surf Life Saving. (2009). Can do. Annual Report 2008-09.	(Surf Life Saving Australia, 2009)
Swimming – ran by the NSW Association of AUSSI Masters Swimming Clubs Inc.	
The NSW Association of AUSSI Masters Swimming Clubs Inc. (2009). Constitution. Sydney, Australia.	(The NSW Association of AUSSI Masters Swimming Clubs Inc., 2009)
Table Tennis	
Table Tennis NSW. (2008). Constitution. Sydney, Australia.	(Table Tennis NSW, 2008)
Tennis	
Table Tennis NSW. (2008). Constitution. Sydney, Australia.	(Tennis New South Wales Ltd, 2009)
Touch Football	
NSW Touch Association Inc. (2007). Constitution. Sydney, Australia.	(NSW Touch Association Inc., 2007)
Volleyball – ran by the Australian Volleyball Federation	
Australian Volleyball Federation Inc. (2008). Statement of Purposes. Melbourne, Australia.	(Australian Volleyball Federation Inc., 2008)
Water Polo	
NSW Water Polo Inc. (2009). Constitution. Sydney, Australia.	(NSW Water Polo Inc., 2009)
Weightlifting – No documents publicly available	

Table 13: Summary of Documents collected for Analysis (continued)

Organisation and Documents	Endnote Reference used in Case Study
NSW Sport & Recreation	
Strategic Plan	
NSW Sport & Recreation. (2006). Game Plan 2012: NSW Sport and Recreation Industry Five Year Plan. Sydney, Australia: NSW Sport and Recreation, NSW Sport and Recreation Advisory Council, NSW Sports Federation.	(NSW Sport & Recreation, 2006)
Annual Reports	
NSW Department of Tourism Sport and Recreation. (2004). Annual Report 2003-2004. Sydney, NSW: NSW Government	(NSW Department of Tourism Sport and Recreation, 2004)
NSW Department of the Arts Sport & Recreation. (2006). Annual Report 2005-2006. Sydney, NSW: NSW Government.	(NSW Department of the Arts Sport & Recreation, 2006)
NSW Department of the Arts Sport & Recreation. (2007). Annual Report 2006-2007. Sydney, NSW: NSW Government.	(NSW Department of the Arts Sport & Recreation, 2007)
NSW Department of the Arts Sport & Recreation. (2008). Annual Report 2007-2008. Sydney, Australia: NSW Government.	(NSW Department of the Arts Sport & Recreation, 2008)
NSW Department of the Arts Sport & Recreation. (2009). Annual Report 2008-2009. Sydney, NSW: NSW Government.	(NSW Department of the Arts Sport & Recreation, 2009)
Other	
NSW Government. (2006). State Records Archive Investigator - Department of Tourism, Sport and Recreation. Sydney, Australia	(NSW Government, 2006)
Events NSW	
Strategic Plan	
Tourism NSW. (2009). Sydney 2009 World Masters Games: Leveraging Tourism Benefits for NSW. Sydney, NSW	(Tourism NSW, 2009)
Communities NSW	
Annual Report	
Communities NSW. (2010). Communities NSW Annual Report 2009-10. Sydney, NSW	(Communities NSW, 2010)

4.5.2 In-depth Interviews

In-depth interviews are one of the most common methods of data collection in qualitative research designs (Fontana & Frey, 2000; Legard, Keegan & Ward, 2003). In-depth interviews are useful for finding out things that cannot be directly observed (Legard et al., 2003; Patton, 2002), and are sometimes considered a type of conversation with purpose (Legard et al., 2003). As Patton (2002, p. 341) explains:

> The purpose of interviewing … is to allow us to enter into the other person's perspective. Qualitative interviewing begins with the assumption that the perspective of others is meaningful, knowable, and able to be made explicit. We interview to find out what is in and on someone else's mind, to gather their stories.

In-depth interviews have the potential to provide important contextual insights that are often not documented or captured in the official record (Fontana & Frey, 2000). The researcher is able to see through the eyes of those being researched by probing and gaining access to insights that an outside observer would not (Bryman, 2012; Legard et al., 2003).

Sample

A combination of purposive and snowball sampling was employed for the in-depth interviews. Purposive sampling was used to identify key informants who could provide a depth of information regarding the research problem (Bryman, 2012; Patton, 2002; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). The 32 stakeholder organisations identified by SWMGOC as participating in the SWMG ION were approached by the researcher to provide a suitable informant to participate in a semi-structured in-depth interview. Of the 32 organisations, 28 responded to the opportunity to be involved with the research, including:

- SWMGOC

- The NSW Major Events Board;

- The IMGA;

- NSW Sport and Recreation;

- Events NSW;

- Communities NSW; and

- Twenty-four of the 28 sports contracted by SWMGOC.

The use of snowball sampling reflected the inductive nature of the research and meant that the key informants recommended other key informants to be included in the research (Bryman, 2012). This meant that some organisations had multiple informants participate in the research. There was some self-selection bias evident across the sport organisations where representatives communicated that they did not wish to be involved in the research, and others simply did not respond to the researcher's invitation.

In all, the researcher conducted 37 interviews across 28 organisations.

Procedure

Semi-structured in-depth interviewing, which combines a checklist and a conversational style was used in the in-depth interviews. The advantage of a checklist is that the interviewer can focus on topics they believe to be important to the research problem, while the conversational style provides the flexibility for an interviewee to discuss topics they consider important (Patton, 2002; Bryman, 2012). The flexibility of semi-structured interviewing is important to identify and explore insights that the researcher did not include in initial theoretical frameworks (Patton, 2002; Siggelkow, 2007).

Interview checklists were constructed based on the subsidiary research objectives, including questions and prompts relating to:

- The participating organisation, its involvement with the SWMG and its connection with other organisations identified by SWMGOC as participating in the SWMG ION;

- Contextual factors at the organisational and ION levels with the potential to influence the coordination and cooperation of the participating organisation towards securing sport development legacies; and

- The conceptualisation and operationalisation of sport development legacies by the participating organisations.

The detailed interview checklists are included in Appendix 4.

In-depth interviews were conducted between July 2009 and January 2010. Informed consent was gained from all interviewees to be interviewed for up to one hour and have their interview recorded. A sample of the consent form that each of the interviewees was asked to read and sign is included in Appendix 5. The researcher conducted in-depth interviews in places convenient to the interviewees. The majority were conducted in workplaces, some were conducted in nearby cafes, three were conducted by telephone, and three were completed by email. The interviews lasted between 30 minutes and 2 hours and were recorded with permission of the interview participants. All in-depth interviews were transcribed verbatim and interviewees were given the opportunity to check the transcripts for accuracy. Following these steps, the transcripts were prepared for data analysis.

Table 14 below provides a list of the semi-structured in-depth interviews that were carried out in each organisation, including the interviewee's position in the organisation and the date the interview was conducted. As many of the organisations included in this thesis were quite small in terms of the number of employees, efforts have been made to de-identify the individuals and the organisations they represent. As such, in terms of position held in the organisation, generic labels have been used to group together similar positions, for instance:

- **Low-level Manager** – refers to positions with a low degree of decision-making, and are most likely to be responsible for implementing decisions at the operational level, including coordinators and officers.

- **Mid-level Manager** – refers to positions with a medium, or delegated, degree of decision-making, and refers to a departmental manager.

- **Top-level Manager** – refers to positions with the most amount of decision-making in an organisation, and includes CEOs, board members, and senior managers in an organisation.

In addition to these position labels, each of the interviewees was given a unique label in the format of the organisation they represented and a randomly assigned number. This label was used to identify data that belonged to their interview responses.

Table 14: Semi-Structured In-depth Interviews Carried Out in Each Organisation

Participating Organisations and randomly assigned codes for respondents	Position held in Organisation	Date
SWMGOC		
SWMGOC 1	Mid-level Manager	20 July 2009
SWMGOC 2	Low-level Manager	29 July 2009
SWMGOC 3	Top-level Manager	18 June 2009
SWMGOC 4	Top-level Manager	10 December 2009
SWMGOC 5	Mid-level Manager	4 November 2009
SWMGOC 6	Top-level Manager	17 November 2009
SWMGOC 7	Top-level Manager	1 December 2009
IMGA		
IMGA 1	Top-level Manager	6 January 2010
Events NSW		
Government 1	Mid-level Manager	4 January 2010
NSW Major Events Board		
Government 2	Top-level Manager	10 January 2010
Communities NSW		
Government 3	Top-level Manager	2 November 2009
NSW Sport and Recreation		
Government 4	Mid-level Manager	18 November 2009
Government 5	Low-level Manager	18 November 2009
Sport Organisations		
Sport 1	Top-level Manager	10 October 2009
Sport 2	Top-level Manager	13 October 2009
Sport 3	Top-level Manager	14 October 2009
Sport 4a	Mid-level Manager	9 October 2009
Sport 4b	Mid-level Manager	15 October 2009
Sport 5	Top-level Manager	14 October 2009
Sport 6	Did not participate	
Sport 7	Top-level Manager	16 October 2009
Sport 8	Top-level Manager	17 October 2009
Sport 9	Top-level Manager	21 October 2009
Sport 10	Top-level Manager	22 October 2009
Sport 11	Top-level Manager	22 October 2009
Sport 12a	Low-level Manager	26 October 2009
Sport 12b	Mid-level Manager	2 November 2009
Sport 13	Top-level Manager	27 October 2009
Sport 14	Mid-level Manager	28 October 2009
Sport 15	Mid-level Manager	30 October 2009
Sport 16	Did not participate	
Sport 17	Top-level Manager	30 October 2009
Sport 18	Top-level Manager	10 November 2009
Sport 19	Low-level Manager	17 November 2009
Sport 20	Top-level Manager	18 June 2010
Sport 21	Top-level Manager	27 June 2010
Sport 22	Mid-level Manager	30 October 2009
Sport 23	Mid-level Manager	25 October 2009
Sport 24	Mid-level Manager	25 November 2009
Sport 25	Did not participate	
Sport 26	Did not participate	
Sport 27	Did not participate	
Sport 28	Did not participate	

4.5.3 Observation

Observation allows a researcher to examine processes and outcomes in their natural settings (Bryman, 2012; Snow & Thomas, 1994). Observation entails a researcher's immersion in a social setting to gain an understanding of the behaviours of a group in that setting through watching, listening and asking questions (Bryman, 2012; DeWalt & DeWalt, 2011). It also enables a researcher access to realistic occurrences (Snow & Thomas, 1994) and to gain exposure to tacit knowledge (DeWalt & DeWalt, 2011).

Observation can be particularly important in developing a detailed familiarity with the topic of study (Snow & Thomas, 1994). As a complementary method, as it is used in this case study, a familiarity of topic and presence of the researcher in the setting is useful in building rapport with key informants, as well as providing opportunities to reflect on data collected through other methods (Bryman, 2012; DeWalt & DeWalt, 2011). This complementary use of observation is consistent with research design of previous event and sport network research (Babiak, 2007; Larson, 2002; Parent et al., 2013). As such, observation was used in this thesis to develop intricate knowledge of the SWMG and the SWMG ION, develop familiarity with research participants, and provide alternative perspectives to those gained in the document analysis and semi-structured in-depth interviews to challenge or substantiate findings.

Sample

The sampling frame for the observation was determined by the access granted to the event (Bryman, 2012). As such, the sampling approach was opportunistic in that the researcher took as many opportunities to observe as were possible and practical. This opportunistic approach was justified by the short time frame of the event that was

available to carry out observation. However, due to the geographic spread of the 72 SWMG venues across Sydney, a plan was put together to try to be at venues when certain representatives from participating organisations would be onsite and/or to observe notable occurrences (i.e. high profile finals).

While many sports were hosted at Sydney Olympic Park in Homebush Bay, approximately 30 minutes' travel time from the Sydney central business district; other sports were spread across Sydney according to facility needs. This meant that travel times between some venues took up to approximately 2½ hours depending on Sydney traffic. In addition, not all sports ran their competitions every day, some having rest days, and some having a format which led to finals at the beginning of the week, meaning many participants were no longer participating, or present at the venues. Other sports postponed or cancelled competitions based on weather conditions. The researcher grouped observations according to Sydney Olympic Park venues and non-Sydney Olympic Park venues, with the latter grouped according to proximity to one another.

In all, the observation schedule incorporated observation of 21 sports across 21 venues and sixty-six hours of event observation were undertaken between 6 and 18 October, 2009.

Procedure

The type of observation that was undertaken in the research design best reflected that of the observer as a participant (Atkinson & Hammersley, 1994; DeWalt & DeWalt, 2011). The researcher was granted conditional access to the SWMG, which was enabled through a formal research partnership established with SWMGOC and the

researcher's institution, UTS. The researcher was included in the Observer Program organised by SWMGOC, positioning the researcher as member of an ancillary group, not membership of the core of SWMGOC (DeWalt & DeWalt, 2011). The Observer Program was run for select VIPs from other masters sport events, both in Australia and around the world, and for academics and health practitioners conducting research around the SWMG and masters sport. Participation in the Observer Program provided the researcher with an accreditation lanyard that was worn at all times for access and security reasons. The accreditation lanyard allowed access to all official SWMG venues for the duration of the SWMG and ancillary events including the opening ceremony VIP function, the Health & Lifestyle Expo, Masters hub, and closing ceremony. The lanyard meant the nature of the observation was overt as the researcher was identified as a VIP (Atkinson & Hammersley, 1994).

Access to relevant social settings is a key challenge in observation research (Bryman, 2012; DeWalt & DeWalt, 2011), particularly when the observations occur in a closed setting such as the planning and staging of a ticketed event. In line with this, observation was limited to access provided through the Observer Program, as the researcher's offer to join SWMGOC as a volunteer and help with SWMG-related tasks and gain a feel for the organisation was not taken up by SWMGOC representatives. This reiterated the complementary nature of observation in the research design, as most interaction with subjects was most likely to occur through interviews, which become the main source of data along with documents (Bryman, 2012; DeWalt & DeWalt, 2011).

The format of the Observer Program included scheduled information sessions where senior SWMGOC managers gave presentations on their areas of responsibility. Organised tours were also conducted through SWMG venues for insights into behind the scenes operations. The formal program of the Observer Program ran for two days. Day 1 commenced at 2pm on 11 October, 2009 (Day 2 of the SWMG competition), with SWMGOC senior management presentations held prior to the VIP function and Opening Ceremony. Day 2 ran from 9am until 6pm on 12 October (Day 3 of the SWMG competition) and included a tour of Sydney Olympic Park venues and the Blacktown Olympic Park facility.

Personal reflections and analytical thoughts were recorded as they arose, as is typical of observer-as-participant observation (DeWalt & DeWalt, 2011). The researcher kept a paper-based journal, writing an entry for each observation as soon as possible after seeing, or hearing something of relevance to the central research question. Each journal entry detailed the date and time, observation setting, and who was involved. The journal entries included notes on what was seen and heard in a general sense, as well as specific notes from conversations with people at each of the sites. In most cases it was practical to take notes at the time of the observation as there were also media representatives wandering around. In other cases notes were recorded as soon as possible after an observation, as staff and participants were not inclined to talk openly with someone with a notebook and pen. At the conclusion of the data collection, the notes were typed up in Microsoft Word format for inclusion in the data analysis. These notes were also helpful in the process of crystallisation and sometimes provided a basis for 'theoretical elaboration' of the data (Bryman, 2012, p.447).

Table 15 below provides a summary of the observations made, detailing the date and time, a description of the observation setting, and the reference used for the observation in the thesis.

Table 15: Summary of Observations carried out

Date & Time	Description of Observation Setting	Referred to in the thesis
Tuesday 6 October, 2009 7pm-9pm	Get together event hosted by SWMGOC at SWMG headquarters, Sydney Olympic Park. The purpose of this event was for SWMGOC staff to have a casual evening together and acknowledge the shift into Games delivery mode.	Observation 1
Wednesday 7 October, 2009 3pm – 8pm	Accreditation, sport information booths and Health & Lifestyle Expo, SWMG Headquarters, Sydney Olympic Park	Observation 2
Thursday 8 October, 2009 2pm – 5pm	Accreditation, Sport Information booths and Health & Lifestyle Expo, SWMG Headquarters, Sydney Olympic Park	Observation 3
Friday 9 October, 2009 2pm – 10pm	Accreditation, Sport Information booths and Health & Lifestyle Expo, SWMG Headquarters, Sydney Olympic Park SWMG participant Welcome Party, held at the Novotel, Sydney Olympic Park (rained out)	Observation 4
Saturday 10 October, 2009 12.30pm – 6pm Day 1 of SWMG	Accreditation, Sport Information booths and Health & Lifestyle Expo, SWMG Headquarters, Sydney Olympic Park Sydney Olympic Park venues	Observation 5
Sunday 11October, 2009 2pm – 10pm Day 2 of SWMG	**Observer program**, tour of accreditation, sport information booths and Health & Lifestyle Expo, SWMG headquarters, Sydney Olympic Park, including behind the scenes operations VIP function, opening ceremony	Observation 6
Monday 12 October, 2009 9am – 6pm Day 3 of SWMG	**Observer program**, presentations by senior SWMGOC staff, Sydney Olympic Park. Tour of venues weightlifting, aquatic centre, media centre, Sydney Olympic Park & baseball, and Blacktown Olympic Park.	Observation 7
Tuesday 13 October, 2009 10am – 4pm Day 4 of SWMG	Non-Sydney Olympic Park venues	Observation 8
Wednesday 14 October, 2009 12pm – 8pm Day 5 of SWMG	Sydney Olympic Park venues	Observation 9
Thursday 15 October, 2009 11.30am – 3pm Day 6 of SWMG	Non-Sydney Olympic Park venues	Observation 10
Friday 16 October, 2009 11.30am – 4pm Day 7 of SWMG	Non-Sydney Olympic Park venues	Observation 11
Saturday 17 October, 2009 10.30am – 3.00pm Day 8 of SWMG	Non-Sydney Olympic Park venues	Observation 12
Sunday 18 October, 2009 5pm – 9pm Day 9 (last day) of SWMG	Closing Ceremony, Darling Harbour, Sydney	Observation 13

4.6   Data Analysis

The data analysis followed the interpretivist constructivist framework of this qualitative research, and at the same time acknowledged the analytical lens of ION Theory. This means that the data analysis reflected a hybrid inductive/deductive model (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006; Orton, 1997). Orton (1997) argues that static deductive or inductive approaches to analysis are limited in their ability to achieve sense making in increasingly complex organisational systems. Instead, Orton (1997) argues researchers must become better at managing interactions between multiple story lines in complex research settings.

In this thesis ION Theory provided a loose framework of concepts to help understand the research problem of the SWMG ION (i.e. deductive reasoning), and at the same time, the researcher searched for themes that emerged through the data specific to the SWMG ION context (i.e. inductive reasoning). Although described here as a linear step-by-step process, the data analysis was an iterative and reflexive process that the researcher engaged in early on in the data collection phase of the research, as is common in qualitative research (Bryman, 2012; Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006; Orton, 1997).

All forms of data were systematically organised in NVivo 8, a software package designed to assist in the organisation of qualitative data for analysis. Each of the qualitative data sources was skimmed, with no attempt at note making or interpretation to establish familiarity with the data (Bazeley, 2007). Next, a thorough reading of the data was undertaken in which the researcher looked for recurring words and ideas, patterns and themes and assigned codes to these bits of data (Bazeley,

2007). Coding is a process of fragmenting data into themes to reduce the data into a more manageable and meaningful forms (Bazeley, 2007). Where pertinent themes were evident, free nodes were created in the NVivo 8 software and were applied to words and phrases (Bazeley, 2007; Bryman, 2012; Patton, 2002). The free nodes represent unconnected concepts and act as indexes for the data (Bazeley, 2007). This stage of coding required decisions to be made about how significant the coded material was to the research questions (Bazeley, 2007; Bowen, 2009). This brought to the fore the need to consider that meaning can be located 'in a single instance, but usually the important meanings will come from reappearance over and over' (Stake, 1995, p. 78). This initial coding technique is referred to as open coding or bucket coding (Bazeley, 2007), in which large chunks of data are grouped for conceptual and comparative purposes.

After the free nodes had been created, the next step was to review these to look for patterns and relationships between the initial concepts (Bazeley, 2007; Bowen, 2009). Where patterns and relationships were evident, the free nodes were grouped together around common themes to make meaning (Bazeley, 2007; Bowen, 2009; Bryman, 2012). Bazeley (2007, p. 100) explains the process as involving sorting and connecting of nodes 'into a branching system of tree nodes that reflects the structure of the data, that is, the kinds of things that are being considered'. To inform this process, notes were kept during each stage of these coding processes to record reflections and interpretations to explore in subsequent stages of the analysis (Bazeley, 2007). This secondary coding technique is referred to as axial coding, where free nodes are grouped together based on a mixture of inductive and deductive reasoning (Bryman, 2012). Finally, patterns between tree nodes were reviewed to

establish selective codes that reflected overarching ideas, causes, explanations, relationships, or complex ideas evident in the data (Bazeley, 2007; Bryman, 2012). At various stages of the coding process, the thesis supervisors provided feedback on the researcher's interpretations, coding structures and sense making, which were incorporated at various stages of the data analysis process. Figure 7 provides a visual summary of the final themes (i.e. selective codes) and sub-themes (i.e. axial codes) included in this thesis.

Figure 7: Visual Summary of the Final Themes and Sub-themes included in this Thesis

Main Theme 1: ION Development & Structure	Main Theme 2: Context of Sport Development	Main Theme 3: Legacy 'Consensus'
Organisations and Connections (collection of descriptive data relating to the development and structure of the SWMG ION).	Sport Development Priorities	Legacy Visions
	Existing Masters Sport Delivery	Opportunties
		Responsibilities
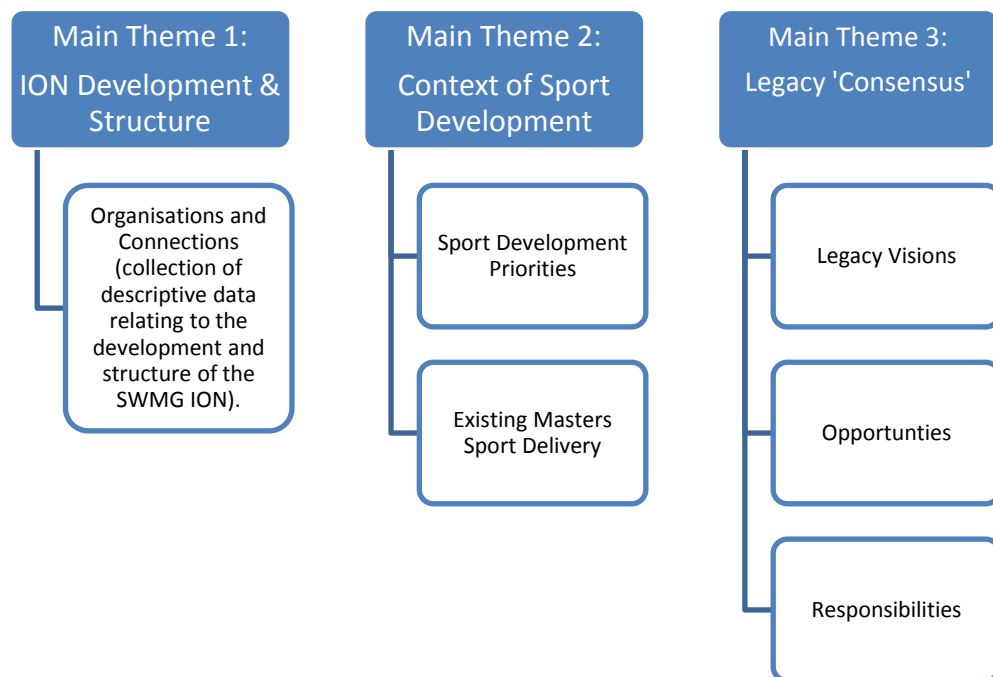
4.7   Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness is a concept that has been developed in association with qualitative methods to ensure the rigour of investigator's actions during qualitative research and help the audience account for the qualitative researcher's effect on the research process (Denzin, 2009; Guba, 1981). The notion of trustworthiness has developed in

qualitative research paradigms in place of the positivist reliability and validity measures that have been deemed inappropriate for interpretivist modes of inquiry (Bryman, 2012; Denzin, 2009). Importantly, Guba (1981) highlights that the notion of trustworthiness is not necessarily about which assumptions represent a truth, but instead which assumptions provide the best fit with the phenomenon being studied. Guba (1981) suggested four main criteria relating to the trustworthiness of a research design, including: credibility; transferability; dependability; and comfirmability. Table 16 lists these criteria, provides an explanation for each, and details the implementation of strategies throughout the research design to address each of the criteria.

Table 16: Trustworthiness Criteria, Explanation and Implementation in the Research Design

Criteria	Explanation	Implementation in Research Design
Credibility	Understanding that there are many interpretations of social reality, and it is therefore important that findings represent a plausible or believable version of the phenomenon being studied(Guba, 1981)	• Member checking – all interviewees were given the opportunity to check transcripts to make sure the text reflected the meaning of their statements (Bryman, 2012; Guba, 1981) • Code checking – at various stages of the data analysis the thesis supervisors reviewed the coded material and interpretations (Bryman, 2012; Guba, 1981) • Triangulation – use of multiple methods of document analysis, in-depth interviews, and event observation aided the credibility criteria (Bryman, 2012; Burnham, Gillard, Grant, & Layton-Henry, 2004; Guba, 1981)
Transferability	Refers to the likelihood of qualitative research being context-relevant, and being able to draw out features that may be generalizable to other situations (Guba, 1981)	• Thick description – transferability was ensured by contextualising the case study and representing the event from various perspectives (Bryman, 2012; Fischer, 2003; Guba, 1981; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Yanow, 1996) • Thick description – enabled decisions about possible transferability of findings to other contexts (Bryman, 2012; Guba, 1981)
Dependability	Refers to the ability for peers to audit the research to determine the stability, quality and reliability of findings (Bryman, 2012; Guba, 1981)	• Record keeping – details for all stages of the research from conception through to findings and conclusions (Bryman, 2012; Guba, 1981; Yin, 2003) • Journals – reflections were kept through the research process (Guba, 1981; Yin, 2003) • Case study write up – citing of the case study sources to provide evidence of phenomenon (Yin, 2003)
Confirmability	Accepts that while objectivity is often challenged through a qualitative and interpretive approach, the researcher must be able to demonstrate that their bias has not deliberately skewed research and findings (Bryman, 2012; Guba, 1981)	• Methods overlap with those outlined above, including use of triangulation, utilising record keeping and leaving an audit trail (Guba, 1981).

4.8 Ethical and Political Considerations

Ethical considerations in social research encompass the principle of researcher sensitivity to the rights of others (Gilbert, 2001). In addition to designing and conducting trustworthy and robust research, it is also important for researchers to demonstrate that they have given thought to, and sufficiently managed, the potential

effects of their research on participants (Gilbert, 2001). This research design was formally approved by the UTS Human Research Ethics Committee (approval number UTS HREC 2008-296). The UTS Human Research Ethics policy adheres to the Commonwealth Privacy Act (1988); the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Research Involving Humans; the Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee's Joint NHMRC/AV-CC Statement; and the NHMRC/AV-CC Guidelines on Research Practice (UTS, 2011).

Ethical considerations have been summarised into four main areas: harm to participants; informed consent; privacy; and deception (Bryman, 2012). Table 17 below lists each of the ethical considerations, provides an explanation of the considerations, and details the implementation of strategies in the research design to conduct ethical research.

Table 17: Ethical Considerations, Explanation and Implementation in Research Design

Ethical Consideration	Explanation	Implementation in Research Design
Harm	Refers to the potential for research to harm participants (individuals and organisations) in various ways. The most obvious is physical harm, but others include harm to development, interest or welfare (Bryman, 2012). These latter types can occur through: 1) burden of commitment; 2) inconvenience; and 3) restriction of ability to participate and share information about the research for reasons such as binding contracts that limit the ability to share information relating to the policy-making process and governing institution (Alvesson & Deetz, 2000; Clegg, Courpasson, & Phillips, 2006; Lawrence & Suddaby, 2006).	• Physical harm was non-existent across all research methods • Burden of commitment – selection processes and data collection requirements were designed to fairly distribute burden and set clear objectives for participation • Inconvenience – the researcher travelled to the participants to conduct interviews; clear objectives were set for participants; clear communication • Restrictions on participation and information – informed consent was exercised; interviews were non-personal, non-intrusive, and information sought was not commercial in nature • Interviews were conducted away from the participants' work environments where necessary; participants were de-identified where possible; participants were given the opportunity to check transcripts.
Informed Consent	Refers to the importance of giving participants as much information as possible for them to make an informed decision about their participation in the research (Bryman, 2012).	• All participants were informed of the research background and research objectives • Verbal consent was gained during the interview recording • All participants signed a consent form voluntarily.
Privacy	Refers to the importance of respecting the participant's right to privacy (Bryman, 2012). This includes issues relating to the protection of identity and personal details (Bryman, 2012).	• Informed consent was exercised – as described above, informed consent by participants acknowledged that measures would be taken to provide code names for individuals and their organisations, but also outlined that the nature of the case study may mean that readers familiar with the context may be able to identify participants inadvertently • Interviews were non-personal, non-intrusive, and information sought was not commercial in nature.
Deception	Refers to the practice of researchers representing their research as something other than what it is (Bryman, 2012).	• No deception was necessary or carried out in the research • At all times the researcher identified as a PhD student from UTS • Relationships were maintained based on trust.

In terms of the political considerations of this thesis, the focus on the ION of a large-scale event had certain implications that had to be managed through the research process. The review of documents and the in-depth interviews of representatives from SWMGOC, IMGA, government departments and sport organisations meant that the researcher needed to be conscious that power in the research relationship is not always evenly distributed and presents researchers with a number of issues to navigate and address in research design and implementation (Burnham et al., 2004). For instance, gatekeepers may be evident; they are the people in organisations that researchers must negotiate with to gain access to the documentation and people of the organisation (Burnham et al. 2004). Access to documentation and participants were managed through strategies including: purposive and snowball sampling where necessary; professional conduct; and persistence (Burnham, et al., 2004). Control techniques were addressed in the research design through triangulating sources and methods (Burnham, et al., 2004).

4.9 Limitations

It is important to acknowledge the limitations inherent in this research design (Bryman, 2012). First, being social research, there are challenges presented by social situations, they are often imperfect and unpredictable (Bryman, 2012; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). In addition, qualitative case studies and qualitative research methods often attract criticism based on perceived levels of robustness and generalisability. However, as detailed in this chapter, the research design is justified based on the aim of the research, that is, it aimed to increase understanding of a phenomenon rather to predict or explain a phenomenon (Bryman, 2012; Flyvberg, 2006b; Stake, 2000) (see Section 4.3). In addition, the methodological limitations have all been acknowledged

and where possible, addressed in the research design. For instance, methodological triangulation was employed in an attempt to provide a more complete picture of the case study, unearth similarities and differences between data sources, and bring rigour to the case study (Bryman, 2012; Guba, 1981). Further, the researcher highlighted these limitations where appropriate throughout the thesis, as is considered best practice in qualitative research (Bryman, 2012; Guba, 1981).

Second, the indefinite nature of IONs meant that there were likely to be other organisations influencing the securing of sport development legacies, beyond those identified by SWMGOC and included in the sampling frame. However, the time and resource constraints of the PhD process meant the sampling frame needed to be manageable. Bearing in mind that there is limited research into IONs and their influence on securing sport development legacies, the boundary set for the SWMG case study provides a useful starting point from which to build on in future research.

Third, there was some self-selection bias evident in terms of the interview sample with respect to the sport organisations participating in the SWMG ION. Twenty-two of the twenty-eight sport organisations that were involved in the SWMG ION participated in the study. The findings that emerged across the twenty-two sports indicated a diversity of organisation type, of approaches to masters sport, and therefore of potential resource requirements to secure sport development legacies. This nature of the sport organisations indicated that a fuller picture of the SWMG ION and its influence on securing sport development legacies may have been realised if all sport organisations participated in the research. Ways to better encourage the

participation of all key stakeholders in ION research should be considered in future research.

Last, the data collection for this thesis was conducted at the time the SWMG was hosted, and given that the legacy of large-scale sport events often needs several years to be fully realised (Gratton & Preuss, 2008), this thesis provides only a snapshot of an ION immediately before the event, during the event and immediately after the event. Within the time and resource constraints of the PhD process, the case study provides important insights into intentions and processes at the time of the event only. This means there are important opportunities for future research to develop on this basis to determine the longer-term impact of the SWMG on masters sport development in NSW and Australia. The limitations of the research will be revisited in the concluding chapter, as they provide an important basis for the recommendations for future research that stemmed from this thesis.

4.10 Summary

This chapter has presented the research design used in this thesis. First, the research question and subsidiary objectives were outlined. Second, the interpretivist, constructivist, and qualitative research approach developed and used in the thesis was discussed. Third, the use of a case study in this thesis was justified, as was the case study selection and case study boundaries. Fourth, the methods of data collection, including document analysis, semi-structured in-depth interviews, and event observation, were explained in detail. Fifth, the processes of data analysis were described. Sixth, the trustworthiness of the research was addressed. Seventh, the ethical considerations were outlined. Last, the limitations of the research design were

highlighted and justified. The next chapter presents the findings from the SWMG case study in response to the research question and objectives presented in this chapter.

Chapter 5:   Findings

5.1   Introduction

This chapter presents the empirical findings of this thesis and addresses the central research question:

How do the interorganisational networks (IONs) associated with a large-scale sport event influence sport development legacies?

The research uses ION Theory as an analytical lens through which to understand how an ION develops around a large-scale sport event and how it facilitates, or inhibits, collaborative efforts to secure sport development legacies. An ION was formed around the Sydney World Masters Games (SWMG) as a number of organisations came together to deliver the event. As the bid document for the SWMG emphasised that staging the SWMG would lead to legacies for masters sport, there was an opportunity to examine influences of an ION on sport development legacies. Three main themes emerged through the data: 1) ION Development and Structure; 2) Contextual Factors; and 3) Legacy 'Consensus'. These themes are introduced below, providing a brief overview of the discrete themes and how they relate to one another.

The theme ION Development and Structure is presented first, as a chronology of key events and connections among organisations considered by the Sydney World Masters Games Organising Committee (SWMGOC) to influence the legacies for masters sport. The chronology covers a six-year period, from the time that the bid document was submitted by the NSW Government to the International Masters Games

Association (IMGA), through to the dissolution of SWMGOC in 2010. This theme provides important insights into the evolutionary nature of the ION, which influenced, and was influenced by the Context of Sport Development introduced below, and which influenced the extent of consensus achieved in the ION regarding the legacy for masters sport. Importantly, the theme demonstrates that a hierarchical ION structure with formal connections to coordinate efforts for event delivery was emphasised. This structure served to limit informal interactions across the ION, which may have better encouraged organisational learning and development conducive to collaboration to securing legacies for masters sport.

The theme Context of Sport Development is presented second, representing the unique context influencing the impetus of sport organisations towards securing legacies for masters sport. The context of sport development emerged as a product of bringing organisations together to deliver the project of the SWMG, and this context in turn influenced the engagement of the ION with legacies for masters sport. The theme highlighted factors that existed at multiple levels that shaped or influenced both ION Development and Structure and Legacy 'Consensus'. This theme illustrated how existing approaches to masters sport and sport development priorities have the potential to influence the willingness and ability of sport organisations to secure legacies to masters sport.

The theme Legacy 'Consensus' is presented last, reflecting the processes of negotiation necessary in an ION to define what legacies to masters sport should entail, the opportunities presented by the event that can lead to these legacies, and determining responsibilities for implementing initiatives to secure legacies to masters

sport. In the case of the SWMG, the structure and context of the ION meant that there was a limited attempt to establish agreement concerning legacies for masters sport. Rather than presenting findings that explore what occurred in the ION to establish consensus towards securing legacies for masters sport, this theme explores what happens when legacies are left to chance.

Legacy 'Consensus' consists of three sub-themes: 1) legacy visions; 2) opportunities; and 3) responsibilities. These sub-themes provide insights into the visions of legacy for masters sport held by the different organisations, the opportunities provided by the event to secure these visions and the responsibilities that each organisation identified for securing legacies within the ION. Importantly, this theme demonstrates that consensus was not achieved across the ION, with no efforts by organisations to collectively define legacy visions, identify opportunities, or clarify responsibilities to secure legacies for masters sport. As a result, Legacy 'Consensus' is the final theme examined as the potential to leverage the event collectively to secure meaningful legacies for masters sport did not occur. There are only a few examples of sports acting independently to implement initiatives for masters sport. This lack of consensus can in part be attributed to the structure of the ION, as highlighted under ION Development and Structure, as well as the contextual factors present in the ION. These influences will be explored through this theme.

Figure 8 presents a visual summary of the emergent themes. ION Development and Structure is the first main theme, followed by Context of Sport Development and Legacy 'Consensus'.

Figure 8: Visual Summary of Emergent Themes
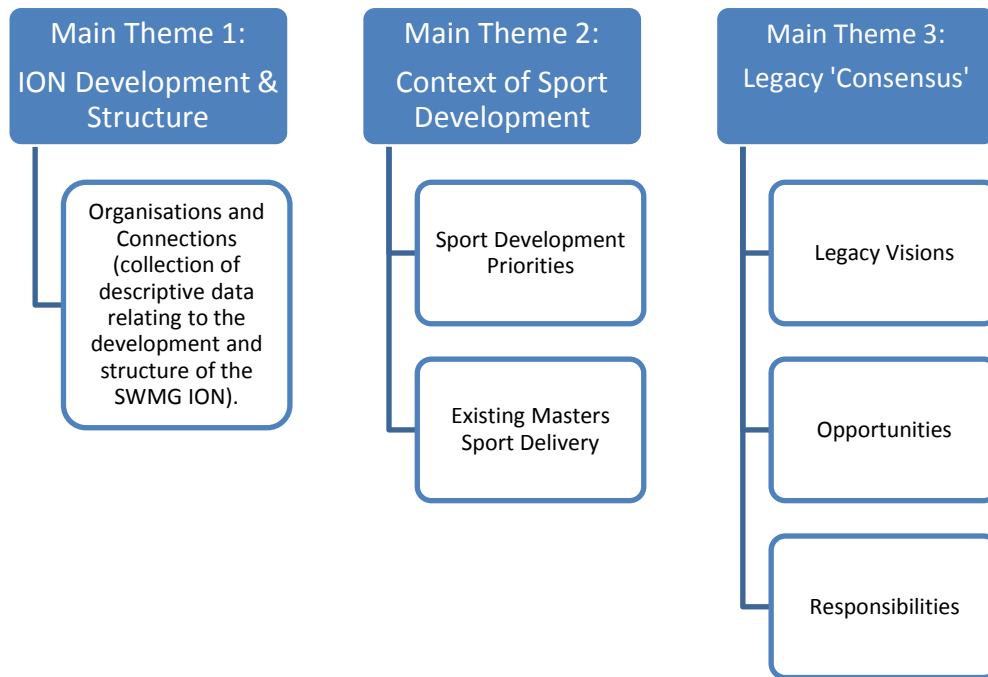
The empirical findings are now presented.

5.2 ION Development and Structure

The theme ION Development and Structure provides a detailed overview of the connections among sport development stakeholders that came to be part of the ION and had the potential to influence sport development legacies. Figure 8 shows the context in which ION Development & Structure is discussed. It became apparent during the research process that in practice the SWMG ION of sport development stakeholders was much more complex than the simple hub-and-spoke configuration represented in the initial ION map of sport development stakeholders provided by the SWMG and depicted in Figure 4.

To illustrate the complexities of the ION of sport development stakeholders, this theme is presented chronologically, in line with typical event phases, including the bid

phase, event planning phase, event delivery phase, and post-event phase. Each event phase describes:

- The individual purpose of the organisations that came to participate in the SWMG ION;

- When and how these organisations came to participate in the SWMG ION; and

- How these organisations interacted with other organisations in the SWMG ION for reasons of securing sport development legacies.

It is important to note that the organisations identified by SWMGOC were those that were already within the broader ION with the purpose of delivering a successful SWMG. However, the empirical research demonstrated there were a number of additional organisations in the broader ION with the potential to influence legacies for masters sport from the SWMG. These additional organisations will be highlighted throughout the overview, and the implications of the inclusion or exclusion of these organisations for sport development legacies will be discussed in Chapter 5.

Table 18 presents a summary of key events and connections between the organisations that came to participation in the SWMG ION.

Table 18: Timeline of Key Events and Connections between Organisations

Event Phase	Year	Day/Month	Key Event
Event Bid Phase	2003	December	NSW Major Events Board prepare and submit Sydney World Masters Games bid document to IMGA
	2004	13 June	IMGA names Sydney host city for 2009 World Masters Games
Event Planning Phase	2004	24 November	IMGA and NSW Government sign host city contract
	2005	23 June	NSW Government passes the *Sydney World Masters Games Act (2005)*
		1 July	SWMGOC constituted as a statutory corporation, under the responsibility of the NSW Department of Tourism, Sport and Recreation
			SWMGOC draft the sports agreement
	2006	3 March	NSW Department of Tourism, Sport and Recreation abolished
		11 March	SWMGOC commences operations as a separate and independent entity, reporting to the NSW Department of the Arts, Sport and Recreation
			SWMGOC commences negotiations with sport organisations
	2007	August	NSW Major Events Board superseded
		September	Events NSW established
	2008	2 June	Participant registrations opened
		29 August	SWMGOC formally positioned under the responsibility of the NSW Minister for Tourism
		September	11 of 28 sports agreements between SWMGOC and the sport organisations finalised
	2009	March	Tourism NSW Leverage Strategy publicly promoted
		July	Communities NSW established
		31 July	Participant registrations close
Event Delivery Phase	2009	10–18 October	Staging of the Sydney World Masters Games
Post-Event Phase	2010	June	SWMGOC dissolved

This timeline indicates that the ION started to develop in 2003, almost five years before the staging of the SWMG. However, the formal engagement of the sport organisations occurred quite late in the event planning phase. The following section details the development and structure of the ION of sport development stakeholders from 2003–2010.

5.2.1 Event Bid Phase

NSW Major Events Board prepares and submits bid to host the Sydney 2009 World Masters Games

The NSW Major Events Board (June 2000–September 2007) was responsible for preparing and submitting the bid document for the Sydney World Masters Games (SWMG) to the IMGA, on behalf of the NSW Government. The NSW Major Events Board comprised a panel of bureaucrats and business people representing interests and expertise in areas of tourism and events. The purpose of the NSW Major Events Board was to advise the NSW Premier's Department in the area of bidding and hosting events in NSW. Interviewees explained that the establishment of the NSW Major Events Board was in response to the NSW Government not having another large event scheduled after the Sydney 2000 Olympics and the 2003 Rugby World Cup (Government 1 and 2; Observation 7). Government 2 (pers. comm., January 15, 2010) reflected, 'Sydney was bashed up in the press after 2000, that Melbourne had all these events, [and] Sydney had nothing'. As a result, the purpose of the NSW Major Events Board was to find 'an event that we could bid for that we had a good chance of getting' (Government 2, pers. comm., January 15, 2010). After assessing a list of events, Government 2 (pers. comm., January 15, 2010) explained, 'the one that looked like the biggest, most attractive, that we could probably get a big sell from, was [the] World Masters Games'.

The World Masters Games are governed by the International Masters Games Association (IMGA) and the event is 'for people who see sport as an enjoyable path to fitness as well as an opportunity to use physical activity as a means to satisfy other individuals and social needs' (IMGA, 2003, p. 4). Part of the reason that the SWMG

was so attractive to the NSW government was that no new major infrastructure needed to be built (IMGA, 2003; Government 2). This meant that facilities built for the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games could be reused.

NSW Major Events Board prepared a bid document in line with the IMGA's *Candidature Guidelines* and *Bid Questionnaire* (NSW Major Events Board, 2003). While the IMGA's *Candidature Guidelines* made no mention of sport development legacies, the *Bid Questionnaire* did require bid cities to respond to the question, 'What would be the impact and legacy of hosting the World Masters Games a. for your city; and b. for the Masters movement, both at the national and international level?' (NSW Major Events Board, 2003) In addition to the potential tourism and economic impacts from the WMG, the bid document emphasised that the SWMG would be used to 'promote the messages and programs of key State government departments and agencies in regard to healthy and active lifestyles' (NSW Major Events Board, 2003, Section 1, p.1). The bid document (NSW Major Events Board, 2003, Section I, p.1) also committed the government to implementing a program to 'foster discussion and development of the Masters sport movement and to encourage and increase the capacity and willingness of sporting bodies and government agencies ... [to encourage] significant increases in participation by mature athletes in the region'.

In addition, the *Bid Questionnaire* required the bid city to demonstrate that the National Olympic Committee, relevant NSOs and members of relevant IFs supported the bid and would provide administrative and technical assistance for the delivery of the event. In response, the bid document included a letter of support from the

Australian Olympic Committee (AOC), and 41 letters of support across 23 different sports submitted by the NSO or the SSOs. Each letter contained a brief description of the scope of the sport organisation and a statement indicating its support for the NSW Government's bid to host the WMG. None of the letters made specific mention of the sport organisation's commitments to masters sport development. The first of these letters was received on 28 October, 2003 and the last was received on 20 November, 2003 (NSW Major Events Board, 2003). The bid document was submitted in December 2003.

Figure 9 provides an illustration of the structure of the ION during the bid phase, from 2003 to 2004. This map demonstrates the complexity of the ION that existed beyond the initial ION map, with different organisations present, such as the NSW Major Events Board and the AOC. The sport organisations were engaged at two levels – the national and state level organisations were engaged for the bid phase, with the NSOs depicted in green and SSOs depicted in blue. Sports 2, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, and 27 were engaged at both the NSO and SSO levels, and the existing hierarchical links between these organisations are depicted in the map. Sport 15 was represented by two different organisations at the SSO level, in addition to being represented by the NSO and SSO. Sport 23 was also represented by a Community Sport Organisation (CSO). In some cases there were sport organisations engaged that were not included in the initial map (see Figure 6 in Chapter 4). These additional sport organisations are indicated in Figure 9 as 'Other NSO' or 'Other SSO'. Similarly, there were some sports included in the initial map (Sports 1, 3, 5, 13, 14, 16, 18, and 25), which were not engaged during the earlier bid phase. Figure 9 also demonstrates the links that were already in place between the AOC and the NSOs of Olympic

sports, including Sports 2, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 19, 20, 22, 23, and 27, representing an existing ION for sport development.

Figure 9: ION map of sport development stakeholders during the bid phase (2003-2004)
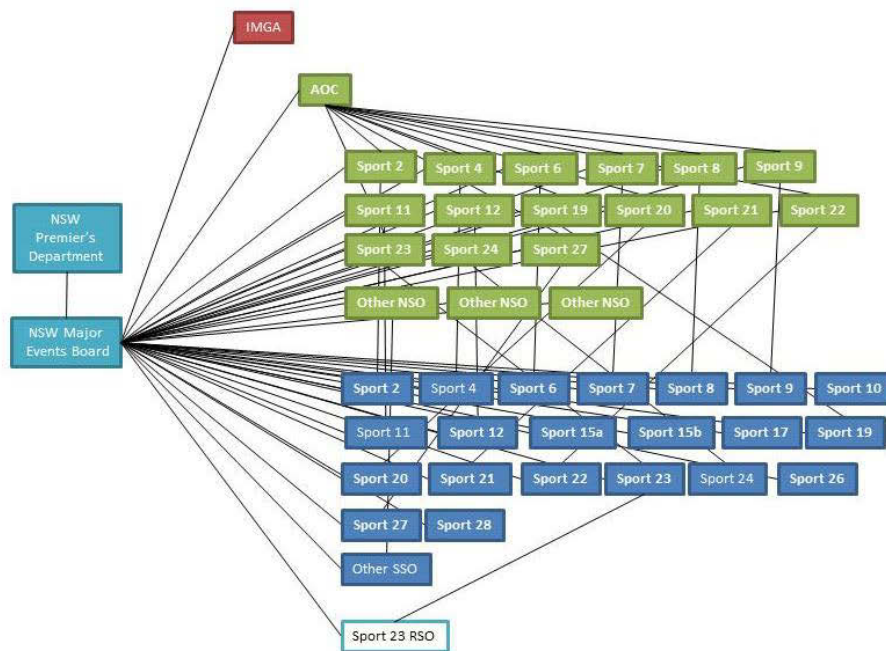
The International Masters Games Association (IMGA) names Sydney the host city for the 2009 World Masters Games

The International Masters Games Association (IMGA) (1995–current), based in Lausanne, Switzerland, is the event governing body which owns the rights to the World Masters Games (WMG) (IMGA, 1995). The IMGA's organisational objectives included:

- To promote and encourage people of all ages to participate in competitive sport throughout their lives;
- Establish a World Masters Games at least every four years; and
- To promote friendship and understanding between mature sportspeople (IMGA, 1995, p. 3).

At the time of the SWMG, 20 IFs constituted the IMGA. The IOC or the General Association of International Sport Federations (GAISF) recognised these IFs, as listed in Table 19.

Table 19: International Federations Constituting the IMGA in 2004

International Federation	Recognised by	
	IOC	GAISF
International Amateur Athletics Federation (IAAF)	✓	
International Archery Federation (FITL)	✓	
International Badminton Federation (IBF)	✓	
International Biathlon Union (IBU)		✓
International Basketball Federation (FIBA)	✓	
International Canoeing Federation (ICF)	✓	
International Cycling Federation (UCI)	✓	
International Football Federation (FIFA)	✓	
International Hockey Federation (FIH)	✓	
International Ice Hockey Federation (IIHF)	✓	
International Orienteering Federation (IOF)		✓
International Rowing Federation (FISA)	✓	
International Skating Union (ISU)	✓	
International Ski Federation (FIS)	✓	
International Softball Federation (ISF)		✓
International Shooting Sport Federation (UIT)	✓	
International Table Tennis Federation (ITTF)	✓	
International Weightlifting Federation (IWF)	✓	
World Curling Federation (WCF)	✓	
World Squash Federation (WSF)		✓

IMGA 1 acknowledged that based on the low status and priority of masters sport within mainstream sport, to meaningfully and effectively achieve its goals the IMGA also had a role to play by lobbying mainstream sport organisations to improve their engagement with masters sport. However, IMGA 1 revealed challenges to its advocacy role. These challenges included restrictions imposed by the IMGA's constitution, as well as resource constraints of the organisation, which influenced the extent to which the IMGA could effectively advocate to mainstream sport for the development of masters sport. In terms of constitutional arrangements, the IMGA was restricted to operating at the IF level of sport, meaning only IFs may become members of the IMGA. In addition, membership of the IMGA places no onus on IFs

concerning their approaches to masters sport. Thus, the IMGA's constitution limited the potential for it to formally influence its members and influence masters sport development. In terms of resources, at the time of the SWMG the IMGA employed only two full-time staff, – a CEO and administrative assistant, and relied on the rights fees from the WMGs as its main source of revenue every four years. As a result of these constitutional and resource limitations, IMGA 1 argued that it was difficult to effectively advocate for masters sport when they could only provide IFs with limited impetus to establish and promote masters sport opportunities.

Therefore, as a way to improve the IMGA's ability to advocate for masters sport, IMGA 1 highlighted the need for the organisation to improve its bargaining power. One strategy to achieve this was to secure endorsement by the International Olympic Committee (IOC) of the IMGA's contribution to the IOC's Sport For All charter (IMGA 1). Another strategy was to build up its WMG event to an economically viable, prestigious and sought after event. The selection of Sydney as the host city for 2009 was part of this second strategy. By naming Sydney as the host city the IMGA was attempting to capitalise on Sydney's status as a world city that had previously hosted the Olympic Games. In turn, it was hoped that the greater prestige of the IMGA and the masters movement would encourage governments and sport organisations to take notice (IMGA 1).

The IMGA named Sydney the host city for the 2009 World Masters Games on 13 June 2004 (IMGA, 2004b). The IMGA (2004b, p. 1) outlined in a media release that 'in Sydney's bid, event organizers proposed an energetic program that promotes lifelong participation in sports, fostering the development of the Master sport

movement'. After a negotiation of rights fees and other conditions, the IMGA and the NSW Government signed the *Host City Contract* on 24 November 2004. The Host City Contract required that the SWMG 'be organised in the best possible manner which best promotes and enhances the long term interests of the Masters Sports Movement' (IMGA, 2004a, p. 2). However, there were no key deliverables to define what success in this instance might mean.

Figure 10 illustrates the structure of the ION during 2004–2005 when Sydney won the bid to host the SWMG. The awarding of the rights to host the WMG by the IMGA to the NSW Government meant a formal contracted relationship was established between the two organisations. The IMGA had a number of existing inter-organisational links with the IFs and the IOC, which further contributed to the complexity of the ION of sport development stakeholders. Some of the IFs were subsequently connected hierarchically to the NSOs who had been engaged in the bid phase, and the IOC was connected to the AOC. The relationships that the NSW Major Events Board established with the NSOs and SSOs are still indicated here, but during this time they were relatively dormant relationships. Also of note was the participation in the ION at the NSO and SSO level by sports that were not members of the IMGA at the IF level.

Figure 10: ION map of sport development stakeholders when the bid was won to host the SWMG (2004-2005)
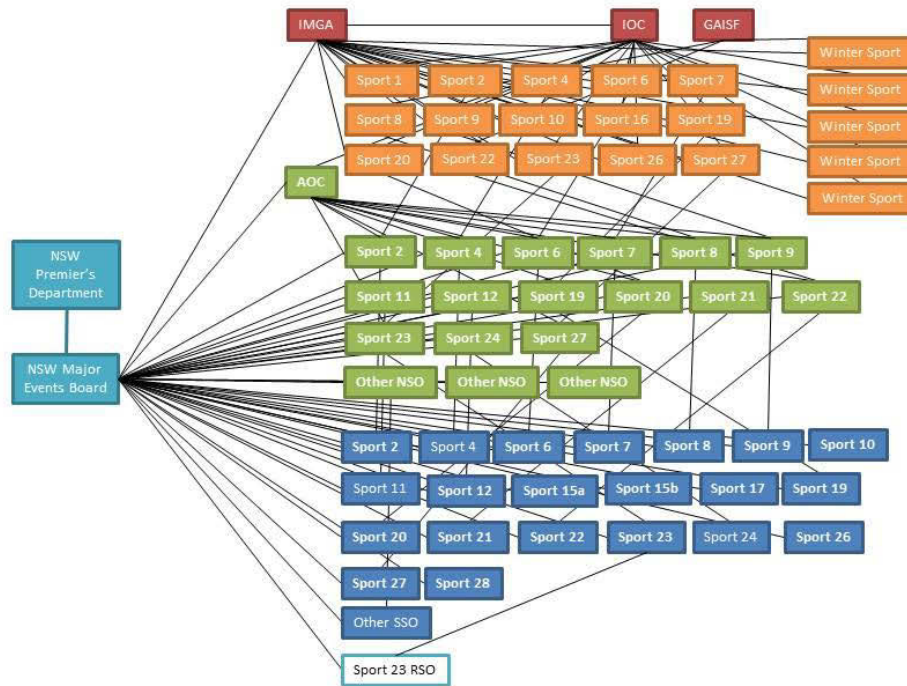
5.2.2 Event Planning Phase

Sydney World Masters Games Organising Committee established

The *Sydney World Masters Games Organising Committee Act* (2005), passed by the

NSW Government on 23 June, constituted the Sydney 2009 World Masters Games

Organising Committee (SWMGOC) as a statutory corporation, and set out the

functions of the organising committee. The *SWMGOC Act* had implications for both

the scope of the organising committee's activities and the organisational structures in

which the organising committee would operate. In terms of scope of activities, the

SWMGOC Act defined the objective of SWMGOC as being to 'plan, organise and

stage the Sydney 2009 World Masters Games in accordance with the obligations

imposed, and the rights conferred, under the Host City Contract' (NSW Government,

2005, p. 8). To meet this objective, Part 3 Objective and Functions of SWMGOC in

the *SWMGOC Act* outlined the functions of SWMGOC to include:

(a) to represent, and act on behalf of, the Crown in performing its obligations under the Host City Contract,
(b) to organise the sports competition program for the Games and the program of associated events,
(c) to procure and organise the competition and non-competition venues required for the Games,
(d) to organise transport arrangements for participants and officials of the Games,
(e) to engage in the marketing and promotion of the Games,
(f) to liaise with the Treasury on the co-ordination and management of expenditure for the Games,
(g) to co-ordinate Games-related activities with State and Commonwealth government agencies and private organisations,
(h) such other functions connected with its objective as are authorised by the Minister (NSW Government, 2005, p.8).

The functions defined in the *SWMGOC Act* emphasised the event delivery functions of SWMGOC, focusing on logistics, marketing and budgets. There was an absence of reference in the *SWMGOC Act* to the notion of securing legacies for masters sport. However, further on in the *SWMGOC Act* another section set out matters to be taken into account 'to the fullest extent practicable' by SWMGOC, including:

(a) the Host City Contract,
(b) IMGAs Guidelines,
(c) any amendments made to those Guidelines by IMGA in accordance with the Host City Contract,
(d) any directions given to SWMGOC by IMGA in accordance with the Host City Contract,
(e) all undertakings given by the Crown in the bid documents, unless IMGA has agreed in writing that any such undertaking need not be taken into account,
(f) any matters prescribed by the regulations, not being inconsistent with paragraphs (a) through (e). (NSW Government, 2005, p. 9).

As outlined previously, the *Host City Contract* required the SWMG to promote and enhance the interests of the masters sport movement. In addition, the bid document committed the government to securing legacies by way of promoting healthy and active lifestyles, facilitating the enhancement of masters sport delivery and encouraging increases in participation. As such, while the *SWMGOC Act* indicated

that that SWMGOC was responsible for acting on standing agreements, which included commitments to securing legacies to masters sport, the *SWMGOC Act* did not explicitly state this responsibility in the functions of SWMGOC. As such, the only organisation in the ION of sport development stakeholders with the explicit objective of advocating to securing legacies for masters sport was the IMGA.

In terms of the broader structures that SWMGOC would operate within, the *SWMGOC Act* required a NSW minister to be responsible for SWMGOC. SWMGOC was established on 1 July 2005 and was placed under the responsibility of the NSW Minister for Tourism, Sport and Recreation. SWMGOC operated as a business unit of the Department of Tourism, Sport and Recreation (DTSR) (SWMGOC, 2006). SWMGOC was responsible for liaising with the IMGA on behalf of the NSW Government, meaning they were solely responsible for liaising with the IMGA.

SWMGOC operated alongside NSW Sport and Recreation. NSW Sport and Recreation is the government department responsible for delivering the NSW Government's sport and recreation program, supporting state sport and recreation organisations, and providing various sport and recreation initiatives. NSW Sport and Recreation is discussed further below, but it is highlighted here that this government department had existing links with the SSOs engaged during the bid phase.

In terms of the structures at the organisational level, the NSW Minister for Tourism, Sport and Recreation was responsible for appointing the CEO, Robert Adby, who had previously been the Director General of the Olympic Coordination Authority for the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games and head of the NSW Major Events Board at the time

of the SWMG bid. Together, the NSW Minister for Tourism, Sport and Recreation and the SWMGOC CEO appointed a Games Advisory Committee (GAC) of seven members, to provide advice to the Minister and SWMGOC CEO across the areas of 'sports administration, tourism, event management and finance' (SWMGOC, 2010, p. 14). A list of the seven members appointed to the GAC is included in Table 20, including their credentials and time of service.

Table 20: Games Advisory Committee Members and their Credentials

Games Advisory Committee Member Name	Credentials	Time of Service
Ms Margy Osmond – Chair	CEO Australian National Retailers Association	Inception 2005 – December 2009
Mr Phillip Coles AM	Member, International Olympic Committee Vice President, World Taekwondo Federation Former Vice President and Director of the Sydney Organising Committee for the Olympic Games (SOCOG) Member of the Australian Olympic team and competed in Canoeing at the Rome (1960), Tokyo (1964) and Mexico (1968) Olympic Games	Inception 2005 – December 2009
Mr Robert (Bob) Elphinston OAM	President, International Basketball Federation Sports Consultant to the Organising Committee of the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games (BOCOG) and the 2012 London Olympic Games (LOCOG) Former General Manager – Sport, SOCOG	Inception 2005 – December 2009
Ms Michelle Ford-Ericksson MBE	Moscow 1980 Olympic Games Gold Medallist Board member, Australian Sports Commission and the Australian Institute of Sport	Inception 2005 – December 2009
Mr Chris Jordan AO	Chairman, KPMG New South Wales	Inception 2005 – December 2009
Mr John Moore	Managing Director, Global Brands Group Australasia Former General Manager – Marketing, SOCOG	Inception 2005 – December 2009
Ms Sandra Yates AO	Chair of the NSW TAFE Commission Board, the Sydney Writers' Festival and Books Alive, an initiative of the Australian Government Former Chair of Saatchi and Saatchi Australia from 1996 to 2004 and member on their advisory board	Inception 2005 – August 2007
David Brettell	CEO, Australian Cancer Research Foundation Former Manager – Venue Staffing and Volunteers, SOCOG	February 2008 – December 2009

(Source: SWMGOC, 2006, 2010)

Once SWMGOC and the GAC were established, the *SWMGOC Act* required SWMGOC to establish a corporate plan that set out the objectives of SWMGOC, the associated strategies to achieve these objectives and targets and criteria for assessing the performance of SWMGOC. The *Corporate Plan* (SWMGOC, 2007b), which was an internal document, detailed SWMGOC's objectives to include:

1. Attract record numbers of participants;

2. Deliver the best possible World Masters Games experience for all involved;

3. Raise awareness of the World Masters Games in the wider Sydney community;

4. Use the World Masters Games to encourage lifelong healthy and active lifestyles;

5. Lift the profile of the event for the benefit of Sydney, the IMGA, international federations involved and the Masters sport movement;

6. Generate revenue to supplement NSW Government funding and deliver the Games within budget; and

7. Set a standard of excellence that leaves a lasting legacy for the future of the World Masters Games.

These objectives included a mixture of tourism- and sport-related objectives. Objective 7 was the only one to refer to the notion of 'legacy'. The performance indicators and strategies set out in Objective 7 in the *Corporate Plan* were focused on event delivery, including: establishing best practice in the delivery of the WMG; creating a list of key event delivery milestones for the management of the following WMG; and transferring this knowledge to the IMGA for future editions of the event (SWMGOC, 2007b).

Figure 11 illustrates the structure of the ION when SWMGOC was established. The major change was a new entity, SWMGOC, becoming responsible for managing relations with the IMGA. There were no formal inter-organisational links to the NSOs, SSOs or CSO carried through from the bid phase to the establishment of the event organising committee, SWMGOC. However, as depicted in the map Figure 11, the links between the hierarchies of organisations within particular sports, as well as the links between the government (i.e. NSW Sport and Recreation, ASC/AIS), and non-government (i.e. IOC, AOC) agencies and particular sport organisations, continued to exist. In addition, three of the GAC members provided subsequent links to sport development stakeholders, including the IOC and the ASC and AIS, as well as FIBA (links to the sport organisations are not shown here to maintain anonymity).

Figure 11: ION map of sport development stakeholders when SWMGOC was established (2005-2006)
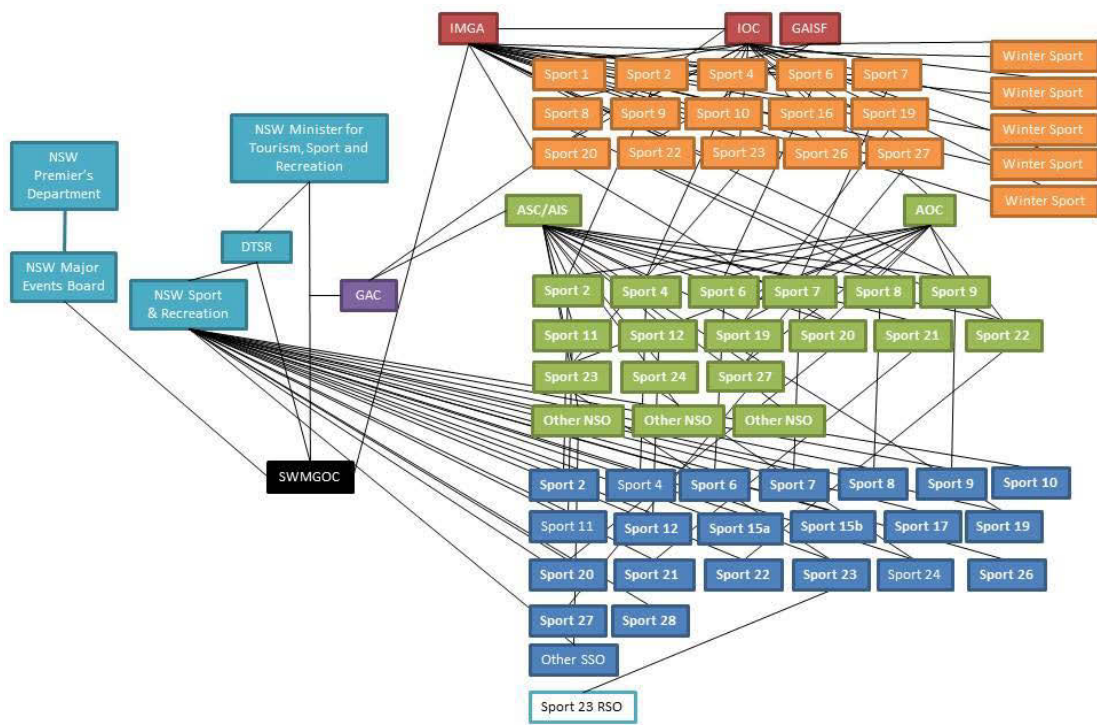
NSW Department of Tourism, Sport and Recreation abolished

On 3 March 2006, the NSW Department of Tourism, Sport and Recreation (DTSR) was abolished and key units, including NSW Sport and Recreation and SWMGOC, were added to the newly formed NSW Department of Arts, Sport and Recreation (DASR) (Government 2 and 4). The Tourism Industry Division was added to the Department of State and Regional Development (DSRD) (NSW Government, 2006), but continued to work with SWMGOC based on the tourism potential of the event (L. Gray, 2009). Robert Adby, SWMGOC's CEO, was appointed Director General of DASR.

On 11 March, 2006, SWMGOC commenced operations as a separate and independent entity (NSW Government, 2010), reporting to the NSW Minister for Sport. DASR provided SWMGOC with human resources, payroll, finance and information technology, through NSW Sport and Recreation under a user pays arrangement (SWMGOC, 2006). DASR articulated the connections between NSW Sport and Recreation and the SWMG at the departmental level in its 2006 *Annual Report*:

> [NSW Sport and Recreation] are currently expanding our range of programs to include products suitable for NSW seniors and other community groups. As a result of the participation of NSW Sport and Recreation in the development of the draft NSW Framework of Ageing 2005-2010, promotional materials will be developed to encourage older people to participate in sport and recreation and the 2009 World Masters Games will provide an opportunity to raise public awareness of the role of sport and recreation in contributing to healthy ageing (NSW Department of the Arts Sport & Recreation, 2006, p. 44).

Similar sentiments were included in the 2007 Annual Report (NSW Department of the Arts Sport & Recreation, 2007). However, in contrast to DASR's statements, NSW Sport and Recreation did not emphasise older people's participation in sport as a strategic planning priority. NSW Sport and Recreation's *Game Plan* strategy (2006,

p.2), a five-year plan from 2007–2012, set out NSW Sport and Recreation's objectives to include: 'More people using parks, sporting and recreational facilities and participating in the arts and cultural activity'; and 'Increase in the proportion of community involved in volunteering, sport and recreational activity.'

There was no indication in the *Game Plan* strategy of how older people's participation might be targeted to contribute to meeting the objectives of NSW Sport and Recreation. The only references to older people in the *Game Plan* strategy included making sure facilities were appropriate for an ageing population and a plan to target older people to participate as volunteers in sport. *Game Plan* made no mention of the *NSW Framework of Ageing*, specific initiatives encouraging older people to participate in sport and recreation, or ways the SWMG might be used to raise public awareness of the role of sport and recreation in contributing to healthy ageing.

On 15 January 2007, Robert Adby relinquished his role as SWMGOC CEO and was replaced by the Chief Operating Officer, Shane O'Leary. Shane O'Leary demonstrated previous experience in masters sport events, 'having occupied senior management positions for the organising committee of Masters events in three (3) Australian States' (SWMGOC, 2007a, p. 9, sic.). Robert Adby remained involved with the Finance and Corporate Services Subcommittee formed and chaired by the Games Advisory Committee (SWMGOC, 2010).

Other shifts in the ION included the NSW Major Events Board being abolished and replaced by Events NSW in September 2007. Events NSW (2007–2011) became the

government's event agency in the lead up to, during, and after the SWMG. Events NSW was identified as a key organisation in the ION of sport development stakeholders by SWMGOC representatives based on two main rationales:

1. Some Event NSW staff had previously been part of NSW Major Events Board, and had been involved in preparing and submitting the bid document and were considered the best people to talk to about legacy promises made in the bid document (SWMGOC 6); and

2. Events NSW was the government agency responsible for leveraging the SWMG and maximising benefits to NSW (SWMGOC 1 and 6).

The purpose of Events NSW was to enhance the ability of NSW to attract, develop and maximise event benefits to the state of NSW (Government 1). As part of this purpose, Events NSW had three main KPIs, with the first being 'economic impact… that's where our board really want us to focus' (Government 1, pers. comm., January 4, 2010). The second KPI was 'a strategic marketing KPI about "what does the event say about Sydney, or where the event's being staged, and to whom"' (Government 1, pers. comm., January 4, 2010). The third KPI included community impact, which was 'not so much about putting events on so the local community can go, but I guess it's that internal marketing, people feeling that pride and goodwill about events in their town' (Government 1, pers. comm., January 4, 2010).

Events NSW dealt explicitly with the state's tourism and economic development agencies and industry and interacted with SWMGOC and Tourism NSW for tourism leveraging purposes (Government 1; SWMGOC 6). A tourism leveraging strategy was released by Tourism NSW in March 2009 (Tourism NSW, 2009). Government 1

(pers. comm., January 4, 2010) explained, 'in terms of sport development, it's obviously not one of our roles, but if we support something … that ticks all of our KPI boxes and there's a sport development outcome, then so much the better'. Events NSW did not act to secure these broader outcomes and as such had no connections with NSW Sport and Recreation, the IMGA or the contracted sport organisations (Government 1).

Figure 12 illustrates the structure of the ION after the NSW Department of Tourism, Sport and Recreation was abolished in 2006. SWMGOC then had several links to departments under the Minister for Sport; an important one was the resource provision from NSW Sport and Recreation, which also had existing connections with the SSOs. Despite the reorganisation of government departments, SWMGOC maintained links with the Tourism Industry Division. The lack of formal links among SWMGOC and any of the SSOs or NSOs two years prior to the staging of the event is also of note.

Figure 12: ION map of sport development stakeholders after the NSW Department of Tourism, Sport and Recreation was abolished (2006-2007)
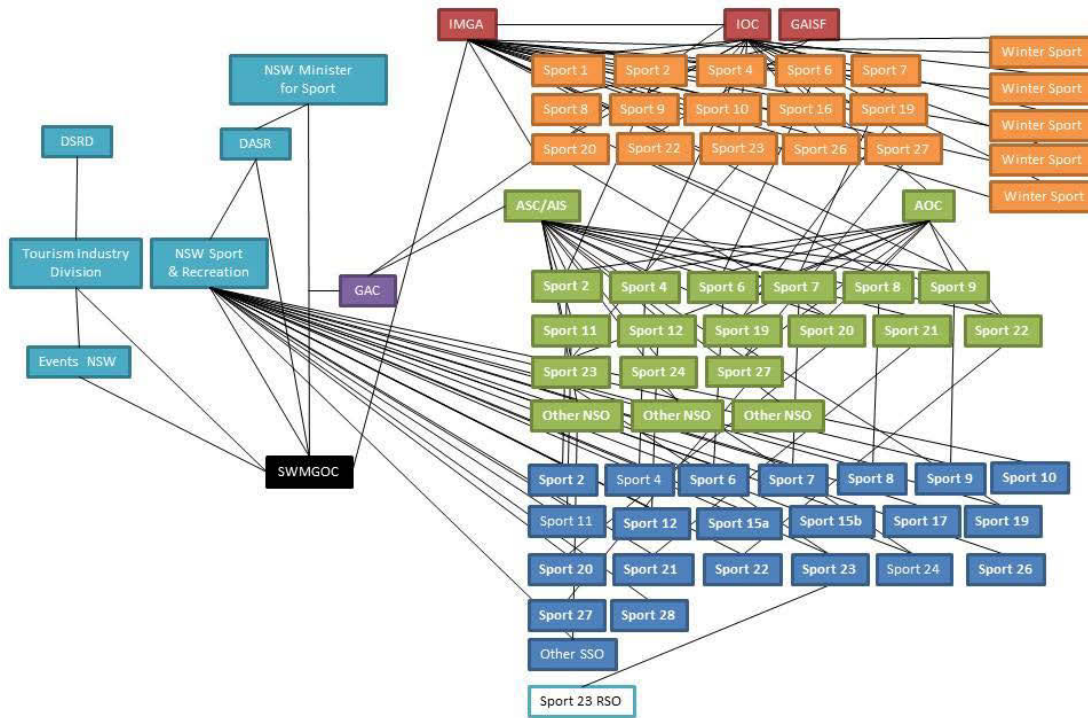
SWMGOC shift from sport portfolio to tourism portfolio formalised

According to Government 2, the NSW Minister for Sport gave only limited attention to the SWMG in the time leading up to the SWMG. Around the same time, the NSW Government's push to privatise electricity had failed and caused the NSW Labor Party to choose a new premier (Government 2). Government 2 explained that because of these events 'no junior Minister wanted to take anything to the Budget Committee or the Treasury asking for money. Money was just a dirty word, especially after the electricity privatisation failed'. Government 2 argued that the limited attention given to the SWMG by the Minister for Sport made it difficult for SWMGOC to gain support from relevant government departments to deliver the event. Government 2 (pers. comm., January 15 2010) explained:

> [The SWMG] needed a very strong Minister within the cabinet to … go in and bat for getting the funding needed for the Games … The Minister for Sport at the time just didn't even deal with it … So things got quite difficult for organising the actual event. It was attached to Sport and Rec, it obviously needed all sorts of in-kind support from government departments … so we were getting quite close to the event thinking, 'We just don't have the support that you need to make these Games a success'.

The lack of support from the NSW Minister for Sport frustrated senior SWMGOC management and the GAC members. As a result, senior SWMGOC management and the GAC members, 'decided it was time to effect change, and they wanted a different Minister, and that's when [SWMGOC] moved from [the Ministry of] Sport to Tourism' (Government 2, pers. comm., January 15 2010). Capitalising on the existing relationship with Tourism NSW, SWMGOC and the GAC members negotiated with the NSW government during 2007–2008 to shift portfolios and report directly to the NSW Minister for Tourism. This was a busy period for SWMGOC, as participant registrations had opened on 2 June 2008 (SWMGOC, 2010) and the portfolio shift was formalised on 29 August 2008 (NSW Government, 2011). SWMGOC remained under the responsibility of the NSW Minister for Tourism until its dissolution on 30 June 2010 (NSW Government, 2011).

The shifting of SWMGOC from the sport to the tourism portfolio helped SWMGOC attract the financial and in-kind support needed to deliver the SWMG successfully (Government 2; SWMGOC 6). These two representatives highlighted the visitor experience and the economic impact of the SWMG as key determinants of the success of the event. Their notion of the success of the event did not include legacies to masters sport. SWMGOC continued to maintain connections to NSW Sport and Recreation through the provision of advice, cash and in-kind support. The General Manager of NSW Sport and Recreation maintained his advisory position on the

SWMGOC Sports and Venues Advisory Committee (SWMGOC, 2006, 2007a, 2008a, 2010). The terms of reference of the SWMGOC Sport and Venues Advisory Committee were listed to include:

- Contracts and relationships with Sport Association partners and competition-related venues
- Approval of all competition details
- Interface with International Federations and Sport Association partners, including the appointment of technical delegates
- Identification of sport-specific promotional opportunities
- Publication of sport and competition-related information
- Policies and procedures involved with anti-doping, sports medicine and results
- Sport-specific policies, including grading, participation, medals and protest procedures
- Sport and Venues-specific risk management (SWMGOC, 2008a, p. 14).

In line with the aforementioned functions of SWMGOC, these functions of the Sport and Venues Advisory Committee also emphasised event delivery functions, focusing on relationships with sport organisations and venues to deliver sport competition for the SWMG, policies and procedures for the sport competition, and marketing of the event. The terms of reference made no mention of securing legacies for masters sport.

NSW Sport and Recreation also provided SWMGOC with cash operating subsidies in the four years leading up to the SWMG (NSW Department of the Arts Sport & Recreation, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009). In-kind resources included, 'fleet cars and meeting rooms, human resources, IT resources, etcetera' (Government 5, pers. comm., November 18, 2009). As part of the provision of resources, NSW Sport and Recreation provided SWMGOC a space for its headquarters in Sports House, in the Sydney Olympic Park precinct at Homebush Bay, managed by NSW Sport and Recreation.

NSW Sport and Recreation was an important contributor to the SWMG during the planning and implementation phases. The resource commitment by NSW Sport and Recreation to SWMGOC and the co-location of the two organisations in the same building provided a basis for nurturing a strong relationship between the two organisations. However, Government 5, a NSW Sport and Recreation representative, questioned the extent to which the connection with SWMGOC provided any benefits back to sport. Government 5 suggested that SWMGOC's portfolio shift influenced the focus of SWMGOC towards tourism-related outcomes, and away from any sport-related outcomes. Government 5 (pers. comm., November 18, 2009) said:

> The Sydney World Masters Games was positioned in the tourism portfolio of NSW Government. Tourism NSW set priorities presumably based around the tourism industry so the outcomes and outputs were probably measured against tourism objectives. If SWMGOC sat in the government structure of sport and recreation, the focus may have been different.

In terms of links with the sport organisations, the *Candidature Guidelines* (IMGA, 2003) required SWMGOC to contract sport organisations to deliver the sport competition component of the SWMG (IMGA, 2003). The *Candidature Guidelines* (2003, p. 10) stipulated:

> A contract must be made with each participating sport of the sports programme. This contract must be with the national/local organization and in accordance with the International Federation, governing the actual sport.

SWMGOC developed a contract, known as the *Sports Agreement*, which defined the roles and responsibilities of both SWMGOC and the individual sport organisations (SWMGOC 5). SWMGOC 6 (pers. comm., November 17, 2009) emphasised the need for the *Sports Agreement*, explaining that unlike the Olympic Games, 'You can't just say, "We are here from the World Masters Games, let's form an orderly queue and let's get this job done"'. Instead, it was believed that there was a need to have in place

formal agreements with the sport organisations that set out key deliverables. The *Sports Agreement* set out key deliverables for both SWMGOC and the sport organisations for the delivery of the SWMG. SWMGOC developed the *Sports Agreement* in consultation with the SWMGOC Sport and Venues Advisory Committee during 2005 and 2006 (SWMGOC 5). SWMGOC 5 (pers. comm., November 4, 2009) explained the nature of the *Sports Agreement*:

> [The relationships with the sports] are all very different, but they all come from the same core contract, which is like any contract, you will do this, we will do this. We were responsible for the overall promoting, overall marketing, the setting of the entry fee, the taking of entries, the contracting of venues, the delivery of that … The sport was responsible for finding technical officials and referees and umpires, finding the sport volunteers … telling us what they needed, submitting the budget… putting in place a competition manager … etcetera … There's probably fifteen or twenty things on their list that they were supposed to do.

SWMGOC initially intended to work with the SSOs as the local governing bodies of sport in NSW (SWMGOC 6). SWMGOC perceived the SSOs to be the most appropriate sport organisations to contract based on to their familiarity with the Sydney-based venues and the ability to access the local officials and sports volunteers needed to conduct the sport competition (Observation 7). The convenience of working with these organisations for event delivery underpinned the selection of the SSOs, as opposed to the NSOs. The potential for these organisations to secure legacies for masters sport was not considered in this decision.

SWMGOC commenced contract negotiations with sport organisations during 2006 and 2007 (SWMGOC, 2007a). SWMGOC 5 (pers. comm., November 4, 2009) revealed that although there had been this early preparation of the *Sports Agreement* back in 2005 and 2006, 'we didn't sign some of the contracts until early 2009,' the year that the event was to be held. As at 24 September, 2008, that is, just over 12

months from the start date of the SWMG, over half of the sport organisations had not signed their *Sport Agreement*. Table 21 provides a list of the contracted sport organisations and the status of their *Sports Agreement*. Just over 12 months from the staging of the SWMG, SWMGOC had formalised links with Sports 1; 3; 5; 7; 8; 12; 14; 15; 19; 25 and 28.

Table 21: Status of Sports Agreement as at 24/9/2008

Sport	Signed	Unsigned
Sport 1	✓	
Sport 2		✗
Sport 3	✓	
Sport 4		✗
Sport 5	✓	
Sport 6*		✗
Sport 7	✓	
Sport 8	✓	
Sport 9		✗
Sport 10		✗
Sport 11		✗
Sport 12	✓	
Sport 13		✗
Sport 14	✓	
Sport 15	✓	
Sport 16*		✗
Sport 17		✗
Sport 18		✗
Sport 19	✓	
Sport 20		✗
Sport 21		✗
Sport 22		✗
Sport 23		✗
Sport 24		✗
Sport 25*	✓	
Sport 26*		✗
Sport 27*		✗
Sport 28*	✓	

(Source: SWMGOC, 2008c)
Key: *= did not participate in interviews

SWMGOC 7 (pers. comm., December 1, 2009) explained that many were reluctant to commit to the SWMG because they 'a) couldn't see the benefit … b) couldn't see [the SWMG] as part of their area of responsibility, and c) they didn't have the resources'. In terms of the benefit to organisations, there were perceptions that the SWMG

highlighted the potential for sports to target masters sport within their efforts to promote, develop and/or grow their sports (SWMGOC 5, 6 and 7). However, the *Sports Agreement* was not designed to formalise efforts towards securing such legacies. The only clause in the *Sports Agreement* that was somewhat relevant to securing a legacy for masters sport outlined SWMGOC's role in advancing masters sport and made no mention of the role of sport organisations in securing legacies (SWMGOC, 2008d). This meant that although the review of constitutions and/or annual reports for the SSOs and NSOs included in the SWMG sports program indicated that although these organisations all had a common purpose to promote, develop and/or grow their sports, formal commitments by the sport organisations to secure legacies for masters sport were lacking.

In terms of organisational resources acting as a barrier to committing to the SWMG, sport representatives 4a, 9 and 10 revealed that concerns over whether their organisations would be able to meet the expectations set out by SWMGOC were a major reason for the hesitation in signing the *Sports Agreement*. Sport 10 (pers. comm., October 22, 2009) indicated, 'I don't think we were the last sport to sign the contract for the hosting of the Games, but I do know that a lot of the sports held off and had a lot of issues with the contracts and the expectations [SWMGOC had] of them'. Sport 4a indicated that their sport had signed their *Sports Agreement* only three months prior to the staging of the SWMG. Sport 4a (pers. comm., October 9, 2009) explained that in her sport, 'we had to work to safeguard [our] organisation, because ... [the sport is] left to work with the finances at the end of it, whereas World Masters Games ship up and ship out one month after it, and it's completely gone as a structure'.

Figure 13 illustrates the structure of the ION after SWMGOC's shift from reporting to the Minister of Sport, to reporting to the Minister of Tourism. Links with NSW Sport and Recreation were maintained based on resource provision to SWMGOC and contribution to advisory committees for event delivery purposes. Other changes in the ION included SWMGOC's formal links to the SSOs through the *Sports Agreement*. At this point, five SSOs joined the ION that were not previously involved, including Sports 1; 3; 5; 14 and 25. SWMGOC engaged these sports at the SSO level and the NSOs are included to represent the existing hierarchies, and subsequent links to the IFs, ASC/AIS and AOC are also included where relevant. Other changes with the sport organisations included Sport 15a and Sport 15b merging to become a single organisation. In addition, the NSOs and SSOs indicated previously as 'Other' became irrelevant to the ION as these sports were not included in the final SWMG sports program. Further, the RSO also becomes irrelevant as SWMGOC opts to work with the SSOs.

Figure 13: ION map of sport development stakeholders after SWMGOC's shift to Tourism portfolio was formalised (2008)
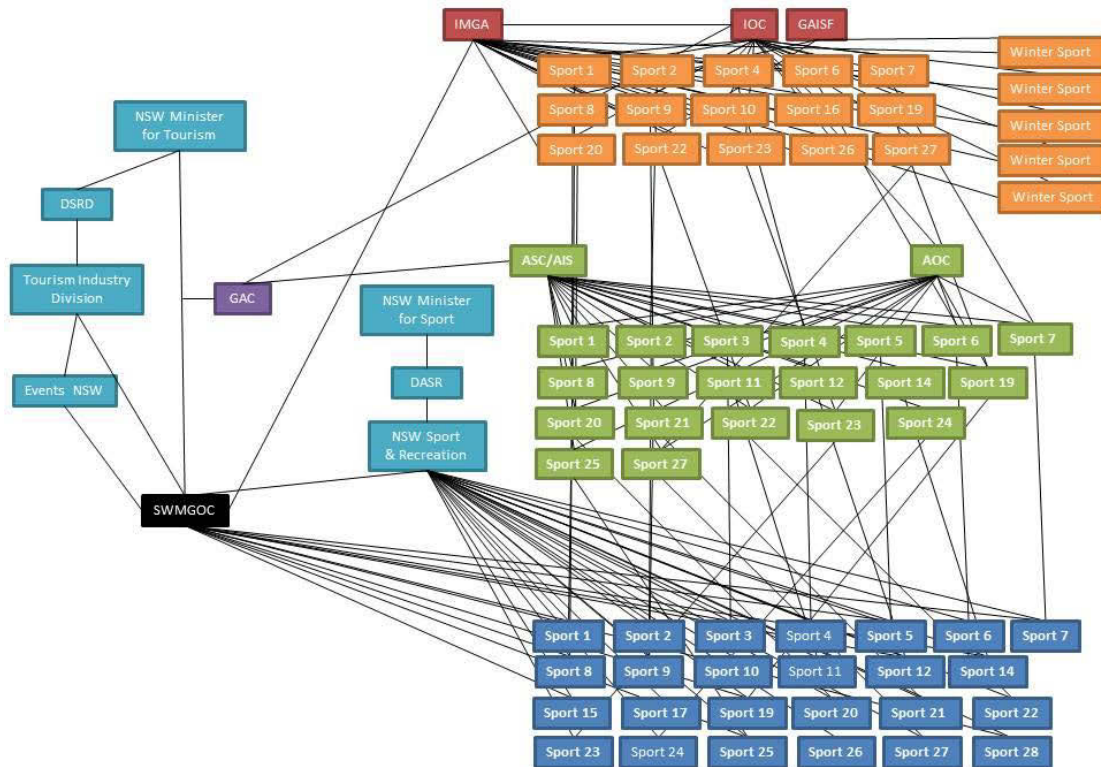
Commitment by Sport Organisations becomes formalised and Communities NSW is established

In the 12 months leading up to the SWMG, SWMGOC contracted 30 sport organisations across the 28 sports included in the competition program, as listed in Table 22. These organisations included 25 SSOs, 3 NSOs, a CSO and a Masters Sport Association (MSA).

Table 22: Type of Sport Organisation Contracted by SWMGOC

Sport	State Sport Organisation (SSO)	National Sport Organisations (NSO)	Community Sport Organisation (CSO)	Masters Sport Association (MSA)
Sport 1	✓			
Sport 2	✓			
Sport 3	✓			
Sport 4		✓		
Sport 5	✓			
Sport 6*	✓			
Sport 7	✓			
Sport 8	✓			
Sport 9	✓			
Sport 10	✓			
Sport 11		✓		
Sport 12	✓			
Sport 13	✓			
Sport 14	✓			
Sport 15	✓			
Sport 16*	✓			
Sport 17	✓			
Sport 18	✓			
Sport 19	✓			
Sport 20	✓			
Sport 21				✓
Sport 22	✓			
Sport 23	✓			
Sport 24		✓		
Sport 25*	✓			
Sport 26*	✓ x2		✓	
Sport 27*	✓			
Sport 28*	✓			

(Source: SWMGOC, 2010)
Key: *= did not participate in interviews

The 25 SSOs and MSA had existing relationships with NSW Sport and Recreation. These relationships were based on the NSW Government's *Sports Development State Sporting Organisations* program, as well as industry development initiatives and competitive grant funding for other sport and athlete development initiatives (Communities NSW, 2010; NSW Department of the Arts Sport & Recreation, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009; NSW Department of Tourism Sport and Recreation, 2004). The three NSOs and CSOs were outside of this state-based sport structure.

Some sports questioned the effectiveness of SWMGOC's preference for contracting the SSOs rather than the NSOs (Sport 1; 4a; 11 and 24). Sport 1 explained that in his sport, SWMGOC had contracted the SSO. However, in the lead up to the event the SSO, staffed solely by volunteers, realised that they did not have the capacity to deliver their component of the SWMG. As a result, the SSO approached the NSO for assistance. Sport 1 commented on the tensions and complexities that the SWMGOC–SSO contract structure created:

> I'm from the national federation. The first mistake [SWMGOC] made was to say to the state organisation, 'We want you to run it'. Then the state organisation said to me, 'Go away, we're running it, not the national federation'. Suddenly, the state [organisation] realised they couldn't do half of the things without the support from the national federation. So there was a tenuous fit between both organisations, somewhat uncomfortable at times. We were seen to be the interlopers into the state's activities. And of course, the international federation was left out of the loop [as well].

Sport 1's comment highlights the importance of acknowledging network structures that exist regardless of the staging of an event, and the impact that these existing ION structures can have on organisational activities for an event.

In the cases of Sports 4, 11 and 24, SWMGOC contracted the NSOs. The NSO representatives revealed that their relevant SSOs had identified that at the state level they did not have the capacity to meet SWMGOC's expectations. This lack of capacity at the state level led to the NSOs taking on the responsibility to deliver the sport competition component for the SWMG. In the case of Sport 21, SWMGOC contracted the MSA for that sport. The MSA representative revealed that due to the lack of engagement by the relevant SSO in masters sport delivery, SWMGOC recognised the MSA as the peak body for the delivery of this particular sport in NSW, and accordingly contracted the MSA.

The empirical data highlighted that a lack of relationship development among SWMGOC and the sport organisations affected the commitment of the sport organisations to the SWMG and the subsequent interactions among SWMGOC and the various sport organisations. Three issues regarding the interactions by SWMGOC with the sports were particularly apparent:

- Reliance on the *Sport Agreement* to manage the deliverables by the sports;

- Perceptions by the sport organisations that SWMGOC did not fully appreciate the idiosyncrasies of the sports; and

- A high turnover of SWMGOC staff influencing on the strength of the connection among SWMGOC and the sports.

First, although over half of the sports did not sign their *Sports Agreement* until within 12 months of the SWMG, many of them considered that SWMGOC relied on the *Sports Agreements* to manage the deliverables of the sport organisations. Several sport representatives described the relationship between their sport organisation and SWMGOC as 'contracted' (Sport 9; 10; 13 and 20). Sport 9 (pers. comm., October 21, 2009) summed up these sentiments, describing the relationship between his organisation and SWMGOC: 'I put down one word, contractor. You got [that] impression most times when things got a bit tough. "You have been contracted to do this" … that is what they tended to revert to … "You promised …" or "You contracted …", and they used those words'. Sport 9 believed that SWMGOC could have taken a less formal approach. Sport 9 indicated that if SWMGOC had approached the relationship more informally, with a more collaborative approach to communication and problem solving, interactions among SWMGOC and the sports would have been more positive. Sport 9 (pers. comm., October 21, 2009) explained,

'they would have got full cooperation from us … They did it … the wrong way around; they should have taken us along instead of trying to deal with us as a separate party'.

Second, SWMGOC representatives demonstrated an awareness that sport organisations typically operate in different ways to mainstream organisations (SWMGOC 5; 6 and 7). For instance, the SWMGOC representatives talked about the sport organisations relying on a small number of staff and predominantly on the efforts of key volunteers (SWMGOC 5; 6 and 7). Such an acknowledgement by SWMGOC representatives indicated that they had some understanding of the way sports operated and the potential constraints on their commitment and contribution to the SWMG. However, the sport representatives indicated that this awareness did not necessarily guide SWMGOC's interactions with the sports.

Many sport representatives argued that SWMGOC staff lacked an understanding of sport and the operations of sport organisations. Sport 9's (pers. comm., October, 21, 2009) reflection summed up the sentiments of these sport representatives: 'I thought [SWMGOC] did some things really well and other things they had no idea ... because they did not understand the sports they were dealing with, or did not know the sport generally, did not understand how sport ... generally operates'. In addition, several sports representatives labelled SWMGOC's approach as a one-size-fits-all approach with a limited understanding of the idiosyncrasies of the various sports (Sport 10; 14 and 22). Sport 10 (pers. comm., October 22, 2009) revealed, 'I am quite critical of the one-size-fits-all mentality … I'm quite sure that a lot of sports would have had issues with trying to fit the one-size-fits-all model'.

Sport 12b also highlighted the organisational differences between SWMGOC and the sports organisations, which added an extra layer of complexity to their relationships. He reflected that SWMGOC staff did not seem to understand that the first priority of the sports organisations was to attend to the day-to-day running of the organisations and competitions, and that the SWMG was an additional activity they were supporting. Sport 12b (pers. comm., November 2, 2009) explained:

> I think [SWMGOC] may have forgotten that we're a State Sport Organisation, and that we've got our sport to run … Everyone from SWMGOC was obviously on a contract [for the SWMG] and … that's all they needed to concentrate on … There were a lot of times they were just firing things away at us saying … 'We need this tomorrow', [and we would be busy] running a major tournament at the [time]… [and we would have to say to them], 'There's no chance we're going to get this to you; you're going to have to wait'. Those little battles in between … were a bit tough.

Third, Sport 9 and 21 suggested that a high turnover of staff in the SWMGOC department that liaised with the sports impacted on the strength of the relationships among SWMGOC and the sports (Sport 9 and 21). Sport 9 indicated that SWMGOC's Head of Sport changed several times in the lead up to the SWMG, which made it difficult to set a shared goal to work towards. Sport 9 (pers. comm., October 21, 2009) explained:

> The thing that we found most ... disappointing is ... that their Head of Sport, we had four of them or five of them maybe, in the duration [from] when we started [organising the Games] to when the Games started. So that was hard ... They were all great guys, but they had different ideas.

Sport 21 explained that the high turnover of SWMGOC staff required additional effort on the part of the sport organisations to re-educate SWMGOC staff about the idiosyncrasies of their sports each time SWMGOC recruited a new staff member to replace someone who had left. Sport 21 (pers. comm., July 27, 2010) explained:

> Between 2004 and 2009, there was so many different people that went through that organisation … it was very disconcerting to me, because you'd get

somebody, you'd be working with somebody and then they'd leave … having gone through so many different people… taught them about … our organisation, and then having to go through [it with] somebody else … that was frustrating.

Another change that influenced the structure of the ION was that the NSW Government had embarked on a process of amalgamation and in July 2009, three and a half months prior to the staging of the SWMG; they created a 'super department,' named Communities NSW (Government 3). The purpose of Communities NSW was to support 'the development of vibrant, sustainable and inclusive communities, and [foster] opportunities for people to enjoy more active, rewarding and fulfilling lives' (Communities NSW, 2010, p. 5). Communities NSW became responsible for 24 state agencies and divisions across three clusters, including 1) Arts and Culture; 2) Community Development; and 3) Sport, Recreation and Parklands, with. NSW Sport and Recreation incorporated under this third cluster. As such, Communities NSW became responsible for NSW Sport and Recreation budget allocations (Communities NSW, 2010), which included the distribution of resources to SWMGOC as previously described (Government 3). Communities NSW staff were located in the Sports House complex, where NSW Sport and Recreation and SWMGOC were already operating from.

Although the NSW Minister for Tourism had taken over responsibility for SWMGOC in 2008, Communities NSW took responsibility for managing research partnerships established around the SWMG, and for preparing for the dissolution of SWMGOC and publishing SWMGOC's final annual report (Government 3). Therefore, Communities NSW had approximately four months in which to establish contacts and obtain the information necessary to perform these tasks. However, Government 3

described a lack of cooperation by SWMGOC staff concerning sharing information with Communities NSW. Government 3 (pers. comm., November 2, 2009) explained:

> Even though [SWMGOC] were just downstairs [in Sports House], one level down, they were very insular … I experienced that when I came in and tried to get data off them. Not [the CEO], but some of his staff, they were almost saying, 'Well you know we're not really going to give this to you [interviewee laughs], just, you know, who are you?' And so it took a lot of coercing and encouragement to try and … get them to talk to us and give us the right information.

5.2.3 Event Delivery Phase

SWMGs Delivered

The SWMG were staged from 10 to 18 October, 2009, with '28 sports, 80+ venues, and over 28,000 athletes' (SWMGOC, 2010, p. 8). Figure 14 illustrates the structure of the ION in the 12 months leading up to the SWMG, with the commitment of sport organisations finalised and the establishment of Communities NSW. In contrast to its initial preference for contracting SSOs, SWMGOC engaged three NSOs, one MSA and one CSO in addition to the 25 SSOs. This also meant that some sport organisations that were previously participating in the ION became irrelevant, including Sport 4 at the SSO level and Sport 21 at the SSO and NSO levels. Sport 26 ended up being represented by two separate SSOs and one CSO.

Figure 14: ION map of sport development stakeholders in the 12 months leading up the SWMG (2009)
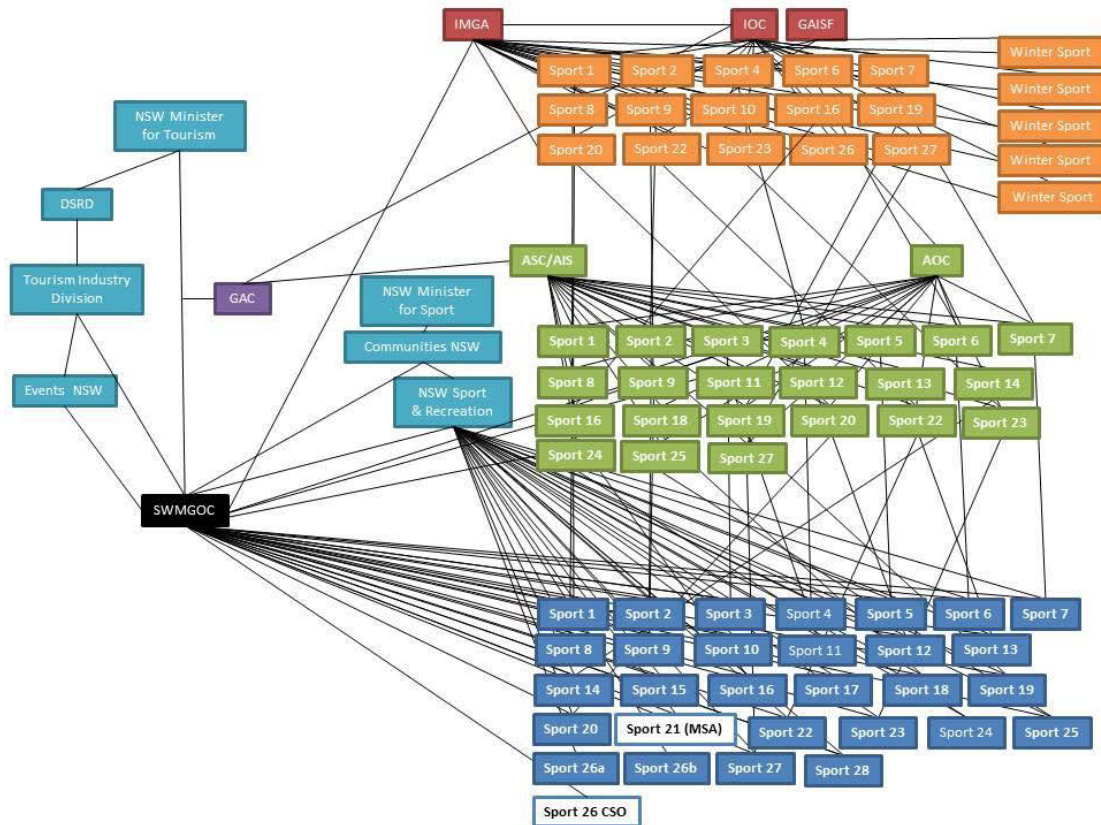
5.2.4 Post-Event Phase

Dissolution of SWMGOC and long-term ION structures

Within just a few weeks of the conclusion of the SWMG, SWMGOC shrank from its peak staff of 45 full-time; 15 contract and 5 seconded staff, to a skeleton staff of five senior managers. The senior managers completed their contracts during November and December 2009, with their post-event work focused on collating information for knowledge transfer to the IMGA and contributing to fulfilling the reporting requirements of the NSW Government. As part of the reporting requirements, the contracted sport organisations were required to submit post-event reports to SWMGOC by November. There was no further interaction between SWMGOC and the sport organisations after this reporting was completed (Sport 21).

The GAC members ended their formal roles in December 2009. The role of the SWMGOC CEO finished at the end of June 2010. Figure 15 illustrates the structure of the ION in the absence of SWMGOC in the latter part of 2010. Figure 15 highlights that the hosting of the SWMG had a lack of influence on the mainstream structures of sport to encourage increased engagement by sport organisations with Masters sport participation.

Figure 15: ION map of sport development stakeholders after the dissolution of SWMGOC (2010)
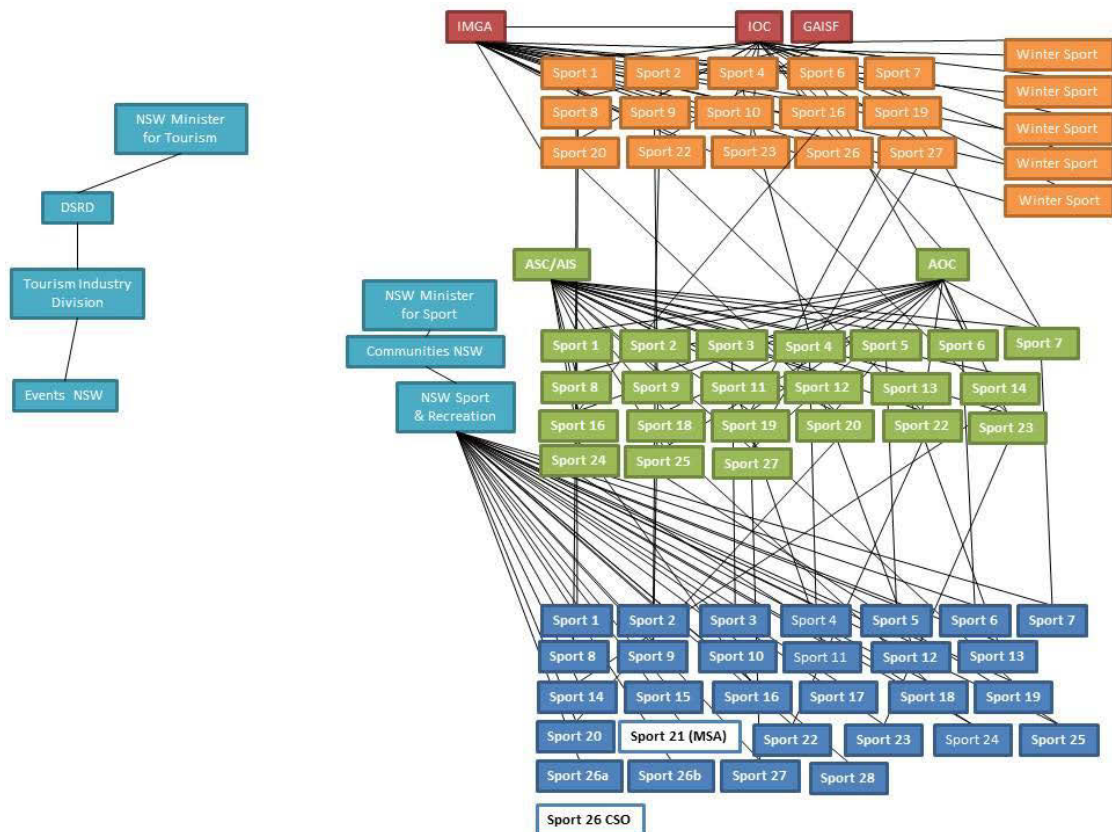
5.3 Context of Sport Development

The theme Context of Sport Development represents the unique context influencing the impetus of sport organisations towards securing legacies for masters sport. Context of Sport Development consists of two sub-themes: 1) existing masters sport

delivery, and 2) sport development priorities. These sub-themes emerged through the document analysis and interviews with the sport representatives who described their existing approaches to masters sport delivery and reflected on some of the factors influencing whether the sports were able to capitalise on the opportunity of the SWMG, or not. Figure 16 shows the context in which this theme is discussed.

Figure 16: Context of Sport Development in Context of Emergent Themes

Main Theme 1: ION Development & Structure	Main Theme 2: Context of Sport Development	Main Theme 3: Legacy 'Consensus'
Organisations and Connections (collection of descriptive data relating to the development and structure of the SWMG ION).	Sport Development Priorities	Legacy Visions
	Existing Masters Sport Delivery	Opportunities
		Responsibilities
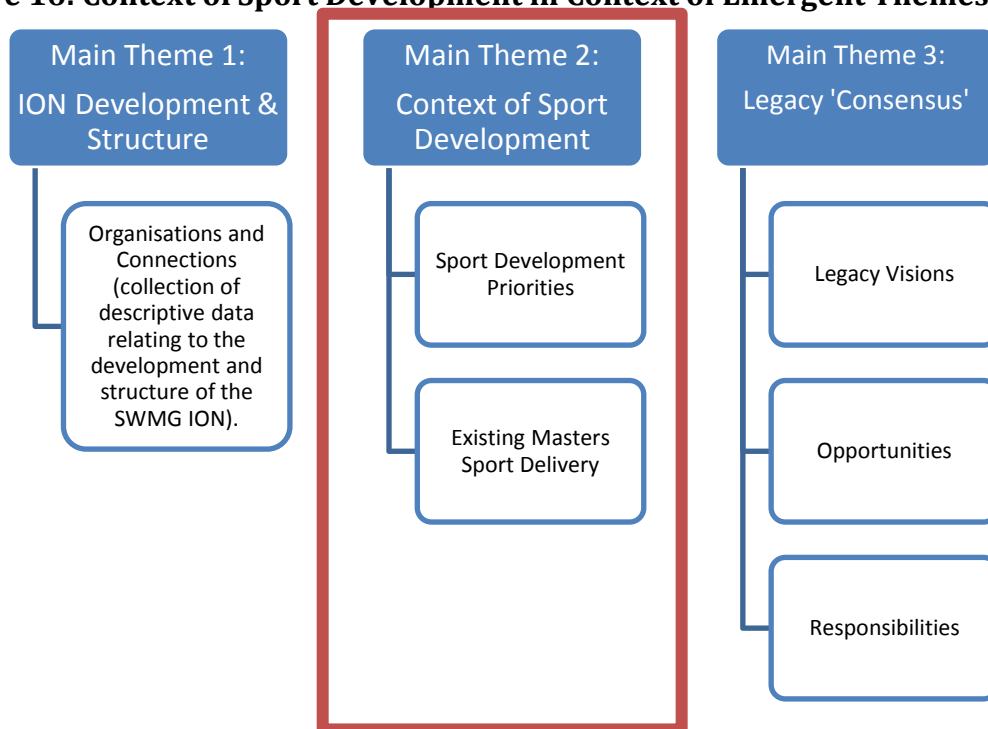
5.3.1 Sport Development Priorities

The sub-theme Sport Development Priorities highlight interviewee descriptions of tensions regarding the political priorities for sport development in terms of the distribution of funds across the sport system, and the subsequent impact on the capacity of sport organisations to secure legacies. In terms of the distribution of funds across the sport system, some sport representatives talked about the challenges of balancing their financial resources between their existing priorities of elite and youth sport development and masters sport initiatives (Sport 1; 10; 17 and 23). There was no

targeted or additional funding provided by the federal or state governments for sport organisations involved with the SWMG to encourage them to introduce or enhance masters sport opportunities (Government 4; IMGA 1; Sport 1, 17 and 23). Sport 10 (pers. comm., October 22, 2009) summed up the dilemma perceived by these sport representatives, explaining that when masters participants are 'in [our] clubs, they take away resources that may have been allocated to the youth'.

Sport 1 (pers. comm., October 10, 2009) provided insights regarding how federal government funding, provided through the Australian Sport Commission (ASC), influenced the sport development priorities of the NSO for his sport:

> We need to employ development officers to [recruit masters participants to our sport], but we don't have the money to do that. Unfortunately, all the [Australian] Sports Commission money we get is dedicated to one thing and one thing only, and that's winning Olympic gold medals.

Sport 1 explained how the ASC's emphasis on elite and youth sport development contributed to a context that threatened to impede efforts to secure legacies for masters sport. He said, 'the [Australian] Sports Commission would like to see us ... do away with the social [participants], [They've said,] "Tell them to go away." They told us that face to face, "You need to get rid of the social people, they're a burden on your organisation, and only focus on your elite"' (Sport 1, pers. comm., October 10, 2009).

At the national level, the ASC's *Annual Report 2009/2010* demonstrated that the federal government's priorities for sport were mostly consistent with Sport 1's comments regarding the focus on elite sport. The ASC *Annual Report 2009/2010* included four main funding categories:

1. **AIS Allocation** - Funding allocations for sports at the national level provided through the AIS for elite sport programs;

2. **High Performance** – Funding provided by the ASC to NSOs for high performance outcomes;

3. **Sport Development** – Funding provided by the ASC to NSOs for sport development outcomes by way of mass participation outcomes; and

4. **Other** - Funding provided by the ASC through the National Talent Identification and Development program, Indigenous Sport program, Disability Sport program, Elite Coach Development program, Sport Leadership Grants and Scholarships for Women program, and special initiatives.

Table 23 provides a comparison between funding allocations to the 28 sports included in the SWMG at the NSO level based on the amounts paid by the ASC for the financial year 2009–2010 to NSOs for AIS Allocation, High Performance, Sport Development and Other. Percentage allocations for Sport Development are highlighted in the table and are discussed below.

Table 23: ASC Funding to SWMG sports at the NSO level allocated 2009/2010

Sport	AIS Allocation (% and $AU)	High Performance (% and $AU)	Sport Development (% and $AU)	Other (% and $AU)	Total (% and $AU)
Archery	49% 381,936	45% 354,800	**3%** 27,200	3% 20,000	100% 783,936
Athletics	24% 1,411,051	63% 3,671,587	**3%** 146,400	10% 555,000	100% 5,784,038
Badminton	0% 0	41% 185,000	**6%** 27,000	53% 240,000	100% 452,000
Baseball	0% 0	90% 1,347,000	**10%** 146,000	0% 0	100% 1,493,000
Basketball	32% 1,433,424	60% 2,650,600	**5%** 216,400	3% 125,000	100% 4,425,424
Bowls	0% 0	73% 417,200	**26%** 146,800	1% 9,500	100% 573,500
Canoeing	36% 1,046,893	59% 1,710,000	**4%** 108,000	1% 11,000	100% 2,875,893
Cycling	28% 1,434,666	68% 3,473,000	**2%** 110,000	2% 95,400	100% 5,113,066
Diving	38% 652,055	48% 821,800	**2%** 27,200	12% 200,000	100% 1,701,055
Football	21% 1,521,510	75% 5,331,600	**3%** 216,000	1% 65,000	100% 7,134,110
Golf	35% 368,405	46% 478,400	**14%** 151,600	5% 50,000	100% 1,048,405
Hockey	24% 1,333,081	69% 3,788,200	**3%** 161,800	4% 206,500	100% 5,489,581
Netball	28% 650,920	40% 945,085	**12%** 279,900	20% 465,000	100% 2,340,905
Orienteering	0% 0	100% 86,000	**0%** 0	0% 0	100% 86,000
Rowing	33% 1,926,982	65% 3,831,600	**1%** 89,400	1% 60,000	100% 5,907,982
Rugby Union	42% 194,000	0% 0	**47%** 216,000	1% 50,000	100% 460,000
Sailing	21% 804,362	75% 2,802,430	**4%** 146,400	0% 0	100% 3,753,192
Shooting	0% 0	87% 1,419,800	**5%** 76,200	8% 140,000	100% 1,636,000
Softball	19% 384,445	71% 1,439,200	**8%** 161,800	2% 50,000	100% 2,035,445
Squash	44% 441,276	44% 437,600	**12%** 118,400	0% 0	100% 997,276
Surf Lifesaving	0% 0	66% 355,400	**30%** 161,600	4% 25,000	100% 542,000
Swimming	24% 1,446,481	71% 4,353,000	**4%** 216,000	2% 125,000	100% 6,140,481
Table Tennis	0% 0	68% 103,800	**32%** 48,200	0% 0	100% 152,000
Tennis	63% 499,949	0% 0	**27%** 216,000	10% 75,000	100% 790,949
Touch Football	0% 0	32% 120,000	**54%** 200,000	14% 50,000	100% 370,000

(Source: Derived from ASC, 2010) Continued over page

Table 23: ASC Funding to SWMG sports at the NSO level allocated 2009/2010 (continued)

Sport	AIS Allocation (% and $AU)	High Performance (% and $AU)	Sport Development (% and $AU)	Other (% and $AU)	Total (% and $AU)
Volleyball	45% 1,292,638	45% 1,286,000	**2%** 64,000	8% 228,500	100% 2,871,138
Water polo	22% 517,843	74% 1,720,000	**3%** 61,000	1% 20,000	100% 2,318,843
Weightlifting	0% 0	94% 362,600	**6%** 21,400	0% 0	100% 384,000

(Source: Derived from Australian Sports Commission, 2010)

Funding amounts for Sport Development varied between $0 (for Orienteering) through to $279,000 (for Netball). Table 23 shows that the ASC funding for two NSOs was 100% dedicated to sport development (Rugby Union and tennis). However, more than half of the NSOs had less than 10% of their ASC funding directed towards sport development. One of these sports, orienteering had no funding directed towards sport development in the reporting year in which the SWMG were hosted.

At the state level, the *NSW Sport and Recreation Annual Report 2009/2010* demonstrated that NSW Sport and Recreation funded all but one of the SWMG sports at the SSO level through their Sports Development Program. Surf Life Saving was the only sport not funded through the Sport Development Program. Instead this sport was funded through specific grant allocations for water safety and infrastructure maintenance.

Through the Sports Development Program, NSW Sport and Recreation aimed to assist SSOs to work in partnership with the NSW Government to develop sport and recreation activities at all levels in NSW. To be eligible, sport organisations were

required to demonstrate commitment to social justice and gender equity strategies within their business plan. Table 24 lists the sports, sport organisations and amounts funded by the NSW Sport and Recreation Sports Development Program Funding for the financial year 2009/2010. In the sports of archery; athletics football; golf; shooting and swimming, NSW Sport and Recreation divided funding allocations across two or more sport organisations recognised by the department as being representative of a sport on a state-wide basis.

Table 24: SWMG Sports, Sport Organisations and Amounts funded by the NSW Sport and Recreation Sports Development Program Funding (2009/2010)

Sport	State Sport Organisation/s	$ Allocated 2009/2010
Archery	Archery Society of NSW	5,000
	Field Archery of Australia (NSW Branch)	5,000
Athletics	Athletics NSW	40,000
	Little Athletics NSW	40,000
Badminton	NSW Badminton Association Inc.	15,000
Baseball	NSW Baseball League Inc.	60,000
Basketball	NSW Basketball Association Inc.	15,000
Bowls	Royal Bowling Association of NSW Inc.	5,000
Canoeing**	Paddle NSW	20,000
Cycling	NSW Cycling Federation	60,000
Diving	Diving NSW Inc.	20,000
Football	Football NSW Ltd	30,000
	Northern NSW Football Federation	30,000
Golf	NSW Golf Association	30,000
	Women's Golf NSW	30,000
Hockey	Hockey NSW	60,000
Netball	NSW Netball Association Ltd	60,000
Orienteering**	Orienteering Association of NSW	20,000
Rowing	NSW Rowing Association Inc.	60,000
Rugby Union	NSW Rugby Union	60,000
Sailing	Yachting Association of NSW	60,000
Shooting	NSW Amateur Pistol Association	30,000
	NSW Clay Target Association	15,000
	NSW Rifle Association	15,000
Softball	NSW Softball Association Inc.	60,000
Squash	NSW Squash Ltd	60,000
Surf Life Saving**	Not funded as part of the Sports Development Program	0
Swimming***	Swimming NSW	40,000
	The NSW Association of Masters Swimming Clubs Inc.	20,000
Table Tennis	Table Tennis NSW	20,000
Tennis	NSW Tennis Association Ltd	60,000
Touch Football	NSW Touch Association	60,000
Volleyball**	State Volleyball NSW Inc.	15,000
Water polo	NSW Water Polo	60,000
Weightlifting	NSW Weightlifting Association	20,000

(Source: Derived from Communities NSW, 2010)

Key: ** = SSO did not participate in the SWMG ION, instead the NSO was contracted by SWMGOC; *** = SSO did not participate in the SWMG ION, instead the MSA was contracted by SWMGOC

NSW Sport and Recreation also invested in sport through several additional grants programs, including:

- **Facility grants** – Funding provided to local councils and community groups to improve facilities; as well as specific initiatives of Safe Shooting Facility Grants and Surf Life Saving Australia Facility Grants, totalling $11,967,341;

- **Sport and athlete development programs** – Funding provided to peak industry bodies, disability sport organisations and sport and athlete development initiatives, totalling $1,068,120;

- **Elite sport programs** – Funding provided to elite athletes with a disability; regional academies of sport and international sporting events hosted in NSW, totalling $2,255,789;

- **Participation grants** – Funding provided to: initiatives at the state and community sport level to reduce barriers to sport; water safety education programs; Indigenous sport programs; and disability sport assistance programs, totalling $3,528,958; and

- **Other grants** – Funding provided at state and community sport levels through the Minister's Discretionary Fund – sport and recreation and a Special Grants category, distributed across a combination of elite and mass participation sport projects, totalling $1,630,000.

Of the projects listed as receiving funding through NSW Sport and Recreation's grants programs, only two of the projects were specifically concerned with reducing barriers to participation for masters-age athletes. Funding for masters-related initiatives included:

- Funding provided to the NSW Association of Masters Swimming Clubs Inc. to administer masters swimming in NSW, totalling $20,000; and

- Funding provided to the Bankstown District Sports Club towards the hosting of the Union Cycliste Internationale (UCI) Track Cycling Masters' World Championships 2009, totalling $15,000.

The interview with the representative from Cycling NSW highlighted that the UCI Track Cycling Masters' World Championships in 2009 was an event that participants needed to qualify for in advance to participate in. Therefore it was an event targeting Masters participants already active in the sport. There were several additional projects funded by NSW Sport and Recreation with broad inclusion objectives. However, there were no other initiatives funded in the year of the SWMG to develop or enhance masters sport opportunities or encourage increases in sport participation by masters-age participants.

One of the NSW Sport and Recreation representatives, Government 5, explained that the limited resources for SSOs for their sport development objectives meant that SWMGOC's expectations for the sports to contribute to delivering a successful event and secure legacies for masters sport were unreasonable. Most sport representatives highlighted that their limited access to paid and volunteer staff made it difficult to carry out existing strategic plans, without the added burden of having to develop and resource new strategies for masters sport (Sport 1; 2; 4a; 13; 20; 21 and 23). As such, Government 5 argued that placing legacy expectations on sport organisations was not to the benefit of the sports. Government 5 (pers. comm., November 18, 2009) explained:

It's important to recognise that many of the SSOs are purely operating on a volunteer basis, some with minimal paid staff, only a few have paid positions ... If you put an extra burden on that system it is not an opportunity ... For some ... sports, in the end, the event would have been a burden on already stretched resources.

5.3.2 Existing Masters Sport Delivery

The existing approaches to masters sport delivery by the sport organisations contracted by SWMGOC to deliver the sport component of the SWMG varied greatly, as was highlighted in the interviews with the sport representatives. The approaches by each of the sport organisations articulated by representatives in the in-depth interviews are summarised in Table 25.

Table 25: Existing Masters Sport Delivery

Existing Masters Sport Delivery / Sport	Specific initiatives	Masters-specific org. within the SSO	Masters-specific club within SSO	No targeted initiatives	Separate & Independent Masters org.	No inform-ation found
Sport 1	✓					
Sport 2		✓				
Sport 3				✓		
Sport 4	✓					
Sport 5	✓					
Sport 6*			✓ ^			
Sport 7				✓		
Sport 8					✓	
Sport 9				✓		
Sport 10				✓		
Sport 11				✓		
Sport 12				✓		
Sport 13	✓					
Sport 14				✓		
Sport 15				✓		
Sport 16*		✓ ^				
Sport 17				✓		
Sport 18				✓		
Sport 19					✓	
Sport 20	✓					
Sport 21					✓	
Sport 22	✓					
Sport 23	✓					
Sport 24	✓					
Sport 25*						✓
Sport 26*						✓
Sport 27*						✓
Sport 28*						✓

(Sources: Interviews with sport representatives; Observation 3)

Key: * = did not participate in interviews; ^ means where no interviews were carried out, findings came from Observation 3.

Five main approaches were evident, including:

- **Sports with specific initiatives for masters sport (eight sport organisations)**: These sports exhibited specific initiatives, such as establishing minimum age limits, or bracketed age categories, so that masters participants could be grouped together in competitions based on both their age and ability;

- **Sports with a masters-specific organisation within SSO (two sport organisations)**: These organisations had boards and committees specifically for

masters sport which operated under the umbrella of the SSO, but predominantly ran their own affairs;

- **Sports with a masters-specific club within SSO (one sport organisation)**: This sport had a masters-specific club that was set up as a regular club, but was exclusive to masters participants;

- **Sports with no targeted initiatives (ten sport organisations)**: These sports did not discourage masters participants, but demonstrated limited efforts to be inclusive of their participation. The attitude in these organisations was that if older people wanted to continue participating, they could do so in the traditional competition structures in which all adult participants are graded against one another based on their ability alone; and

- **Sports with a separate and independent Masters organisation (three sport organisations)**: These sports had Masters-specific organisations operating separately from the mainstream sport organisations.

The diversity in the levels of engagement by sport organisations with masters sport delivery was not acknowledged anywhere in the bid or planning stages of the event. This meant that commitments to securing legacies to masters sport in the bid document were not grounded in an understanding of the masters sport context. As such, without establishing a baseline of existing approaches to masters sport it would have been difficult to know what strategies would have been required to secure legacies for masters sport.

Interviews with the sport representatives also highlighted perceptions towards ageing and sport participation that were underpinning some of the approaches by the sport

organisations. Several sport representatives perceived that the physical requirements of their sports restricted participation to those people who had a history of involvement in the sport and a minimum level of technical and physical ability (Sport 5; 14 and 20). Sport 5 (pers. comm., October 14, 2009) said: '[Our sport] is not something that everybody can do. [In contrast] a sport like swimming is great for rehabilitation, it is not weight bearing, [and] people with disabilities can participate in swimming. It is much more difficult in [our sport], it is much more dangerous'.

Sport 14 (pers. comm., October 28, 2009) was similarly concerned about the physical requirements of his sport:

> [Our sport is a] body contact, high impact sport ... it's not the kind of sport you can just find 20 blokes who haven't played for a few years [and] all of a sudden start a ... team, because it's just physically impossible to do. So [it's] not the sort of sport that you pick up when you're thirty-five or forty, having never played, and say "Geez, I want to get out and get bashed up."

Due to the technical and physical requirements of their sports, Sport 5 and Sport 14 believed it to be unlikely that the involvement of their sport in the SWMG would lead to any substantial increases in participation rates. Sport 4b and 12a were also aware of the physical demands of their sports, but instead of seeing this as a barrier to increasing participation, considered that there may be ways to modify their sports to better cater for masters sport participants. Sport 4b recognised that her sport was physically demanding for older people. However, rather than seeing this as a barrier to masters participation, Sport 4b's involvement with the SWMG helped her consider the potential of revising existing masters sport delivery to reflect the modified rules and easier courses used in the junior programs to be more inclusive of masters participants.

Similarly, Sport 12a perceived that the creation of a masters competition in his sport would also improve the experience for masters participants and had the potential to reduce the risk of injury for older people by encouraging more evenly matched competition. He indicated that one participant was 'seventy-nine [years old] and [still] playing in a weekend competition ... against guys that are nineteen or twenty [years old]'. Sport 12a explained that with such a variance in age range in the existing competition structure: 'There's a definite injury risk ... [based on the type of equipment we use in standard competitions and] as you get older, there's obvious strength declines'. Based on this view, Sport 12a believed that for his sport, the creation of a masters competition where players over a certain age are grouped together in teams would be a positive move, as older people would be competing against players 'of the same age and of the same standard'.

5.4   Legacy 'Consensus'

Legacy 'Consensus' reflects the processes of negotiation necessary in an ION to define: what the legacies for masters sport should be; the opportunities presented by the event that can lead to these legacies; and whose responsibility it is to implement initiatives to secure these legacies. Legacy 'Consensus' has three sub-themes: 1) Legacy Visions; 2) Opportunities; and 3) Responsibilities.

Legacy Visions are the differing visions held by the organisations as to how they define legacy for masters sport. It became apparent through the empirical findings that there was a lack of process and negotiation to reach consensus and establish a unified vision for masters sport. As such, this sub-theme explores the diversity of understandings about what could have constituted a legacy for masters sport and how

these divergent and sometimes conflicting visions inhibited processes to establish Legacy 'Consensus', hence the name for the theme includes inverted commas around consensus.

With an absence of legacy consensus, the identification of opportunities and responsibilities was also lacking across the ION. The lack of legacy consensus therefore impacted on how the organisations perceived, or in some cases, failed to perceive, event-related opportunities available through the SWMG to secure legacies for masters sport from the SWMG. In addition, with no clear legacy consensus or clarification of opportunities for organisations participating in the ION, there was no sense of shared responsibility evident across the ION. Instead, there are only a few examples of sports acting independently to implement initiatives for masters sport. As a result, the potential to leverage the event collectively and secure meaningful legacies for masters sport was a missed opportunity.

Figure 17 indicates this section will focus on the last main theme, Legacy 'Consensus' and the sub-themes, Legacy Visions, Opportunities and Responsibilities.

Figure 17: Legacy 'Consensus' in Context of Emergent Themes
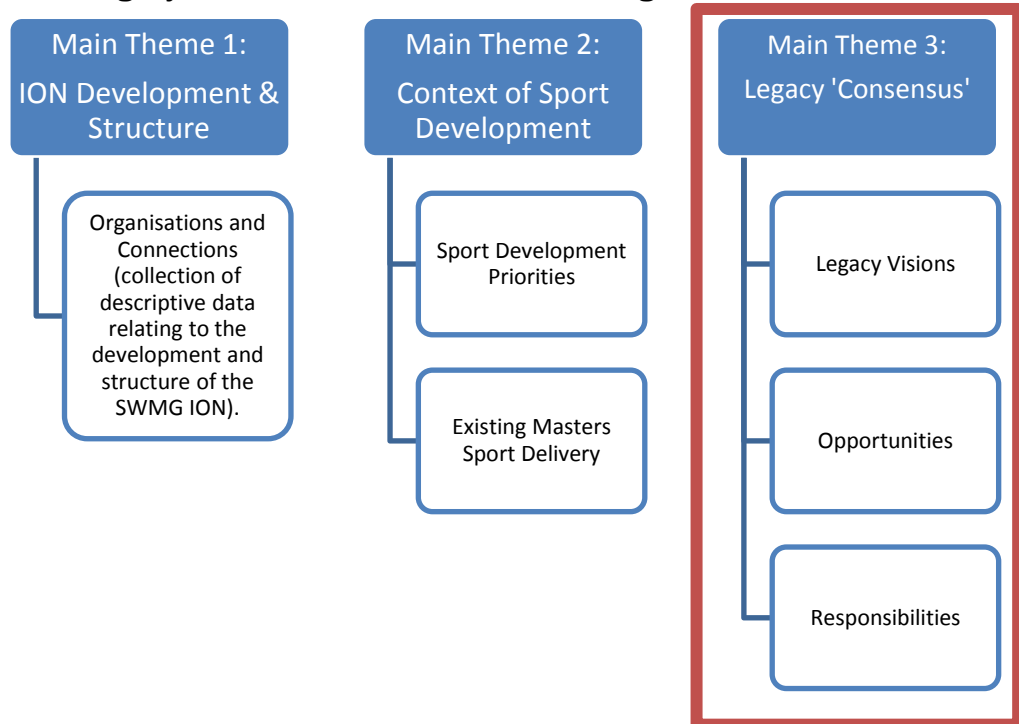
5.4.1 Legacy Visions

Legacy Visions provides insights into the differing visions held by the sport development stakeholders in terms of what legacy for masters sport meant to them. Two main notions of legacy for masters sport became apparent through the data: increased participation and enhanced engagement. These two expectations are detailed below.

Increased Participation

The sub-theme Increased Participation refers to older people increasing their sport participation and physical activity before, and/or after the event, as a direct result of the staging of the SWMG. However, rather than achieving consensus around this notion of increasing participation, the documents and interviews demonstrated that no consensus was achieved. Instead, the ION was characterised by a series of divergent

and sometimes conflicting ideas of increasing participation. These various visions are summarised in Table 26 and elaborated upon below.

Table 26: Sport Development Stakeholder Visions of Increased Participation

Stakeholder	Visions of Increased Participation
NSW Major Events Board	- SWMG would lead to the 'achievement of significant increases in participation by mature age athletes' (NSW Major Events Board, 2003, Section I, p.1); and - Limited commitment to these bid promises (Government 1 and 2).
SWMGOC	- Goal of SWMGOC to encourage lifelong healthy lifestyles (SWMGOC, 2006, 2007a, 2007b); - Targeted numbers of athletes 'returning to sport' (SWMGOC, 2007b); and - Declared the SWMG successful in increasing participation (SWMGOC, 2010).
IMGA	- WMG purpose to encourage mature individuals to participate in sport (IMGA, 2003).
NSW Sport and Recreation	- Did not expect SWMG to increase participation as SWMG participants not encouraged to become members of their local clubs, either before or after the event (Government 4 and 5).
Events NSW	No contribution to theme
Sport Organisations	- Only two sports talked positively about SWMG leading to increases in Masters membership (Sports 5 and 21); and - Other sports considered impact of SWMG on increases in membership to be insignificant (Sports 1; 4a; 7; 9; 12a and 13).
Communities NSW	No contribution to theme

The *Candidature Guidelines* (IMGA, 2003); bid document (NSW Major Events Board, 2003); the *Hansards* (NSW Legislative Assembly, 2005c, 2005d); and the SWMGOC nnual report*s* (SWMGOC, 2006, 2007a, 2008a, 2010) all included references to the staging of SWMG leading to older people increasing their participation in sport and physical activity. SWMGOC promoted the potential active lifestyle outcomes of increased participation from the SWMG in all official reporting for the event. For example, one of SWMGOC's objectives stated in its annual reports was to 'use the World Masters Games to encourage lifelong healthy lifestyles' (SWMGOC, 2006, 2007a, 2008a). As demonstrated in Table 27, the performance indicators for this objective, as set out in the internal corporate plan, connected SWMGOC's objectives to the notion of increased participation. This document

showed SWMGOC's conceptualisation of encouraging lifelong healthy and active lifestyles to include 'target[ed] numbers of athletes "returning to sport" through the Games' (SWMGOC, 2007b). There was no information provided as to what the targeted numbers were. In addition, it was not clear how the strategies detailed in the document were going to meet these KPIs.

Table 27: SWMGOC Objectives, Performance Indicators and Strategies for Increasing Participation

Objective	Performance Indicators	Strategies
4 Use the World Masters Games to encourage lifelong healthy and active lifestyles	• Promote this message at every opportunity through public announcements and the like • Target numbers of athletes "returning to sport" through the Games achieved • Meet funding guidelines of state and federal agencies who support the Games through health promotion programs	• Promote sensible training regimes through our website leading up to the Games • Secure funding through state and federal agencies responsible for health promotions • Do not cloud or confuse the message through contradictory commitments to supporters • Highlight the participatory nature of the Games

(Source: SWMGOC, 2007b, p. 2)

In contrast to the political rhetoric surrounding the SWMG, NSW Sport and Recreation representatives did not anticipate the SWMG would lead to increases in participation by older people based on the lack of connection between the SWMG and the traditional structure of sport (Government 4 and 5). Government 4 (pers. comm., November 18, 2009) made the following assessment: 'The … event didn't impact [or] grow the [sports] industry as we see it, because there was little promotion of opportunities to engage with sport within the traditional structure'. However, an opposite perspective was provided by two sport representatives, who talked positively about the SWMG leading to increased participation by older people in their sport (Sport 5 and 21). Sport 5 (pers. comm., October 14, 2009) explained that there was an

increased number of masters members in her sport: 'There is only a small group of masters [members] … and the number of [those] participants has increased'. Sport 21 (pers. comm., July 27, 2010) commented, 'We ended up with about 250 [new members in the season following the event]'. Importantly, both of these sports put in place initiatives that led to these increases in participation. The specific initiatives are detailed under the Opportunities sub-theme below.

Other sport representatives acknowledged that there was a potential for the SWMG to bring some participants back to sport after having a break (Sport 1; 4a; 7; 9; 12a and 13). However, these sport representatives did not believe that attracting these lapsed participants would lead to significant growth in their sport's overall participation figures. Sport 13 (pers. comm., October 27, 2009) summed up the sentiments of the less positive sport representatives when he commented:

> I don't … see that there would be a great deal of growth [in our] sport just because of the Masters Games... When we went out there and had a look at who was playing, a lot of the teams in NSW had a lot of familiar faces, so they were people who were already playing the sport that we knew of. There [were] obviously people there that we didn't know, but the majority of the people playing ... probably 90% of the people there, not counting international [participants], but Australian-based people, we probably already knew them.

Consistent with arguments made by NSW Sport and Recreation and the majority of the sport organisation representatives, Government 1 and Government 2 revealed that despite the use of these messages, there was only a limited commitment by NSW Major Events Board to secure legacies to masters sport. Government 2 indicated, 'in every bit of paper we wrote trying to get government support for the [SWMG] we made … [a] big issue about … obesity, healthy lifestyle, sport for life, exercise for life' (Government 2, pers. comm., January 15 2010). However, he also explained these objectives were 'an argument on paper to try to bid for an event. The reality of

life is it's not really an important objective, it's an emotional objective' (Government 2, pers. comm., January 15, 2010).

Despite findings from a number of stakeholders that the SWMG was limited in its efforts to increasing participation, SWMGOC declared in the *Final Report* (SWMGOC, 2010, p. 9) that 'the Games attracted new people to Masters sport and also inspired many others to get active'. These remarks in the *Final Report* were based on independent research commissioned by SWMGOC (SWMGOC 6). The pre-event survey included questions about participants' sport participation behaviour, including:

- How many times per week participants took part in organised sport (including training and preparation sessions), if at all;

- How participants described their participation in organised sport and their experience in previous Masters multi-sport events; and

- How many previous World Masters Games events participants may have taken part in (Inside Story, 2009).

However, the research did not investigate whether SWMG participants increased their weekly participation in sport, or whether they had become a member of a sport organisation, based on their experience with the SWMG.

Enhanced Engagement

The sub-theme Enhanced Engagement referred to sport organisations and government agencies improving their engagement with masters sport development and improving the delivery of masters sport, as a result of staging the SWMG. The documents and

interviews demonstrated that no consensus was achieved regarding this notion of Enhanced Engagement, and there was a lack of commitment to this notion once the bid was won. The various visions by the sport development stakeholders are summarised in Table 28 and elaborated below.

Table 28: Sport Development Stakeholder Visions of Enhanced Engagement

Stakeholder	Visions of Enhanced Engagement
NSW Major Events Board	- Committed to holding conferences, seminars and workshops to encourage discussion and exchange of ideas among sport organisations and government agencies for masters sport development (NSW Major Events Board, 2003).
SWMGOC	- Set performance indicator as a target number of sports establishing/adopting masters-specific rules, with a strategy of briefings and presentations at various levels of sport governance (SWMGOC, 2007b); - Implemented an observer program focused on event delivery, not masters sport development. The structure of the observer program meant sport organisation representatives had limited opportunities to participate (Observation 6 and 7); and - Hoped that involvement of sport organisations in the SWMG would demonstrate to sport organisations that masters sport is a worthwhile investment (SWMGOC 7).
IMGA	- Required SWMG to 'raise the profile and interest for Masters sport' through the WMG (IMGA, 2003, p. 7).
NSW Sport and Recreation	- The enhancing of opportunities will be dependent on the focus of the individual sport organisations (Government 5)
Events NSW	- No contribution to theme
Sport Organisations	- Sports need to be supported to enhance opportunities for masters sport (Sport 10); and - Engagement with enhancing opportunities variable across the sports: 6 implemented initiatives independently (Sport 9; 12a; 14; 20; 21 and 24); 3 would discuss masters sport post-SWMG (Sport 4b; 11; 18); 13 would make no changes (Sport 1; 2; 3; 5; 7; 8; 10; 13; 15; 17; 19; 22 and 23).
Communities NSW	- No contribution to theme

In line with the IMGA's (2003) *Candidature Guidelines*, the bid document included promises of increasing the capacity and willingness of sporting bodies and government agencies to engage with masters sport development. The bid document (NSW Major Events Board, 2003, Section 1, p.2) indicated:

> Even before the Games begin, World Masters Games Sydney 2009 will welcome delegates from around the world for a series of conferences, seminars and workshops on topics of special interest to the Masters movement. Potential areas for presentation, discussion and exchange of ideas include the development and promotion of lifelong participation in sport,

sports medicine for mature age athletes, event management and marketing, club and association management, and technical issues in mature age sport.

Yet, no such 'conferences, seminars and workshops' were referred to in subsequent documents. The only similar concepts present in the SWMGOC's *Corporate Plan* was the objective of lifting the profile of the event for flow-on benefits to the masters movement, as shown in Table 29.

Table 29: SWMGOC Objectives, Performance Indicators and Strategies for Enhanced Engagement

Objective	Performance Indicators	Strategies
5 Lift the profile of the event for the benefit of Sydney, the IMGA, international federations involved and the movement	• Establishment and adoption of masters specific rules for a target number of sports • Agreed transfer of knowledge information passed to the IMGA post Games • Appointment of technical delegates for all sports with the preference being they be sourced from New South Wales	• Regular and coordinated contact with all participating international federations • Annual attendance at Sport Accord • Regular briefings and presentations to the IMGA, [SSOs], NSOs and IFs

(Source: SWMGOC, 2007a, p.2)

As demonstrated in Table 29, the Performance Indicators for this objective included the 'establishment and adoption of Masters specific rules for a targeted number of sports'. However, there was no indication of what masters-specific rules might entail or how many sports were being targeted to adopt such rules. In addition, it was not clear how the strategies detailed in the table were going to meet each of the KPIs.

SWMGOC held a series of workshops with the sport organisations in the lead up to the event, however, the workshops focused predominantly on information dissemination, such as SWMGOC communicating progress and timelines for event

delivery to the sports, and there was no discussion of legacy (SWMGOC 5). SWMGOC did implement the Observer Program. A summary of the program for the Observer Program is provided in Table 30.

Table 30: Summary of Observer Program

Focus:	Educating participants about the management and marketing of the SWMG	
Structure Date:	Sunday 11 October, 2009 2pm – 10pm Day 2 of SWMG	Monday 12 October, 2009 9am – 6pm Day 3 of SWMG
Program	- Tour of Accreditation, Sport Information booths and Health & Lifestyle Expo, SWMG Headquarters, Sydney Olympic Park, including behind the scenes operations - VIP function, Opening Ceremony	- Presentations by senior SWMGOC staff at Sydney Olympic Park, including the Chief Operating Officer's discussion of legacy. - Tour of venues Weightlifting Hall, Aquatic Centre, Media Centre, Sydney Olympic Park & Baseball Stadium at Blacktown Olympic Park.
Participants:	Representatives from: - other masters and mass participation sport events hosted in Australia and internationally; - academics and health practitioners conducting research around the SWMG and masters sport	
Cost	$100 per person	

SWMGOC's Chief Operating Officer's presentation referred to the potential legacies of the SWMG in terms of event volunteers, increased memberships for the sport organisations and the transfer of knowledge from SWMGOC back to the IMGA. However, there was no discussion that served to educate attendees about how these legacies for masters sport might be secured through the SWMG (Observation 7). As the Observer Program ran during Days 2 and 3 of the SWMG, the opportunity for the sport representatives to be involved was limited as most of them were committed to staffing their sport information stands at the accreditation centre, or running SWMG competitions (Observation 6 and 7). A couple of the sport representatives conducted tours of their competition venues for the Observer Program (Observation 6 and 7).

Despite the lack of targeted initiatives around the SWMG to enhance engagement by sport agencies and sport organisations, SWMGOC 7 hoped that sport organisations would be positively influenced by their involvement in the SWMG. SWMGOC 7 (pers. comm., December 1, 2009) hoped the SWMG would leave a legacy by 'encouraging and educating state and national sporting bodies that the Masters movement is one that they can afford to invest in because it will bring benefits to their organisation[s]'. SWMGOC 7 (pers. comm., December 1, 2009) believed that the SWMG 'certainly gave [the sports] a better understanding of what the Masters movement is about'. However, SWMGOC did not implement any initiatives alongside the event to educate stakeholders about the importance or opportunities of masters sport development and encourage collaborative efforts towards securing legacies. Sport 10 (pers. comm., October 22, 2009) commented, 'I would have liked to have seen that done a little bit better. I haven't, in any of the discussions with SWMGOC, and any conversations that I've seen, I've never seen the word [legacy] used'. Sport 20 (pers. comm., June 18, 2010) also commented, 'SWMGOC said to us, "You will be left a legacy". Now, all due respects to that statement, we already had a legacy [from the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games], which was [our competition facilities] … We were a bit mystified as to what our legacy [from the SWMG] was ever going to be'.

There was also no discussion of sport development legacies apparent among the sport agency and the sport organisations. A NSW Sport and Recreation representative highlighted that the extent to which sport organisations might enhance their engagement with masters sport delivery depended on whether or not 'increasing participation in the Masters market [was] a focus for the sports' (Government 5, pers.

comm., November 18, 2009). However, Sport 10 indicated there was a greater role for agencies such as NSW Sport and Recreation to provide more guidance and support in this area in order to encourage sports to focus their efforts in the area of masters sport. Sport 10 (pers. comm., October 22, 2009) said, 'I don't think the Australian sporting communities have a good handle about what masters sport actually means. They look at all the negatives of it … but how do you turn it around?' He also argued, 'There's no real answers or opportunities coming out of places like Sport and Rec' (Sport 10, pers. comm., October 22, 2009). Sport 10 indicated that some of the sport organisations needed support to encourage the kind of capacity and willingness referred to in the bid document.

Unsurprisingly, the desired outcomes occurred in only a small number of sport organisations. Table 31 provides a summary of enhanced engagement initiatives implemented by the sport organisations.

Table 31: Summary of Enhanced Engagement Initiatives Implemented by Sport Organisations

Enhanced Engagement Initiative / Sport	No Enhanced Engagement Initiatives	Masters sport development as an agenda item at their subsequent Board meetings	No information found	Initiatives Undertaken to Secure Sport Development Legacies
Sport 1	✓			
Sport 2	✓			
Sport 3	✓			
Sport 4		✓		
Sport 5	✓			
Sport 6*			✓	
Sport 7	✓			
Sport 8	✓			
Sport 9				Developed a *Draft Charter for Masters participants* within their sport
Sport 10	✓			
Sport 11		✓		
Sport 12				Implemented a Masters competition post-event
Sport 13	✓			
Sport 14				Offered a Masters grade in the season before and after the SWMG
Sport 15	✓			
Sport 16*			✓	
Sport 17	✓			
Sport 18		✓		
Sport 19	✓			
Sport 20				Implemented more Masters competitions to fill gap in calendar left by SWMG
Sport 21				Reintroduced a mentor program for new clubs established after the SWMG
Sport 22	✓			
Sport 23	✓			
Sport 24				Revised existing age groupings to be more in line with WMG age groupings
Sport 25*			✓	
Sport 26*			✓	
Sport 27*			✓	
Sport 28*			✓	

(Source: Interviews with sport representatives) Key: * = did not participate in interviews

As highlighted in Table 31, six sports indicated that their involvement in the SWMG had led to them implementing initiatives to enhance opportunities for masters participants in their sports (Sport 9; 12a; 14; 20; 21 and 24). Of these, sport representatives 12a and 14 revealed that they had not previously realised the significance of the masters movement, or the potential to focus on this group for sport development. Sport 12a provided one example where his involvement in the SWMG led to securing a legacy for masters sport within his sport organisation. He indicated that his involvement in the SWMG had highlighted the potential for masters sport to be considered as a development area for his sport, and as a result, he planned to implement an initiative to target masters participation after the event. Sport 12a (pers. comm., October 26, 2009) explained, 'I'd never heard of the World Masters Games and I'd never considered masters sport as a development officer … My focus has always been to recruit kids, kids, kids'. As a direct result of his involvement and experience with the SWMG, Sport 12a (pers. comm., October 26, 2009) explained:

> I'm looking at a proposed Masters League to run on a Monday night mainly as a way of using [a] facility that we have [that is currently under-utilised] ... So, we're looking at a Masters competition. A twelve-week competition from January through to March and April through to June and a twelve-week winter competition. So, the Masters Games was divided into four categories; 35 competitive and recreational and 45 competitive and recreational. So we'll start looking at a similar format with over 35s and over 45s.

Sport representatives 9 and 24 saw the hosting of the SWMG as an opportunity to prioritise masters sport development in their organisations and review and revitalise their organisational approaches to masters sport. Sport 9 (pers. comm., October 21, 2009) provided insight into the common experiences of the sports that undertook initiatives to enhance opportunities for masters sport:

> We were contracted by [SWMGOC] to run the sport … we then thought we … [could develop] a Masters strategy. In Sydney, in particular, we run an ad hoc Masters competition [through our] Associations … So what we [tried] to do

with the [SWMG was] use it [to] create ... a draft Charter of where we want to go with Masters [sport] … The World Masters [Games] was an opportunity where we could try and galvanise … an ad hoc process into something more formalised.

Other sport representatives indicated that due to the popularity of the SWMG, they would be including masters sport development as an agenda item at their subsequent board meetings (Sport 4b; 11 and 18). However, at the time of the interviews, none of these sport representatives had specific ideas about the programs they might offer, how they might target older people, or timeframes within which they would implement initiatives. The fact that these sport representatives did not have a clear idea for masters sport development is important due to the need for initiatives to be implemented in a timely manner. Sport 12b (pers. comm., November 2, 2009) highlighted the importance of implementing initiatives in a timely manner, explaining:

If we kind of stood back now for six months, we probably wouldn't get the same amount of people wanting to play. But now that we're on that wave, we've just finished [the SWMG] … people are still talking about the Sydney World Masters, [we are] jump[ing] on the bandwagon [to] see what we can get out of it.

Thirteen of the 22 sport representatives reported they would be making no changes in their organisations to develop or enhance masters sport opportunities (Sport 1; 2; 3; 5; 7; 8; 10; 13; 15; 17; 19; 22 and 23). Of these sports:

• Six already targeted masters sport through specific initiatives and did not take advantage of the SWMG to further develop their masters sport initiatives (Sport 1; 2; 5; 13; 22 and 23); and

• Seven sport representatives maintained that if older people wanted to play in their sports, they could do so through the traditional competition structures already available (Sport 3; 7; 8; 10; 15; 17 and 19).

- Of these sports:

  - Sport 8 and Sport 19 were SSOs whose sports had masters organisations operating separately and independently to the mainstream structure of the sport; and

  - Sport 10 and 17 reported that they had not been presented with adequate information to justify changing and creating impetus towards the delivery of ongoing masters sport opportunities.

The sub-theme Legacy Visions demonstrated the diversity of understandings of legacy for masters sport across the ION of sport development stakeholders and highlighted a limited foundation to establish consensus for what legacies to masters sport might mean. The following sub-theme Opportunities similarly reflects the diversity of perceptions regarding the opportunities presented by the SWMG to realise sport development legacies.

5.4.2 Opportunities

The theme Opportunities provides insights into the opportunities perceived to be presented by the SWMG to secure legacies to masters sport. Two main opportunities emerged through the data, including Event Participants and Event Media. These two opportunities are detailed below.

Event Participants

The sub-theme Event Participants refers to the mass participation nature of the SWMG, which was perceived to provide an opportunity to appeal to newcomers and non-regular sport participants who could be encouraged to increase their participation

in sport around the SWMG. The various opportunities perceived by the sport development stakeholders are summarised in Table 32 and elaborated below.

Table 32: Sport Development Stakeholder Identification of Opportunity – Event Participants

Stakeholder	Identification of Opportunities
NSW Major Events Board	- Mass participation nature of the SWMG provided opportunities to complement active lifestyle programs and promote the benefits of sport participation (NSW Legislative Assembly Hansard, 2005c, 2005d).
SWMGOC	- SWMG open to everyone (SWMGOC, 2008a; SWMGOC 3 and 6); and - Promoted potential for sports to utilise the SWMG participant database post-event (SWMGOC 2 and 5).
IMGA	- WMG a mass participation event with the goal 'to promote participation and to be inclusive of all, who want to compete' (IMGA, 1995, p. 9).
NSW Sport and Recreation	- Limited potential to encourage ongoing participation, no promotion for participants to join local clubs (Government 4); - No connections among SWMG participants and local sports clubs (Government 4); and - Participant databases designed for registration only, not ongoing communications (Government 4 and 5).
Events NSW	- No contribution to theme
Sport organisations	- Some sports implemented competition components in line with Sport For All (Sport 1; 2; 4; 5; 7; 8; 9; 10; 11; 12; 13; 14; 17; 18; 19; 21; 23 and 24); - Some sports exclusive world championship format (Sports 16 and 22); - Other sports stipulated their own guidelines (Sports 3, 15, 20 and 24); and - Only Sport 21 built their own database at their competition venue during the SWMG.
Communities NSW	- No contribution to theme

In line with the IMGA's (1995) constitution and the NSW Government (NSW Legislative Assembly Hansard, 2005c, 2005d), SWMGOC 3 and SWMGOC 6 considered the mass participation nature of the SWMG as an opportunity to promote active lifestyle messages and bring about increases in participation. In line with the mass participation format of the SWMG, the event was promoted as a sport event 'for everyone from former Champions to recreational newcomers' (SWMGOC, 2008a, p. 1).

Moreover, NSW Sport and Recreation representatives argued that the way in which the event was run and promoted was not conducive to attracting SWMG participants

to become members of clubs either before or after the event (Government 4 and 5). With the limited efforts to encourage SWMG participants to engage with their local clubs, NSW Sport and Recreation could not see that the SWMG would lead to positive sport participation legacies in terms of increasing membership in organised sport (Government 4 and 5). Government 5 (pers. comm., November 18, 2009) explained:

> For most sports, participation is measured by the number of members associated with an SSO, or club or association. This is the traditional structure of sport in Australia. In many ways, the SWMG worked outside that formal structure of sport, because participants didn't need to be members of the [SSOs], or a local club, or NSO … For example, you could run the half marathon without being a member of Athletics Australia, Athletics NSW, or a club.

Government 4 (pers. comm., November 18, 2009) added, 'There was no campaign aimed at participants to join a local club, either before or after the event'. Yet, interviews with the sport representatives indicated that the challenges were much more complex than just the disconnect between the SWMG and the traditional structures of sport. Two main factors hindered the potential opportunities provided by the mass participation format: 1) restrictions on participation implemented by some of the sports for the SWMG and 2) opportunities for sport organisations to communicate with SWMG participants after the event were limited. Each of these factors are described below.

Restrictions on Participation in the SWMG

The majority of sport representatives indicated they delivered their competition component of the SWMG with an approach reflecting the Sport For All philosophy of the WMG (Sport 1; 2; 4; 5; 7; 8; 9; 10; 11; 12; 13; 14; 17; 18; 19; 21; 23 and 24). The

sport organisations did this by welcoming anyone who met the minimum age requirements to participate and did not require SWMG participants to be a member of a club or any other recognised sporting body. However, some other sports implemented their sport competitions in direct conflict to the IMGA's mandate, the NSW government's political rhetoric and SWMGOC's marketing messages by placing restrictions on participation in the SWMG (Sports 3; 15; 16; 20; 22 and 26). Table 33 below provides an overview of each of the sport organisation's entry requirements for participation in the SWMG.

Table 33: Summary of Entry Requirements

Entry Requirements / Sport	Minimum age	Required membership	Pre-qualifying for World Championship event	No Information Found
Sport 1	✓			
Sport 2	✓			
Sport 3		✓ ^		
Sport 4	✓			
Sport 5	✓ encouraged to join a club			
Sport 6*				✓
Sport 7	✓			
Sport 8	✓			
Sport 9	✓			
Sport 10	✓			
Sport 11	✓			
Sport 12	✓			
Sport 13	✓			
Sport 14	✓			
Sport 15		✓		
Sport 16*			✓	
Sport 17	✓			
Sport 18	✓			
Sport 19	✓			
Sport 20		✓		
Sport 21	✓			
Sport 22			✓	
Sport 23	✓			
Sport 24	✓ Initially required to be a member, then open to minimum age			
Sport 25*				✓
Sport 26*		✓ ^		
Sport 27*				✓
Sport 28*				✓

(Sources: Interviews with sport representatives; Observation 3 and 8)
Key: * = did not participate in interviews; ^ means no interviews were carried out, and findings came from Observation 3 and 8.

Sports 16 and 22 conducted their sport competition components as International Masters Championship events. To be eligible to compete at the SWMG in these events, participants were required to qualify through preliminary rounds to secure a place. Although the championship format conflicted with the Sport For All philosophy of the event, SWMGOC 5 defended the inclusion of the sports with championship formats based on the ability of the formats in these sports to meet the

tourism and economic objectives of the event. SWMGOC 5 (pers. comm., November 4, 2009) explained that the championship formats 'brought in all the competitors from the northern hemisphere [which] we probably wouldn't have had otherwise. We would have had a lot less [participants] if it wasn't the World Championships'. These two sports contributed 1,610 participants, or 5.6%, to the overall figure of 28,676 participants.

Other sports that were not running International Masters Championship events also placed restrictions on participation. These sports required participants to be current members of a club or association (Sport 3; 15 and 20). For instance, Sport 20 required participants to be members of an NSO-registered club. Sport 20 (pers. comm., June 18, 2010) believed his sport was justified in enforcing this requirement, stating, 'We didn't want the sandshoe brigade turning up, doing it for the first time'. 'Sandshoe brigade' referred to newcomers and non-regular sport participants.

The implementation of restrictions on participation in the SWMG by these sports highlights the potential of an ION structured for event delivery and lacking in consensus to detract from collaborative efforts. As a result of restricting participation to pre-qualifiers or existing members, these sports also limited their ability to take advantage of the pool of event participants provided by the SWMG, which represented a potential pool of newcomers and non-regular sport participants to increase their participation in sport. Sport 22 (pers. comm., October 16, 2009) recognised this limitation:

> [Our sport] events at the [SWMG] are the World Masters … Championships, [they require] considerable experience… hence [our sport] could not be marketed to the wider sports community for participation in the [SWMG] in

the same way that many other sports invited people to come out of retirement, get fit and participate.

Opportunities to Communicate with SWMG Participants after the Event

SWMGOC 2 and 5 identified the potential for the sports to utilise the participant database post-event to send out communications to SWMG participants and promote opportunities for masters sport. This use of the participant database was in line with calls from NSW Sport and Recreation representatives for SWMGOC to connect event participants with the traditional sport system to encourage SWMG participants to become members of local sport clubs to secure a sport participation legacy (Government 4 and 5).

While database management was acknowledged as an outcome of the SWMG, many sport representatives reported being uncertain about their access to information contained in the database after the event and their ability to use it (Sport 5; 7; 11 and 21). These uncertainties were justified by Government 5, the NSW Sport and Recreation representative, who explained that SWMGOC designed the SWMG participant database solely for the purpose of event registration. SWMG participant data was collected with little concern regarding the sport organisations' access to the database once the event was finished. Based on the NSW Government privacy laws and the lack of permissions granted by registrants, the sports could not use the SWMG participant database to distribute 'information on an ongoing basis' (Government 5, pers. comm., November 18, 2009).

SWMGOC 5 had talked about the potential to access to the database after the event had come and gone, meaning that those sports that waited to be given access to the

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database post-event had missed out on the opportunity to stay in contact with SWMG participants. Only one sport representative out of the 22 sports interviewed for this study had anticipated these limitations with the SWMG database. Sport 21 took the initiative to build a database of SWMG participants for their sport during the competition. Sport 21 explained that volunteers in her sport ran a promotion for a years' free membership to encourage SWMG participants to sign up to a database. The lack of strategic design of the SWMG participant database and misinformation about access to the database was detrimental to any collaborative efforts that may have been undertaken by the sports to stay in contact with SWMG participants and contribute to securing a participation legacy.

Event Media

The sub-theme Event Media refers to the opportunity of event-related media coverage to promote messages about the benefits of sport participation and secure a sport participation legacy. The various opportunities perceived by the sport development stakeholders are summarised in Table 34 and elaborated below.

Table 34: Sport Development Stakeholder Identification of Opportunities – Event Media

Stakeholder	Identification of Opportunities – Event Media
NSW Major Events Board	- Committed the organising committee to establishing an 'appropriate publicity, media and public relations program' to promote the SWMG (NSW Major Events Board, 2003, Section IV, p.3).
SWMGOC	- Media coverage would encourage older people to participate in sport (SWMGOC 7); - Media campaign deemed successful based on quantity of coverage (SWMGOC, 2010; Government 1; SWMGOC 6 and 7); and - SWMGOC priorities not always aligned with sport-for-life messages (SWMGOC 3 and 4).
IMGA	- Media provided an inaccurate portrayal of the participant profile of masters sport (IMGA 1).
NSW Sport and Recreation	- Promotional messages for SWMG focused more on one-off participation than ongoing participation (Government 4 and 5).
Events NSW	- No contribution to theme
Sport organisations	- Sport representatives had mixed feelings about the effectiveness of the media coverage; - Sport 21 received large amounts of media coverage and had a positive assessment; and - Sports that received limited coverage were more likely to have a negative assessment (Sports 1, 2 and 22).
Communities NSW	- No contribution to theme

The bid document included only limited references to media coverage, indicating that the organising committee would establish a strategy for the promotion of the SWMG. Yet, SWMGOC relied on media coverage to achieve its objectives of promoting masters sport participation. Several interviewees commented on the large amount of media coverage received by the SWMG (SWMGOC 6 and 7; Government 1). SWMGOC 7 (pers. comm., December 1, 2009) highlighted the connection anticipated between the SWMG media coverage and increased participation, as he hoped that the large amount of media coverage that SWMG received would 'encourage older people to participate in competitive sport and get involved with future Games'. The *Final Report* declared that 'the unprecedented media coverage both within Australia and internationally will leave a lasting legacy… for masters sport in Australia' (SWMGOC, 2010, p. 9). Despite the positive accounts in relation to the event-related media coverage, representatives from the IMGA, NSW Sport and Recreation and the

sport organisations did not necessarily agree that the SWMG media coverage would leave a legacy for masters sport in Australia. While most interviewees agreed that there was a high quantity of media coverage for the SWMG, several questioned the quality of the coverage. Two main issues concerned interviewees: 1) the focus of the media coverage on one-off participation, and 2) the focus of the media coverage on the oldest athletes participating in the SWMG.

First, Government 5 (pers. comm., November 18, 2009) summed up criticisms by interviewees, arguing that 'the messages in the media were around one-off participation … they were not talking about joining [an organised] competition and playing regularly'. SWMGOC 4 (pers. comm., December 10, 2009) reflected, 'In hindsight, we could have spent more time working and marketing the health [and lifestyle] agenda to partners. However, the primary focus was on [maximising] the participation for tourism and economic benefit to NSW and the return on the government's investment'.

Second, the media coverage focusing on the oldest athletes participating in the SWMG was criticised as it was not seen to reflect the broad profile of participants across the different age groups of masters sport. For instance, centenarian Ruth Frith, included in Photo 1 (see Section 1.1), was one of only two centenarians participating in the SWMG (Jerga, 2009), yet she was perceived as attracting a large amount of coverage in the mainstream media. IMGA 1 (pers. comm., January 6, 2010) summed up the criticism, arguing, 'We at the IMGA are very against ... the [media] coverage ... [of the SWMG] in Australia ... apart from Prince Fredrick, quite substantial

coverage [was] of the very old participants. Fascinating as it might be, they are an absolute minority of participants'.

None of the interviewees criticised the fact that one-hundred-year-old athletes featured in the media; rather, interviewees were critical that SWMGOC did not try harder to ensure a more representative portrayal of SWMG participants to promote sport participation through the media. Government 5 (pers. comm., November 18, 2009) highlighted this issue:

> SWMGOC seemed to pump out media for promotion of the event, not to promote a particular message. The story of Dot the one-hundred-year-old shot putter was in the news day-in, day-out. Her story was not necessarily in tune with the messages [SWMGOC] wanted to get out, because the Games were for people from twenty-five years old and up, not just the very old people. But [Dot's story] got coverage and the media stuck with it.

The extent to which the sport representatives shared the view that SWMG media coverage presented opportunities to their sports varied, based on the media coverage their sport received throughout the event. For example, Sport 21 was delighted with the plentiful media coverage that their sport received throughout the SWMG. She explained the associated benefits for her sport:

> The benefits we got out of [the SWMG] was all the advertising and everybody seeing what masters sport is all about… We couldn't have done the advertising that [SWMGOC] did in the lead up to the Games… the advertising and the presence on the television and the radio, that was fantastic (Sport 21, pers. comm., July 27, 2010).

Other sport representatives were less positive about the media coverage experienced around the SWMG, as they felt that a few sports attracted the majority of the promotion and media coverage (Sport 1; 2; and 22). For example, Sport 22 (pers. comm., September 30, 2009) explained, 'the emphasis has been on highlighting one-hundred-year-old participants in athletics, and former Olympians in swimming.

Promotion of other sports … [has] not been as good as it might'. Hence, the emphasis by the media on particular sports posed a threat to collaborative efforts to secure legacies for masters sport across the 28 different sports involved with the SWMG.

In line with Legacy Visions, the sub-theme Opportunities again highlights how a lack of process and negotiation to reach consensus and agree on the opportunities presented by the SWMG limited the potential for the ION to collaborate and achieve outcomes beyond the delivery of a successful event. The following sub-theme Responsibilities highlights that without a unified vision and agreement on how to achieve that vision, organisations in the ION did not consider how they may be responsible, or may contribute to, securing legacies for masters sport.

5.4.3 Responsibilities

The theme Responsibilities captured data regarding stated and perceived responsibilities for securing legacies for masters sport across the ION of sport development stakeholders. The various responsibilities set out in documentation, and perceived by the sport development stakeholders, are summarised in Table 35 and elaborated below.

Table 35: Stakeholder Responsibilities in Formal Documents and Interviews

Stakeholder	Formal Documents	Interviews
NSW Major Events Board	- Indicated there would be a legacy, but did not initially identify responsibility (NSW Legislative Assembly, 2005c, 2005d; NSW Major Events Board, 2003); and - *SWMGOC Act* implied SWMGOC responsible for securing legacies (NSW Government, 2005).	- NSW Sport and Recreation responsible (Government 2).
SWMGOC	- Objectives included using the SWMG to encourage participation-based legacies (SWMGOC, 2006, 2007a, 2007b, 2008a, 2010); and - Outlined responsibilities to include the advancement of masters sport (SWMGOC, 2008d).	- Perceived to be responsible only for planning, organising and staging the SWMG (SWMGOC 1; 2; 6 and 7); - Connect relevant organisations with opportunities to secure legacies (SWMGOC 6); and - IMGA, NSW Sport & Recreation and the sport organisations responsible for securing legacies.
IMGA	- Deemed the host city was responsible for legacies (IMGA, 2003, 2004a).	- IMGA 1 recognised IMGA had a greater role to play in securing legacies, but did not have the resources to do so.
NSW Sport and Recreation	- No coverage of theme	- NSWSR representatives aware of the overlap of its and SWMGOC's objectives, but did not integrate SWMG into their sport development strategy (Government 4 and 5); and - Government 4 and 5 believed sports could determine if masters sport was a priority for them and could implement leverage initiatives accordingly.
Events NSW	- No coverage of theme	- Focused efforts on leveraging the SWMG for economic and tourism outcomes (Government 1).
Sport Organisations	- No coverage of theme	- Sport 10 identified need for guidance from NSW Sport and Recreation to secure legacies; - No sport representatives identified shared responsibility with other organisations to secure legacies; - The role of sports in securing legacies had not been discussed by SWMGOC with the sports (SWMGOC 5; Sport 10 and 20); - Only shared responsibility identified was event delivery (Sport 7; 12b and 13); and - Sport 5; 9; 12; 14; 21 and 24 took on responsibility for legacies independently.
Communities NSW	- No coverage of theme	- Responsible for collation of research (Government 3).

A summary of formal documents created by the IMGA, the NSW Major Events Board, the NSW Government and SWMGOC, which referred to the securing of legacy, and in most cases, who would be responsible for securing the legacy, is provided in Table 36. The first column lists the title of the document and the second column lists the author and year published. The third column details phrases referring to legacies for masters sport and the final column lists the organisation identified in the documents as responsible for legacy.

Table 36: Formal Documents Referring to Legacy and Responsibility

Title of Document	Author; Year Published	Reference to Legacy	Org. identified as responsible
Candidature Guidelines	IMGA; 2003	'The Host City must endeavour to raise the profile and interest for Masters sport and the World Masters Games to encourage widespread global participation in the Games' (IMGA, 2003, p. 7).	The Host City
Bid Document	NSW Major Events Board; 2004	Commits to using the SWMG to a) promote and encourage increased participation by older people in sport; and b) encourage sports to provide increased masters opportunities (NSW Major Events Board, 2003).	Not identified
Host City Contract	IMGA; 2004	'The IMGA hereby entrusts the organisation of the Games [to the host city] which undertakes to fulfil its obligations in full compliance with the content of the [IMGA] Guidelines, with its bid documents… and with the requirements of the IMGA' (IMGA, 2004a, p. 3).	The Host City
Hansard Speeches	NSW Legislative Assembly; 2005c, 2005d	Reflects commitments made in the bid document, to promote participation and enhance masters sport opportunities (NSW Legislative Assembly, 2005c, 2005d).	Not identified
SWMGOC Act	NSW Govt; 2005	States the objective of SWMGOC as being, 'to plan, organise and stage the Sydney 2009 World Masters Games in accordance with the obligations imposed, and the rights conferred, under the Host City Contract' (NSW Government, 2005, p. 8).	SWMGOC (obligations imposed under the Host City Contract)
SWMGOC Annual Report 2005-2006	SWMGOC; 2006	States that one of SWMGOC's objectives was to 'Use the World Masters Games to encourage lifelong healthy and active lifestyles' (SWMGOC, 2006).	SWMGOC
SWMGOC Annual Report 2006-2007	SWMGOC; 2007	States that one of SWMGOC's objectives was to 'Use the World Masters Games to encourage lifelong healthy and active lifestyles' (SWMGOC, 2007a).	SWMGOC
SWMGOC Corporate Plan	SWMGOC; 2007	States that one of SWMGOC's objectives was to 'Use the World Masters Games to encourage lifelong healthy and active lifestyles'(SWMGOC, 2007a).	SWMGOC
Sports Agreement	SWMGOC; 2008	'The role of SWMGOC is the supervision and coordination of the Games in the interest of the State of New South Wales and the Australian government, for the advancement of Masters sport, to ensure appropriate financial control of and return on, the Games and in compliance with the Host City Contract' (SWMGOC, 2008d, pp. 5-6).	SWMGOC
SWMGOC Annual Report 2007-2008	SWMGOC; 2008	States that one of SWMGOC's objectives was to 'Encourage the community to participate in ever-lasting, active and healthy lifestyles' (SWMGOC, 2008a) (wording shifted from earlier Annual Reports in line with portfolio shift of SWMGOC from sport to tourism)	SWMGOC
SWMGOC Final Report 2010	SWMGOC; 2010	States that one of SWMGOC's objectives was to 'Encourage the community to participate in ever-lasting, active and healthy lifestyles' (SWMGOC, 2010, p. 13).	SWMGOC

As shown in Table 36, eleven formal documents examined specifically referred to legacy. Of these eleven documents:

- The IMGA's *Candidature Guidelines* and *Host City Contract* indicated that the host city was responsible for securing legacies;

- The bid document and *Hansard* speeches indicated the SWMG would be used to secure legacies, but failed to identify who would be responsible for seeing these activities through; and

- The *SWMGOC Act* and remaining SWMGOC documents indicated that SWMGOC was responsible for securing legacies to masters sport.

While the documents listed in Table 36 indicates the SWMGOC had some responsibility for securing legacies, SWMGOC representatives did not perceive that SWMGOC was responsible for coordinating broader initiatives, policies or practices to secure sport development legacies from the event (SWMGOC 2; 6 and 7). SWMGOC 6 (pers. comm., November 17, 2009) explained what he considered the role of an event organising committee to be:

> People talk about event as being an exercise in project management, I think that it is a far greater exercise in contract management and relationship management ... [Therefore], it should be our intention to off load the responsibility to the experts and outsource the risk across all of our functional areas to the lowest common denominator, which is often the contractor.

In line with this, SWMGOC representatives perceived themselves as responsible only for coordinating organisational efforts of a collection of contracted organisations to deliver the SWMG (SWMGOC 2; 6; and 7). SWMGOC 6 stated what he perceived to be the responsibility of SWMGOC within the SWMG network:

> When I see terms like legacies and leveraging, we need to be fairly single minded as the organising committee... If you look at the *Act* that formalised this committee... it clearly states up front what our role and responsibility is, it

is to plan, organise and stage the Sydney 2009 World Masters Games – which is what we have done. (SWMGOC 6, pers. comm., November 17, 2009)

SWMGOC representatives believed their responsibility in the ION was to make connections among organisations that had the potential to secure legacies for masters sport, and alert these organisations to opportunities around the event (SWMGOC 5; 6 and 7). SWMGOC 6 explained:

When I say we're here to plan and stage the Games, it's also our responsibility to be alert to other opportunities … and to introduce the right people who have an ongoing responsibility for these types of outcomes, to have the opportunity to be involved, and I feel we have done that (SWMGOC 6, pers. comm., November 17, 2009).

Thus, SWMGOC representatives externalised responsibility for securing legacies to masters sport to other organisations in the ION. Table 37 below provides a summary of the sport development stakeholders perceived by SWMGOC representatives as having a role in securing legacies. The first column lists the stakeholders perceived to have a role in securing legacies and the second column provides a rationale supporting these perceptions.

Table 37: Organisations Perceived by SWMGOC as having a Role in Securing Legacies

Stakeholder Perceived to have a Role	Rationale
IMGA	SWMGOC 6 (pers. comm., November 17, 2009) explained: [The IMGA is] receiving money for the rights to stage these masters events, be they World Masters Games, World Winter Masters Games, European Masters Games, and other things that they have on their drawing board. Should they have a model where a certain amount of money goes into the development, legacies, leveraging? At the moment there doesn't seem to be a lot of structure to it.
NSW Sport and Recreation	SWMGOC 6 outlined that SWMGOC had made it clear to NSW Sport and Recreation that the organisation had a role to play with securing legacies for masters sport. SWMGOC 6 (pers. comm., November 17, 2009) said 'Our relationship with [NSW] Sport and Recreation is such that they are thinking about it, but whether they get themselves into gear by the time we've gone off into the sunset, I'm not sure.'
Sport Organisations	SWMGOC 7 believed that the sports were responsible for capitalising on the momentum around the SWMG and securing legacies for masters participation within their own organisations. SWMGOC 7 (pers. comm., December 1, 2009) argued that it was 'up to the state and national sporting bodies to make sure that they can attract [participants], and encourage and provide classes for people to become coaches, referees and so on.'

These perceived roles reflected a series of assumptions made by the various organisational representatives. The documents and interviews analysed from SWMGOC, NSW Sport and Recreation and the sport organisations did not provide evidence of any communication between SWMGOC and these organisations regarding the potential responsibilities of each of the sport development stakeholders. In turn, the stakeholders did not exhibit any kind of shared responsibility or collaboration and the few sports that did take on responsibility did so independently. IMGA 1 acknowledged that as the event governing body, the IMGA had a role to play in securing legacies for masters sport. However, he noted that at the time of the SWMG, the IMGA did not have the bargaining power, or human or financial resources to influence host cities to deliver legacies for masters sport around the SWMG (IMGA 1). Instead, IMGA 1 indicated that the IMGA would take on this responsibility for future editions of the WMG. IMGA 1 (pers. comm., January 6,

2010, interviewee's emphasis) outlined that this role 'is something we *will* take [on] … it's something that … hasn't been done before with the IMGA … even though now it's the seventh Games'.

The NSW Sport and Recreation representatives were aware of the overlap between the objectives of their department (i.e. encouraging active participation in sport and recreation) and the objectives of the SWMG (i.e. encouraging increased participation and provision of opportunities in masters sport) (Government 4 and 5). The perception that NSW Sport and Recreation, as the NSW Government's sport and recreation department, had a responsibility to secure legacies for masters sport was held by representatives from other organisations in the ION (Government 2; SWMGOC 6 and 7; Sport 1 and 10). Government 2 (pers. comm., January 15, 2010) argued:

> You'll have people in the sport and recreation side, and … they should be turning around and saying, "We've got the event, this is a real opportunity for us, we need to run what we can to try and get as many people participating, and get the longer-term legacy benefits". And in actual fact … in terms of their professional responsibilities, they'd be negligent if they didn't do that.

Despite the overlap of objectives and the views of other representatives in the ION of sport development stakeholders, NSW Sport and Recreation did not identify the SWMG as an opportunity to work collaboratively with sport organisations and meet its participation objectives (NSW Sport and Recreation, 2006). Government 4 (pers. comm., November 18, 2009) commented, 'Our whole strategic direction is about increasing participation. The World Masters Games fits [our purpose], but it wasn't part of our strategy'.

Sport 10 highlighted the need for NSW Sport and Recreation to take greater responsibility in providing leadership and facilitating capacity development for masters sport through the SWMG. However, Government 4 (pers. comm., November 18, 2009) said that NSW Sport and Recreation 'doesn't dictate what legacies should be achieved through hosting events … [because] the sports are in the best position to understand what outcomes they hope to achieve'. Government 4 (pers. comm., November 18, 2009) continued, 'While a major event can be leveraged [for benefits to sport] … NSW Sport and Recreation does not have a specific policy to leverage from major events'. Instead, she suggested, 'each sport ... may have its own legacy policy'. NSW Sport and Recreation's advice that each sport could have its own legacy policy contributed to the ad hoc perception by sport organisations that the SWMG was indeed an opportunity for their sports, around which initiatives should be put in place to capitalise on the event.

Comments by the sport representatives reinforced the overwhelming focus of the sport organisations on event delivery, stating objectives such as to 'provide the best possible competition … during that eight or nine days' (Sport 12b, pers. comm., November 2, 2009); and 'simply to have a successful event that everyone enjoyed' (Sport 13, pers. comm., October 27, 2009). The short-term focus of the ION, with its emphasis on event delivery, formalised through the Sports Agreements, narrowly focused efforts of the majority of the sport organisations on event delivery at the cost of efforts to realise any broader outcomes.

In the limited number of sport organisations where the potential to secure legacies for masters sport was acknowledged, the responsibility for legacy came to fall on a key

individual in the organisation. Sport 4b and Sport 10 highlighted the human resource pressures that sport organisations face at the SSO level when initiatives are left to the few key volunteers or paid staff running the organisation, and how this has the potential to impact on securing legacies for masters sport. Sport 4b and Sport 10 revealed how a lack of capacity on the part of individuals in the organisations led to a lack of legacy for masters within their sports. Sport 4b (pers. comm., October 15, 2009) explained:

> I started off with great ideas of how to [develop masters sport] three years ago when I first started planning for this, and then I lost my energy along the way. So it is the sort of thing you have to put in place a few years out to make them effective now, and by the time I was reinvigorated to run this event it was too late.

Sport 10 acknowledged that his very recent employment in the SSO meant there had been limited time for him to develop, implement and promote masters sport development initiatives in his sport around the SWMG. Sport 10 (pers. comm., October 22, 2009) commented, 'If I was in the job a little longer … I would have liked to conduct a few masters clinics … to have taken advantage of the opportunity … and to say, "Right, I can provide you with a couple of services to help you achieve your goal."'

Although SWMGOC identified Events NSW and Communities NSW as having the potential to influence legacies for masters sport, SWMGOC representatives did not formally delegate responsibility for securing legacies to these organisations and the empirical data collected from these organisations provided limited contributions to this theme. Instead, Events NSW worked with a series of government and private sector stakeholders to implement leverage activities and maximise business and economic outcomes from the SWMG across the key result areas of economic impact,

place marketing and civic pride (Government 1). The only aspect of Communities NSW's involvement that related to its network responsibilities was collating research as part of the event legacy, not in relation to legacy for masters sport.

5.5 Summary

This chapter presented the empirical findings of the SWMG case study undertaken for this thesis in response to the stated research question and research objectives. Three main themes were presented in this chapter: ION Development and Structure; Context of Sport Development and Legacy 'Consensus'. These themes are summarised visually in Figure 18.

Figure 18: Visual Summary of Emergent Themes
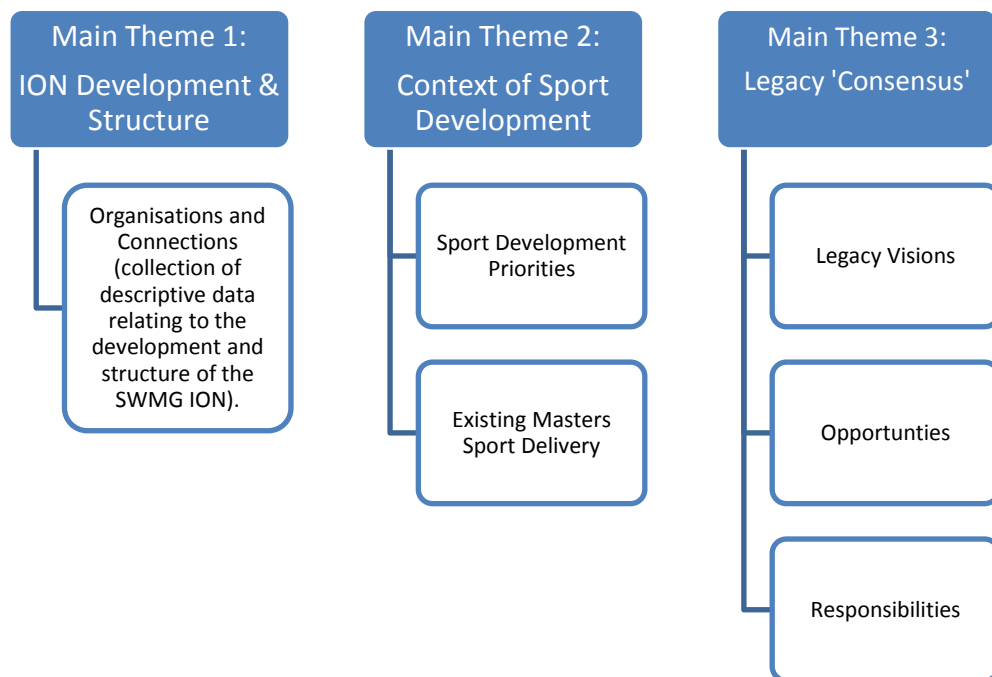
The first theme ION Development and Structure provided a detailed overview of the connections among the sport development stakeholders that came to be part of the

ION and had the potential to influence sport development legacies. ION Development and Structure highlighted the complex interrelationships within, and around, the ION of sport development stakeholders as it established and evolved. Importantly, the chronology of ION Development and Structure highlighted that the ION was developed principally for the delivery of a successful event, not to secure legacies for Masters sport.

The second theme, Context of Sport Development laid out the context surrounding the ION of sport development stakeholders, which influenced the impetus of sport organisations towards securing legacies for masters sport. Two sub-themes contributed to Context of Sport Development: Existing Masters Sport Delivery and Sport Development Priorities. This theme highlighted the problematic nature of the foundations upon which attempts to secure legacies to masters sport were based. There was mixed engagement with masters sport delivery across the participating sport organisations and there were no incentives or support to sport organisations to encourage them to do anything differently and invest in the development or refinement of masters sport.

The third theme Legacy 'Consensus' explored what legacies for masters sport meant to the participating organisations, how the SWMG could be used to achieve these legacies, and who was responsible for seeing through legacy commitments. Three sub-themes contributed to Legacy 'Consensus: Legacy Visions, Opportunity and Responsibility. This theme demonstrated a diversity of concepts, methods and perceived responsibilities. Consensus in these areas was not achieved due to a lack of discussion regarding legacy across the ION of sport development stakeholders. With

no clear vision, methods or responsibility set out, there were no foundations by which to coordinate collective efforts and maximise the value of the SWMG through securing legacies to masters sport.

Chapter 6 will discuss these findings in relation to the literature, and set a foundation from which to highlight the contributions of this thesis to theory and the practical implications in the concluding Chapter 7.

Chapter 6: Discussion

6.1 Introduction

An important aspect of the Sydney World Masters Games (SWMG) was the explicit commitment in the bid document to securing legacies for masters sport through the staging of the event. This commitment by the NSW Government presented an important opportunity to understand how the ION of a large-scale sport event influences the securing of sport development legacies. However, the findings demonstrate that the sport development stakeholders brought together for the SWMG undertook very limited strategies to secure these legacies.

To address the research objectives outlined in Chapter 4 this chapter discusses the key findings in relation to the literature. This chapter is structured around key arguments that summed up the three emergent themes detailed in Chapter 5, including 1) ION Development and Structure; 2) Context of Sport Development; and 3) Legacy 'Consensus'. This chapter provides the foundations to inform the theoretical contributions and implications for policy and practice described in Chapter 7.

First, discussion of the theme 'ION Development and Structure' reveals that narrowly defined event delivery objectives drove the development and structure of the SWMG ION, and this had a negative influence on commitments to securing legacies for masters sport. Second, discussion of the theme 'Context of Sport Development' highlights that government priorities and existing approaches to masters sport can inhibit sport development legacy objectives as it impacts on the impetus of organisations to act. Third, discussion of the theme 'Legacy 'Consensus'' highlights

that where there is no agreement on vision, opportunities and responsibilities for sport development legacies, it is unlikely that stakeholders will act.

6.2 The development and structure of the SWMG ION was driven by event delivery objectives

This section discusses how the objective to deliver a successful event drove the development and structure of the SWMG ION. It explores how this focus influenced stakeholder efforts towards securing sport development legacies. This section draws predominantly on the theme ION Development and Structure and uses the theoretical framework from Chapter 4 to highlight the limitations of an ION developed for event delivery. The application of the theoretical framework to the SWMG case study revealed five key components that were most influential to the development and structure of the SWMG ION. They are: Rationale for ION Development, Identification of Stakeholders, and three of Williams' (2005) structural variables: Formalisation, Centrality and Density (discussed together due to overlaps between them). Each of these variables is discussed below.

6.2.1 Rationale for ION Development

The purpose of an ION influences its development and structure (Benson, 1975; B. Gray, 1985; Mandell, 1988; O'Brien, 2005, 2006). SWMGOC principally mobilised sport development stakeholders for the purpose of delivering a successful event, defined in terms of achieving tourism and economic outcomes. The bringing together of these stakeholders resulted in legally separate organisations entering a collaborative arrangement to address an issue that no single stakeholder could address

independently (B. Gray, 1985; T. Williams, 2005). That is, the stakeholders were dependent on one another to deliver the SWMG successfully.

The presence of political and economic rationales in the SWMG ION posed a challenge to securing sport development legacies. Although there were commitments to legacies for masters sport in the bid document and in the political rhetoric of the SWMG, these promises were revealed as 'emotional' ones, aimed at gaining public support for the government's investment in the event (Government 2). In line with broader criticisms of large-scale sport events, the SWMG reflected notions of hallmark decision-making (Chalip, 2004; Roche, 1994; Veal, 2002; Whitson & MacIntosh, 1996) and a proliferation of 'legacy talk' (MacAloon, 2008, p. 2065). Essentially, the NSW Government lodged its bid for the SWMG to fill a gap in the state's event schedule, and it prioritised event objectives relating to tourism and economic outcomes (Government 2, pers. Comm., January 15, 2010). Commitments to sport development legacies were superficial and, without any delegation of responsibility to key government departments relevant to sport, there was a lack of policy development or resources committed to realise this objective.

In line with the literature (Benson, 1975; B. Gray, 1985; Mandell, 1988), the political and economic conditions influenced the development and structure of the SWMG ION in many ways. For instance, the rationales of the SWMG meant that interactions with sport development stakeholders were event-centric, temporary, and short-term in focus. In turn, SWMGOC's identification of stakeholders included those who could contribute to event delivery (discussed below in Section 5.2.2). In addition, the SWMG ION featured one-way transfer of benefits from sport development

stakeholders to event delivery. Further, SWMGOC did not attempt to facilitate interactions among stakeholders to secure sport development legacies and the SWMG ION lacked benefits for stakeholders.

The influence of the political and economic rationales strengthened as the event approached and the ION evolved. Benson (1975) argues that organisations in an ION will be motivated to secure access to resources. Similarly, SWMGOC lacked support during the critical event planning stages and SWMGOC shifted from reporting to the NSW Minister of Sport to reporting to the NSW Minister of Tourism. SWMGOC representatives considered this move effective in securing better access to resources and meeting the tourism and economic objectives. However, NSW Sport and Recreation representatives believed the shift to the tourism portfolio strengthened SWMGOC's narrowly defined objectives of tourism and economic impacts. Rather than reflecting any benefits of turbulence in IONs (see Section 3.4.2), this shift led to a strained relationship between SWMGOC and the state sport agency. Additionally, the commitment to securing sport development legacies became weaker over time as SWMGOC increasingly focused on meeting tourism and economic objectives.

Overall, the development of the SWMG ION, influenced by the political and economic rationales, was not conducive to encouraging the kinds of interactions and exchanges that would be necessary to secure longer-term developments in mainstream structures of sport that would have provided meaningful legacies for masters sport. Thus, the SWMG highlights the challenge presented when an event organising committee develops an ION for one objective, event delivery, but maintains rhetoric about other objectives, such as achieving sport development legacies.

6.2.2 Identification of Stakeholders

To effectively address an issue in a collective manner, stakeholders with power and influence over relevant resources need to be strategically identified and engaged (Chalip, 2002; B. Gray, 1985; Kellett et al., 2008; O'Brien, 2005, 2006, 2007; O'Brien & Gardiner, 2006). The inclusion of representatives from the Australian Sports Commission (ASC) and NSW Sport and Recreation met Gray's (1985) requirements for the inclusion of stakeholders with power and influence. This is because these two organisations have powerful positions in terms of setting sport development priorities and distributing resources through the sport system (Green, 2007; Hoye, Nicholson, & Houlihan, 2008; Shilbury & Kellett, 2011; Stewart et al., 2004). SWMGOC engaged these stakeholders specifically to provide advice on structuring and delivering the SWMG competition. SWMGOC was not interested in their potential roles in encouraging sport development legacies. As a result, the opportunity for SWMGOC to capitalise on the power and influence of these stakeholders to realise sport development legacies was lost. This was to the detriment of securing legacies for masters sport.

6.2.3 Formalisation

Formal agreements and contracted relationships are common in the context of project management (Hellgren & Stjernberg, 1995; T. Williams, 2005) and event delivery (Allen et al., 2008; Hamnett, 2000; Vaz & Jacques, 2006). Contracting for event delivery provides numerous benefits in terms of specialist expertise, cost efficiencies and project management (Allen et al., 2008). However, the limitation of formal agreements is that they focus stakeholder efforts on explicitly agreed tasks, and reduce the likelihood that signatories will seek any other advantages or opportunities

from collaborative efforts (T. Williams, 2005). The SWMG ION reflected these limitations, with formal mechanisms (e.g. legislation or formal agreements) effectively institutionalising the political and economic focuses of interactions among SWMGOC and stakeholders in the SWMG ION.

Tourism and economic event leverage policies have benefitted from an institutionalisation of objectives, policy and strategies (Chalip, 2004; O'Brien & Chalip, 2008). This means interactions among tourism and economic stakeholders are often built up over the long-term and can be activated on a project basis as described in the event and sport network research (Leopkey & Parent, 2013; Olkkonen, 2001). In the case of the SWMG, this institutionalisation of tourism and economic objectives meant that the SWMG was better supported within the tourism portfolio, and relevant stakeholders took responsibility for the development of a tourism leveraging strategy. This reflected a typical situation in which tourism and economic objectives are prioritised over broader event outcomes, such as sport development legacies (Chalip, 2004; Coalter, 2007; Hall, 2001; Hamnett, 2000; MacLeod, 2002; Misener & Mason, 2006).

Although the potential links between sport and tourism are often acknowledged, there is seldom any development of systems and processes to ensure that sport stakeholders are positioned to benefit from sport tourism projects (Weed, 2001, 2003; Weed & Bull, 1997). The absence of a sport development stakeholder with an equivalent charter to Events NSW meant there was no agency positioned to develop policies and coordinate stakeholders to secure sport development legacies and maximise the value to sport systems. Therefore, it was unsurprising that although the bid document, the

Candidature Guidelines, and *Host City Contract* made explicit commitments to sport development legacies, SWMGOC's formal mechanisms focused almost exclusively on the objectives of delivering a successful event in terms of visitor satisfaction and economic impact. This case study suggests that if sport development legacies are to be secured, sport development stakeholders need to be part of the long-term development cycles of event IONs and not just engaged for short-term event delivery (Leopkey & Parent, 2013; Olkkonen, 2001). In addition, there is a need for sport development legacies to be included in formalised agreements between event organising committees and sport development stakeholders.

Mandell (1988) suggests that informal interactions among stakeholders have the potential to have a greater influence on stakeholders than formal interactions, thus providing an opportunity to expand commitment beyond the narrow focus of formal agreements. However, SWMGOC's informal interactions with stakeholders did not encourage the kind of changes necessary in the mainstream structures of sport to secure sport development legacies (see Section 4.2). SWMGOC relied on its formal agreements with sport organisations to elicit outputs from those organisations. In addition, sport development stakeholders perceived SWMGOC to have a limited understanding of the idiosyncrasies of the different sports and the high turnover of SWMGOC staff was not conducive to building working relationships. As a result, opportunities for discussion, information exchange, or organisational learning among stakeholders, which can be provided by informal interactions in an ION (Lane & Lubatkin, 1998; Mandell, 1988), were not realised. These findings highlight there is also a greater need for event organising committees to manage informal interactions

with stakeholders to have greater influence on sport development stakeholders working towards securing sport development legacies.

6.2.4 Centrality and Density

Centrality relates to the proximity of participating organisations to the core of the ION's system of exchanges, and density relates to the extent to which organisations connect directly with each other across the ION (Williams, 2005). In the case of the SWMG, these two variables were interlinked. The SWMG ION was a highly centralised one in which stakeholders' interactions were restricted to interacting with the core of the network (i.e. SWMGOC). In turn, this centralised structure and focus on the successful delivery of the event meant the density of the ION was low. There was a limited need for, or encouragement of, interactions among sport development stakeholders across the SWMG ION.

Highly centralised structures are common in project delivery (Huxham & Vangen, 2000; Provan & Milward, 1995). The coordinating role fulfilled by SWMGOC for event delivery, the formal agreements, and the one-way flow of resources from sport development stakeholders to SWMGOC reflected a highly centralised ION configuration. Figure 19 illustrates the hub-and-spoke configuration of the SWMG ION, where a series of connections emanated from SWMGOC.

Figure 19: ION map of sport development stakeholders in the 12 months leading up the SWMG (2009)
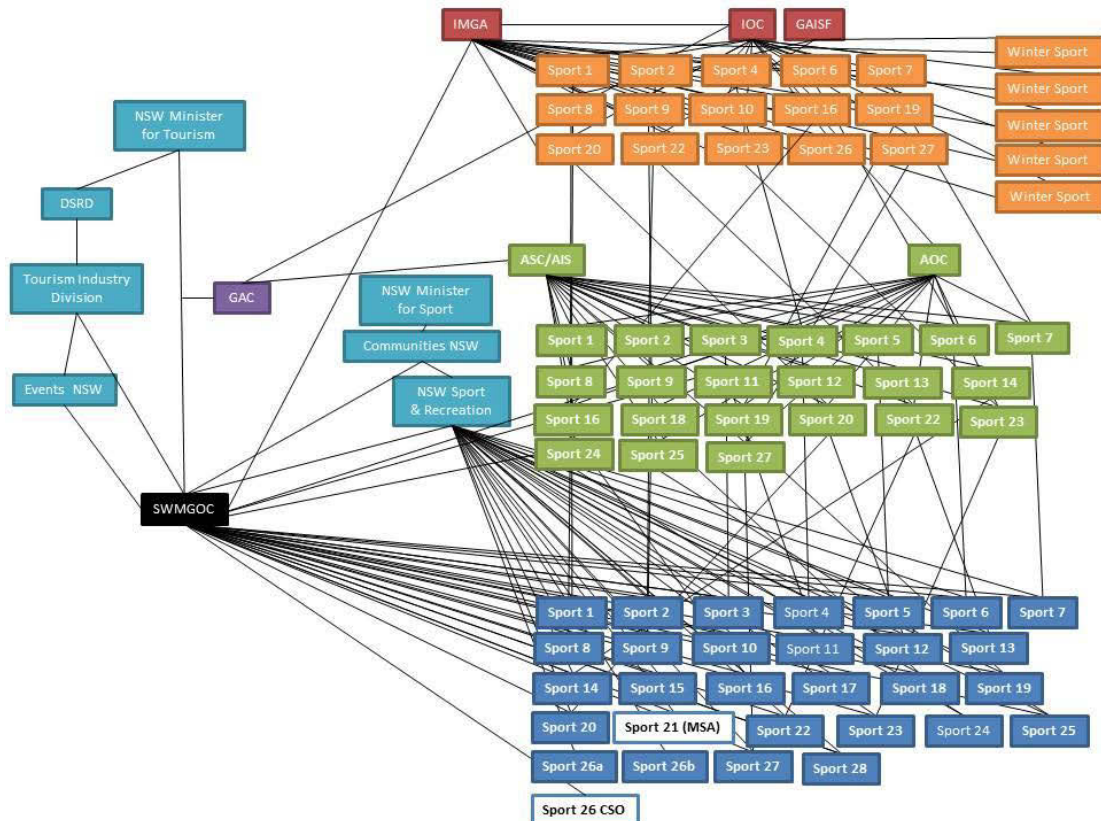
The highly centralised structure and event-centric focus of the SWMG ION meant the event lacked relevance and connection to the mainstream structures of sport. Sport organisations did not invest in the SWMG as an opportunity to promote, develop, and grow participation in sport, and so the potential benefits of harnessing the ION for sport development were not realised (see Section 3.4.2). Instead, the majority of sports organisations perceived efforts to secure legacies for masters sport as an added burden to their already strained resources. Benson (1975) predicts that stakeholders will choose to act, or not, based on perceived threats to their flow of resources in the ION. This was true for the SWMG ION, in which the sport organisations acted to minimise the potential risk to their organisations (e.g. delays in signing sports agreements), rather than acting to capitalise on the opportunity presented by the SWMG. These findings highlight that to secure sport development legacies, IONs

need to be structured in ways that enable participating organisations to interact with multiple organisations and encourage these organisations to see the broader relevance and opportunities presented by a large-scale sport event.

High density IONs are more likely than low density IONs to encourage stakeholder cooperation to attain multiple outcomes (Williams, 2005). Given that the effectiveness of top-down communications through the hierarchies of mainstream sport have been criticised (Hoye, Nicholson, Westerbeek, Smith, & Stewart, 2012), the SWMG presented an opportunity for interactions among organisations within the ION to secure legacies for masters sport. Interactions across an ION encourage discussion, information exchange, and knowledge development amongst stakeholders (B. Gray, 1985; T. Williams, 2005). Diagonal interactions provide opportunities to cut across typical vertical or horizontal structures to find mutually beneficial solutions to organisations typically restricted by horizontal, or vertical, interactions (Torfing et al., 2012). The SWMG presented opportunities for the IMGA to interact directly with the local sport policy makers (i.e. ASC and NSW Sport and Recreation) and providers of sporting opportunities (i.e. NSOs and SSOs). However, the IMGA's interactions within the SWMG ION were limited to formal interactions with SWMGOC, and there were no diagonal interactions with other sport development stakeholders before, during and after the SWMG. Therefore, the utility of the SWMG to connect key stakeholders, encourage discussion, information exchange and organisational learning was not realised due to an absence of cross-ION and diagonal interactions.

In sum, this section has highlighted that a narrow focus on event delivery in a highly centralised and low density ION can result in an event occurring at the periphery of

mainstream sport structures without resulting in meaningful legacies for a target group, such as masters athletes. The next section builds on this discussion of the theme ION Development and Structure by looking at how the coordinators of the SWMG ION acknowledged and addressed the context of sport development in the mainstream structures of sport.

6.3 The coordinators of the SWMG ION did not acknowledge or address the context of sport development

This section discusses the extent to which organisations that participated in the ION sought to understand the context of sport development in the mainstream structures of sport. Acknowledging and understanding the context of an ION is critical to developing an adequate understanding of an issue, assisting in identifying key stakeholders; developing solutions and encouraging stakeholder engagement (Benson, 1975; B. Gray, 1985; Mandell, 1988). This section draws predominantly on the theme 'Context of Sport Development' and relevant literature. First, the sub-theme of Sport Development Priorities is discussed, which considers the priorities in the mainstream sport development systems at the time of the SWMG. Second, the theme Existing Masters Sport Delivery is discussed. This theme considers the different approaches to masters sport evident across participating organisations.

6.3.1 Sport Development Priorities

Government priorities and KPIs drive the objectives and strategies of sport organisations (Cuskelly, 2004; Misener & Doherty, 2009; Shilbury & Kellett, 2011;

Weed, 2001). Previous studies of legacy have found that social and institutional structures surrounding the target for legacy must be congruent with legacy objectives if legacies are to be realised (Bell & Blakey, 2010; Coalter, 2004, 2007; Frawley & Cush, 2011; Hanstad & Skille, 2010; Hindson et al., 1994; Matheson, 2010; Shipway, 2007; SportScotland, 2004; Toohey, 2008, 2010; Veal & Frawley, 2009; Veal et al., 2012; Weed et al., 2009). Coalter (2004) argues that encouraging targeted groups of people to increase their participation in sport without ensuring broader structures are geared towards providing positive sporting opportunties for target groups, represents a supply-side failure where legacies are unlikely to be secured. This scenario was evidenced by the SWMG, in which sport organisations did not invest in masters sport as they did not want to 'take away resources' from youth and elite sport (Sport 10, pers. comm., October 22, 2009).

There was a dearth of government funding for masters sport in the funding period surrounding the SWMG. Additionally, government policies and interactions with sport organisations did not support the event objectives of securing legacies for masters sport. For instance, Sport 1's recounting of advice from the ASC not to focus on the development of social, or non-elite, initiatives demonstrated the ASC's limited commitment to mass sport participation. At the state level, funding arrangements supported ongoing organisational separateness between an SSO and the relevant MSA for the sport. The problem with organisational separateness is that these two organisations conduct the same operations in administering and delivering sport for different groups of participants, representing a duplication of efforts and creating inefficiencies of government funding (Burns, 1992). In addition, this funding

arrangement also meant that the SSO was not required to take responsibility for the delivery of participation opportunities for the broader community.

In line with event leverage literature (Chalip, 2002; Kellett et al., 2008; O'Brien, 2007), these findings highlight that without government support to secure sport development legacies, sport organisations will have limited ability and incentive to invest resources into securing desired legacies. Broader sport development priorities surrounding a large-scale sport event can have unintended consequences for securing desired legacies. Based on this discussion, there is a need for event bid committees and event organising committees to acknowledge and understand sport development contexts and use this understanding to inform bid commitments and legacy plans.

6.3.2 Existing Masters Sport Delivery

Coalter (2004) argues that efforts to increase participation in sport are reliant on opportunities provided in the supply-side of sport. Despite Australia's increasingly ageing population and the specific needs of this population group in terms of motivations and physical abilities, masters sport delivery has remained underdeveloped (Burns, 1992) (see Section 4.4.2). There is a diversity of approaches to masters sport delivery across sport organisations in Australia (Burns, 1992). These approaches range from organisations with integrated strategies for masters sport, through to organisations that have no intention of engaging with masters sport. Almost two decades since Burns (1992) investigation into masters sport in Australia, approaches to masters sport by sport organisations participating in the SWMG ION yielded similar results, summarised in Table 38.

Table 38: Summary of Sport Organisations' Existing Masters Sport Delivery

Existing Masters Sport Delivery	Frequency of Sport Organisations
Specific initiatives for masters sport	8 sport organisations
Masters-specific organisation within SSO	2 sport organisations
Masters-specific club within SSO	1 sport organisation
No targeted initiatives	10 sport organisations
Masters organisations separate from, and independent to, the mainstream sport organisations	3 sport organisations

(Source: summarised from Table 24: Existing Masters Sport Delivery, p.222)

The significance of these diverse approaches to masters sport delivery in the SWMG case study is that legacies for masters sport had the potential to mean different things in different sports. For instance, those organisations that already had initiatives for masters sport would have different goals and resource requirements to secure legacies compared with those sports where the masters sport organisation was separate to the mainstream sport organisation. As the event organising committee did not acknowledge or understand this, there were implications for the identification of relevant stakeholders (see Section 6.2.2) and the achievement of consensus across the ION (discussed in Section 5.4 below).

The theme Existing Approaches to Masters Sport Delivery is also linked to the notion of establishing a baseline to evaluate legacy. Evaluations of legacy are often rendered problematic by the failure to establish baseline measures from which to determine the extent of legacy that has been realised (Brown & Massey, 2001; Hogan & Norton, 2000; London East Research Institute, 2007; Murphy & Bauman, 2007; Veal & Frawley, 2009; Veal et al., 2012; Weed et al., 2009). With no baseline established for the supply-side of sport beyond the snapshot provided in this thesis, it is difficult to determine the influence that the SWMG had on approaches to masters sport delivery by sport organisations both in the short- and longer-term.

In addition, Burns' (1992) study also found that negative stereotypes and unsubstantiated fears of the health risks of older people's participation in sport were inhibitors of masters sport development. There was no evidence to suggest that sports excluded people from participating based on their age. However, some sport organisation representatives did talk about preconditions for masters sport participation, including the need for participants to be physically active already and to have some history of participating in the sport (Sports 5; 14 and 20). It is not clear why these organisations did not recognise the opportunity to modify traditional competitive formats and rules to be more inclusive of older people and promote increased participation in sport.

In sum, this section has highlighted the importance of engaging with the context of an ION to help understand the potential legacies from a large-scale sport event and determine the inhibitors, and facilitators, for securing sport development legacies. Sport development stakeholders must have dedicated resources if they are to direct organisational efforts at securing legacies for a targeted group. In addition, a one-size fits-all approach to legacy may be ineffective if sport organisations demonstrate a diversity of approaches to the targeted area of sport development. This engagement with context will also help event organisers and participating organisations to determine if sport development legacies have been secured. The following section builds on this discussion of the theme Context of Sport Development by looking at how organisations participating in the SWMG ION conceptualised and operationalised sport development legacies.

6.4 The ION did not achieve normative consensus regarding legacies for masters sport

Benson (1975) highlighted the presence of normative consensus as a key requisite for establishing an effective ION. Normative consensus relates to agreements amongst participating organisations about the nature of the issue to be addressed (i.e. Domain Consensus) and the appropriate means by which to address it (i.e. Ideological Consensus) (Benson, 1975). The SWMG ION demonstrated an absence of normative consensus regarding both the nature of the issue and the means by which to address it. This section draws predominantly on the theme 'Legacy Consensus' and relevant literature to explore what legacies to masters sport meant to the stakeholders, how these legacies could be secured, and who was responsible for these processes. First, the sub-theme Legacy Visions is discussed in terms of the diversity of conceptualisations of legacy evident across the stakeholders, and the influence this had on achieving Domain Consensus. Second, the sub-theme Opportunities is discussed in terms of how stakeholders considered the event offered opportunities to secure legacies to masters sport and the influence this had on achieving Ideological Consensus. Third, the sub-theme Responsibility is discussed regarding the issues related to stakeholders taking responsibility for securing legacies for masters sport in light of an absence of Domain and Ideological Consensus in the SWMG ION.

6.4.1 Legacy Visions

Legacy Visions are what the stakeholders participating in the ION considered desirable legacies from the SWMG. A clear vision established through collective discussion is critical to encouraging effective collaboration and cooperation (Benson,

1975; B. Gray, 1985; Kellett et al., 2008). This section discusses the diversity of conceptualisations of legacy by stakeholders and outlines the influence this diversity had on achieving Benson's (1975) Domain Consensus. There are two categories of Legacy Visions, increased participation and enhanced engagement. A summary of the stakeholders' visions of legacy is provided in Table 39. The first column in the table lists the different ways that stakeholders conceptualised legacy. A tick (✓) indicates that a stakeholder had that legacy vision, a cross (✗) indicates they did not.

Table 39: Legacy Visions across the SWMG ION

Legacy Visions	NSW Major Events Board	SWMGOC	IMGA	NSW Sport and Recreation	Sport Orgs
Increased Participation					
Increase participation in sport and healthy lifestyles	✓	✓	✓	✗	✗
Increase the membership of local sports clubs	✗	✗	✗	✓	✓
Enhanced Engagement					
Raise the profile and interest for masters sport	✗	✗	✓	✗	✗
Encourage discussion about masters sport and information exchange for sports delivery	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗
Achieve a set number of sports adopting Masters-specific rules	✗	✓	✗	✗	✗

Increased Participation

Participation legacies are typically expected around large-scale sport events (Baade & Dye, 1990; Brown & Massey, 2001; Faber Maunsel, 2004; Gratton et al., 2005; Sotiriadou et al., 2008). Therefore, it is unsurprising that this sub-theme was present in the SWMG ION. However, the bid promise of achieving 'significant increases in

participation by mature age athletes' (NSW Major Events Board, 2003, Section I, p.1), was somewhat ambiguous. This broad statement was in line with criticisms in the literature that there is often little conceptual clarity as to what participation legacies refer to (Brown & Massey, 2001; Coalter, 2007; de Moragas et al., 2003; EdComs, 2007; Essex & Chalkley, 2003; Girginov & Hills, 2008; Gratton & Preuss, 2008; London East Research Institute, 2007; Matheson, 2010; Preuss, 2007).

Stakeholder discussions of legacy reflected two main conceptualisations: 1) a general notion of increasing participation in sport and healthy lifestyles (discussed by NSW Major Events Board; SWMGOC and IMGA), and 2) increasing membership of sports clubs (discussed by NSW Sport and Recreation and the Sport Organisations). In its *Final Report*, SWMGOC claimed that the event 'attracted new people to masters sport and also inspired many others to get active' (SWMGOC, 2010, p.9). However, no evidence was collected by SWMGOC to substantiate these claims, and reflected the issue that Weed et al. (2009) highlighted, whereby the ambiugous legacy notions of host governments enable claims for overall sport legacy even when there is no evidence of actual participation increases. These claims are typical of a celebratory, non-critical style of report that relies on anecdotal evidence to substantiate claims about the success of an event (Cashman, 2006; Kasimati, 2003; MacAloon, 2008; Matheson, 2010; Preuss, 2007; Veal et al., 2012; Weed et al., 2009). Only two sport representatives in this thesis reported increases in the memberships of their sports (Sport 5 and 21). As such, this thesis highlights the disparities of legacy visions across the SWMG ION, and also issues with the evaluation of the event in terms of securing sport development legacies.

This disparity of conceptualisations by stakeholders in the SWMG ION was not conducive to encouraging coordination and cooperation among stakeholders to secure legacies. To establish clear legacy visions, organisations participating in an ION need to establish Domain Consensus (Benson, 1975). Benson (1975) suggests that to achieve agreement by all organisations over the scope of activities an ION will address, collective discussion among stakeholders is required. However, there was limited negotiation among stakeholders to try to align the visions of 'increasing participation in sport and healthy lifestyles', and 'increasing membership of local sports clubs'. Although the NSW Major Events Board, as a representative of the state government could see the connection between healthy lifestyle objectives and sport participation, the sport organisations' activities were tied to the sport development-focused KPIs of NSW Sport and Recreation funding. As discussed in Section 5.3.1, state government funding was not conducive to securing the types of legacies included in the bid document, highlighting the potential for event objectives to contradict the strategic objectives of government. The lack of collective discussion meant there was limited opportunity to raise this issue and work towards a solution (B. Gray, 1985; Kraatz, 1998)

Enhanced Engagement

Coalter (2004) argues that investment and development of the supply-side of sport, in terms of organisational capacity, is critical to ensuring that increased interest in sports can be capitalised on at the time of a large-scale sport event. Supply-side developments in sport are often not adequately considered in the conceptualisation of sport development legacies (Coalter, 2004; Girginov & Hills, 2008, 2009). Thus, it was reassuring to see the SWMG bid document include a commitment to encouraging sport organisations and government agencies to enhance their engagement with

masters sport development and improve the delivery of masters sport (NSW Major Events Board, 2003). However, as illustrated in Table 38, only the NSW Major Events Board, SWMGOC, and the IMGA discussed ideas related to the sub-theme of Enhanced Engagement. The relevant government agency, NSW Sport and Recreation, and the sport organisations did not discuss the need for, or their role in, enhancing engagement with masters sport delivery. The absence of any consideration by sport organisations regarding masters sport development from the SWMG was reflected in the subsequent lack of legacies secured. Only six sport organisations secured supply-side legacies for masters sport; no change was undertaken by the other 17 sport organisations that participated in the research (see Table 31).

Mandell (1988) argues that when the activities in an ION are imposed, or top-down, they may not be meaningful at the operational level. The sub-theme of Enhanced Engagement reflected these challenges with the bid committee and event organising committee committing to legacy visions that were reliant on the efforts of other key stakeholders (i.e. government agencies and sport organisations). Without the collective discussion among stakeholders (Benson, 1975) referred to above, commitments to supply-side legacies were superficial. This superficiality was to the detriment of securing legacies for masters sport.

In sum, this discussion of the sub-theme Legacy Visions demonstrates that top-down visions of sport development legacy and a lack of collective discussion are not conducive to establishing Domain Consensus. Considering that Domain Consensus is a critical requirement for an effective ION (Benson, 1975), the lack of collective discussion surrounding the notion of legacy was a major flaw in the SWMG ION. The

following section builds on this discussion and highlights the flow-on effect on the cooperation and collaboration in an ION when Domain Consensus is not achieved.

6.4.2 Opportunities

The sub-theme 'Opportunities' is discussed here in terms of how stakeholders participating in the ION considered the SWMG could be leveraged to secure legacies for masters sport. Stakeholders in the SWMG ION identified two main aspects of the SWMG that could be capitalised on to secure legacies: event participants and event media. The varied perceptions that stakeholders had regarding these opportunities, and the influence this had on achieving Benson's (1975) Ideological Consensus in the ION will be discussed. A summary of the opportunities identified by each of the key stakeholders is included in Table 40. The first column lists the different ways the Opportunities were conceptualised. A tick (✓) indicates that a stakeholder identified the opportunity, a cross (✗) indicates they did not.

Table 40: Opportunities Identified across the SWMG ION

Legacy Visions	NSW Major Events Board	SWMGOC	IMGA	NSW Sport and Recreation	Sport Orgs
Event Participants					
Mass participation nature of the event complements physical activity and sport participation objectives	✓	✓	✓	✗	**Sports 5 and 21 only**
Due to the disconnect from the traditional structures of sport, mass participation nature of the event not seen as an opportunity to increase membership in sports	✗	✗	✗	✓	✓
Event Media					
Event media an opportunity to be leveraged to increase masters participation in sport	✓	✓	✓	✓ Did not agree with methods of SWMGOC	✓ Did not agree with methods of SWMGOC

Event Participants

As a mass participation event, the SWMG represented the type of event considered likely to bring about increases in physical activity and sport participation, particularly by those not already participating (Dickson et al., 2009; Murphy & Bauman, 2007; Weed et al., 2009). However, as predicted by Benson (1975), with no clearly defined objective as to what increased participation meant as a legacy across the SWMG ION (see Section 5.4.1), there was a limited foundation for achieving ideological consensus in the ION. An absence of collective discussion meant that stakeholder perceptions of opportunities were not aligned. Those responsible for the event bid and event organising argued that the mass participation nature of the event was an opportunity to secure increases in physical activity and sport participation. In contrast, those best placed to secure legacies for sport (government agencies and sport organisations) perceived the mass participation nature of the event as being

disconnected from traditional structures of sport, and therefore did not see any opportunities for increasing membership in sports. In summary, an absence of collective discussion on the potential opportunities and possible actions to leverage a mass participation event led to limited agreement among stakeholders, and little incentive for stakeholders to coordinate and cooperate.

There was limited consideration by stakeholders participating in the ION regarding how the opportunity of Event Participants should be capitalised on to secure increases in participation.

Consequently, the sport organisations approached event registrations differently. In addition, there were limited and ad hoc approaches by sport organisations encouraging event participants to continue their participation in sport after the SWMG. Three main approaches to event registration were identified (see Table 33: Summary of Entry Requirements3):

1. Implementing minimum age requirements, in line with the Sport For All philosophy of the IMGA (75% of sports 18 out of 24);

2. Requiring participants to pre-qualify for participation at the SWMG (8% of sports or 2 out of 24); and

3. Requiring participants to be members of a recognised club (17% of sports or 4 out of 24).

The first approach of implementing only the minimum age requirement was in line with the Sport For All philosophy of the event. By placing no restrictions on participants' skill level or ability, there was the potential for non-participants to participate in the event, and be encouraged to continue their ongoing participation

(Dickson et al., 2009; Weed et al., 2009). However, only two sport organisations attempted to capitalise on the event participants in this way – Sport 5 and Sport 21. Sport 5 matched interested participants to local clubs to train for the event. Sport 21 gathered participant details during the event to build a database of participants to contact and invite post-event to join a local sport club. As a result of these initiatives, both Sport 5 and Sport 21 reported attracting new membership in their sports.

In contrast, the sports that required participants to pre-qualify, or to already be members of clubs limited the potential reach of their sports. This was because they did not actively recruit new members in the lead up to the SWMG. Therefore, requirements for pre-qualification and membership restricted participation in the SWMG to existing members and participants. Consequently, the potential for these sports to secure a legacy of increased participation (defined by the sports as increased membership of clubs), was quite low. These findings demonstrated that where appropriate strategies are developed, positive participation legacies could be realised.

Event Media

Event media provides a key opportunity because it can be leveraged to communicate desired messages for tourism and social outcomes (O'Brien & Chalip, 2008). Sport event media can also play a role in raising the profile of sports, and contribute to raising interest and/or active participation in sport (Baade & Dye, 1990; Bell & Blakey, 2010; Brown & Massey, 2001; Coalter, 2004; Faber Maunsel, 2004; Frawley & Cush, 2011; Gratton et al., 2005; Hanstad & Skille, 2010; Sotiriadou et al., 2008; SportScotland, 2004). The majority of stakeholders recognised event media could be leveraged to increase masters participation in sport. However, in the absence of a

collective discussion about this opportunity, stakeholders did not agree with the way in which the event organising committee managed the event media.

Demonstration effects and role modelling effects of media are not always positive, and in some cases can be inconsequential (EdComs, 2007; Weed et al., 2009). For instance, when a person perceives a significant difference between themselves and a successful athlete, they may be less likely to be motivated to pursue an activity (Weed et al., 2009). Stakeholder concerns reflected these notions of inconsequential effects, as they argued that the focus of the media on the oldest competitor, the youngest competitor, or some other extreme story, was not representative of the general participation base of masters sport. While these stories attracted significant media coverage and helped to promote the SWMG, stakeholders were concerned that the content of stories was not conducive to encouraging increased interest and participation in sport by masters-aged people. SWMGOC's emphasis on the promotion of the SWMG to attract registrations in the event marginalised the promotion of ongoing post-event participation in sport by masters-aged participants. This is because more effort went into encouraging people to register in the one-off event than into promoting lifelong participation in sport. Consistent with previous studies (Chalip, 2004; Coalter, 2007; Hall, 2001; Hamnett, 2000; MacLeod, 2002; Misener & Mason, 2006), these findings highlight that when event media strategies emphasise tourism and economic objectives, it is to the detriment of the other social objectives that can be realised through a sport event, such as sport development objectives.

In sum, this discussion of Opportunities demonstrates that an absence of clear vision (i.e. Domain Consensus) and lack of collective discussion regarding the leverageable opportunities of an event meant there was an absence of Ideological Consensus across the SWMG ION. The absence of Domain and Ideological Consensus indicates there was no Normative Consensus as a basis to encouraging collaborative and cooperative interactions in the ION to secure sport development legacies. The following section builds on this discussion and highlights the implications for responsibility in an ION when there is no Normative Consensus achieved.

6.4.3 Responsibilities

Smith and Fox (2007) argue that stakeholders need to be coordinated if positive legacies are to be secured, but there is limited consensus as to who should be responsible for this coordination (Allen et al., 2008; Chalip & Leyns, 2002; Kellett et al., 2008; O'Brien, 2005, 2006; Smith & Fox, 2007). It has been argued that it is impractical for an event organising body to be wholly responsible for securing legacies to masters sport (Allen et al., 2008; O'Brien, 2005). SWMGOC was the sole agency acting on behalf of the government and there was no other authority that had been delegated responsibility for securing legacy. Therefore, SWMGOC had at least some role to play in terms of championing sport development legacies (Coalter, 2004).

In practice, the SWMGOC representatives interviewed did not acknowledge that they were responsible for securing legacies, although they could see they had a role as conduits between stakeholders who could secure legacies. While SWMGOC staff acknowledged this role, the process was not formalised, and there was no evidence to

indicate that other organisations were aware of their roles or responsibilities for legacy. Consequently, no other stakeholder acknowledged responsibility, or a particular role, to secure legacies for masters sport. Consistent with Benson's (1975) arguments, these findings show that an absence of collective discussion to achieve normative consensus means stakeholders will not have any incentive to assume the responsibility required to develop policies, processes and practices to secure legacies for masters sport.

This discussion of Legacy 'Consensus' has highlighted the lack of normative consensus achieved across the SWMG ION, and the flow-on effects for collaboration and cooperation to secure sport development legacies has been alluded to. The following section highlights these gaps in conceptualisation of visions and opportunities for sport development legacies.

6.4.4 Gaps in the conceptualisation of visions and opportunities for sport development legacies

As predicted in the ION literature, without the establishment of Domain Consensus there was a failure to establish a purposive whole (Benson, 1975; B. Gray, 1985), and consequently there were gaps in the conceptualisation of processes for sport development legacies. O'Brien and Chalip's (2008) model for social event leverage is adapted in Figure 20 to map out the key findings from Sections 5.4.1 and 5.4.2 regarding processes discussed by stakeholders, and to highlight the gaps in the conceptualisation of processes for sport development legacies. To start with, O'Brien and Chalip's (2008) notion of liminality generated through an event is considered the leverageable resource, meaning that the sociability and celebration surrounding an

event creates an environment conducive to raising awareness and setting social agendas (such as masters sport development). Next, the Opportunities identified were the Event Participants and the Event Media. The Strategic Objectives discussed centred on Increasing Participation and Enhancing Engagement. Finally, the Means, or processes, which interviewees attempted, or did not attempt, to leverage, have been listed.

Figure 20: Gaps in the Process of Securing Sport Development Legacies
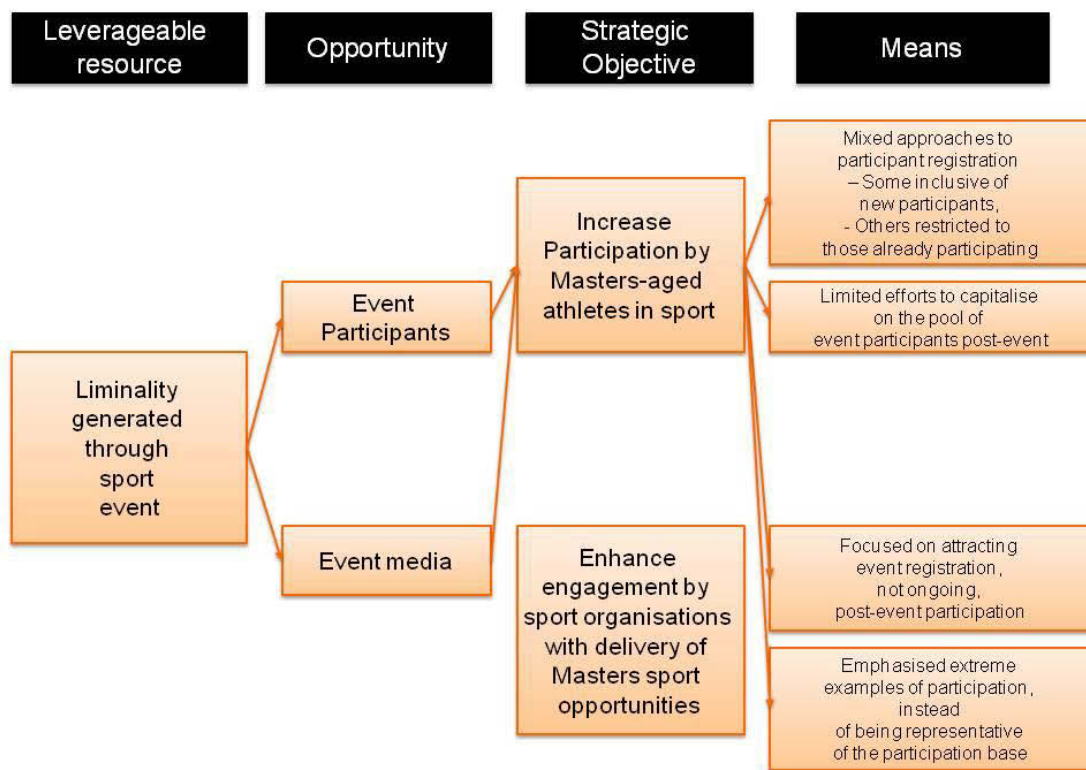
(Source: Adapted from O'Brien & Chalip, 2008)

The links between the opportunity, strategic objective and means in Figure 20 provide insights into the breakdown of the process. It was at the point of Strategic Objectives that the schema breaks down. This is because there was a lack of collective discussion to achieve consensus surrounding each objectives (i.e. no consensus over the

definition of 'participation' and enhanced engagement was only discussed by event bid committee and event organising committee). In addition, the enhanced engagement objective was not connected to any of the Opportunities or Means that were discussed. As such, the last point in the schema, Means, was linked exclusively to the Strategic Objective of Increasing Participation. As indicated in the cells, the limited and ad hoc pursuit of the means demonstrated a greater potential for the development of best practices in securing sport development legacies. Coalter (2004) argues that there must be investment in the supply side of sport to guarantee the capacity to cater for increases in participation (i.e. the demand-side of sport). However, given the dearth of stakeholder discussion as to how supply-side legacies (i.e. Enhanced Engagement) would be achieved, the potential for the SWMG to secure legacies for masters sport was limited.

Findings from the SWMG case study highlight the critical importance of collectively discussing and agreeing on the nature of an issue (i.e. ideological consensus) and how that issue should be addressed (i.e. ideological consensus) to establish normative consensus as a basis for collaboration and cooperation in an ION. The absence of collective discussion regarding the desired legacies from the SWMG had flow-on effects in terms of how the event was perceived and how stakeholders sought to leverage the event, if they did so at all. These findings demonstrate that if stakeholders are engaged and a process is mapped out, sport development legacies can be secured from large-scale sport events. However, as this section demonstrates, where collective discussion does not occur, breakdowns in the schema are possible, and this will limit the potential value of a large-scale sport event to its host community.

6.5 Summary

This chapter has discussed the findings in relation to the literature and in response to the research objectives. The discussion of 'ION Development and Structure' highlights that the primary objective of the SWMG ION was to deliver a successful event and this objective drove the development and structure of the ION and the interactions among stakeholders. Such a configuration was found to be suitable for the short-term goal of delivering a defined project, but not suitable for securing longer-term and less clearly defined sport development objectives.

The discussion of 'Context of Sport Development' highlights that those stakeholders who committed to securing legacies to masters sport did not seek to understand the existing context of sport development or identify factors that could facilitate or inhibit the securing of sport development legacies. The sport development priorities of government, combined with the varied approaches by sport organisations to masters sport delivery indicated a context that was not supportive of securing legacies for masters sport. Importantly, these findings demonstrate that without understanding and acknowledging the sport development context, normative consensus across the SWMG ION was more difficult to achieve.

The discussion of 'Legacy Consensus' highlights the absence of normative consensus regarding what legacies for masters sport meant, how the SWMG could be leveraged to realise these visions, and who should be responsible for securing legacies to masters sport. There were no attempts to collectively define legacy, and consequently, legacy meant different things to different stakeholders. There was limited clarity regarding how large-scale sport events should be used to increase participation and stakeholders did not have an adequate understanding of how to leverage a large-scale

sport event to enhance engagement by sport agencies and sport organisations in targeted areas of sport development. An application of the event leverage framework helped to illustrate these gaps in conceptualisation. Further, stakeholders failed to take responsibility for securing legacy, which was unsurprising given the lack of clarity about legacy visions and methods to secure them.

Figure 21 illustrates the influence of the development and structure of an ION and the sport development context on establishing normative consensus. Normative consensus for sport development legacies is required to provide a basis for collaboration and cooperation in a project ION. To establish normative consensus for sport development, the SWMG case study demonstrates that an ION needs to be developed and structured to secure sport development legacies and the sport development context must be engaged with, understood and addressed.

Figure 21: Relationship between ION Development and Structure, Sport Development Context and Normative Consensus for Legacy

Overall, the SWMG demonstrates that if appropriate stakeholders are not adequately engaged, if the context of targeted legacies is not understood and addressed, and if a process is not mapped out, sport development legacies will not be be secured from large-scale sport events. However, the absence of these steps in the SWMG ION led to limited and ad hoc legacies. The case study provides important learnings to inform theory, policy and practice. These contributions and implications are outlined in the following Chapter 7 Conclusion.

Chapter 7: Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

This chapter concludes the thesis. First, an overview of the case study and key findings in relation to the research objectives are presented. Second, the theoretical contributions of this thesis are highlighted. Particular attention is paid to the contribution of the knowledge made to the area of sport development legacies from large-scale sport events, and to the enhanced understanding of event leverage and event legacy through the application of Inter-organisational Network (ION) Theory. Third, the practical implications from the research for policymaking and industry application are provided. Fourth, the limitations of this thesis are addressed. Last, recommendations for future research are outlined.

7.2 Overview of the Case Study and Key Findings

This thesis set out to address the central research question:

How do the interorganisational networks (IONs) associated with a large-scale sport event influence sport development legacies?

To address this question, three subsidiary research objectives guided the research:

1. Understand the sport development stakeholders that might form an ION to secure sport development legacies from a large-scale sport event;

2. Identify factors that influence relevant sport development stakeholder's efforts towards securing sport development legacies ; and

3. Determine how the relevant of sport development stakeholders conceptualise and operationalise sport development legacies.

A qualitative case study of the SWMG was conducted (see Chapter 4) to empirically explore how the ION of a large-scale sport event influenced sport development legacies.

The research design drew on three types of qualitative data to triangulate the data sources and inform the case study. The data sources included: documents; semi-structured interviews with key stakeholders in the SWMG ION; and event observation. Stakeholders included the event bid committee (NSW Major Events Board), the event organising committee (SWMGOC), the event governing body (IMGA), the state sport agency (NSW Sport and Recreation), the state event agency (Events NSW), the contracted sport organisations, and an overarching government department (Communities NSW). All forms of data were systematically organised using NVivo software. Data analysis reflected a hybrid inductive/deductive model (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006; Orton, 1997), where ION Theory provided a framework of concepts to help understand the research problem of the SWMG ION (i.e. deductive reasoning), and at the same time, the researcher searched for themes that emerged through the data specific to the SWMG ION context (i.e. inductive reasoning). The data analysis resulted in three main themes: 1) ION Development and Structure; 2) Context of Sport Development; and 3) Legacy 'Consensus' (see Chapter 5).

Although securing legacies for masters sport was committed to in the bid document and political documents, it was found that the stakeholders in the ION engaged in limited coordination and cooperative interactions towards these legacy goals. As demonstrated in Chapter 6, the concepts of legacy established in mega-event settings were transferable to the SWMG case study, helped to highlight valuable insights into the complexity of leveraging a sport events of any size and scale to secure sport development legacies. The key findings are summarised below in relation to each of the research objectives.

7.2.1 Understand the sport development stakeholders that might form an ION to secure sport development legacies from a large-scale sport event

The SWMG case study provided insights into why and how specific stakeholders, including those relevant to sport development, came together to deliver an event. While the case study demonstrated the effective development of an ION for event delivery, the findings highlighted the same ION was not conducive to securing sport development legacies. The event delivery ION included sport development stakeholders that may have been anticipated to mobilise in some way and secure the legacies for masters sport discussed in the bid document and political rhetoric surrounding the event. However, no such ION developed or emerged to secure legacies for masters sport for the reasons outlined in the discussion.

The case study demonstrated a series of developmental and structural factors that constrained the broader potential of the event delivery ION. In terms of ION development, politicised hallmark decision-making processes (Hiller, 1998; Roche,

1994; Veal, 2002) were demonstrated through legacies for masters sport being an 'emotional' objective to gain host city support for the SWMG (Government 2). This political use of sport development legacies meant there was a lack of political will and commitment for sport development legacies from the outset of the event concept. The low priority of sport development legacies also meant those organisations coordinating stakeholders for the delivery of the SWMG were not motivated to acknowledge and/or understand the complexity of sport systems and challenges in securing sport development legacies from a large-scale sport event. The event organising committee did not prioritise sport development legacy as it was not considered to be a core, or peripheral, organisational objective. Consequently, engagement of sport development stakeholders was focused on their utility for the delivery of a sport event, not for their potential to secure sport development legacies. In addition, stakeholders in positions of power and influence (e.g. government agencies that fund sport development priorities) had low relevance to the SWMG ION coordinators, and were not engaged for the broader purposes of securing sport development legacies.

In terms of the structure of the ION, there was an emphasis on formal contracts to manage the deliverables of stakeholders in the SWMG ION. While this approach is characteristic of project networks (Hellgren & Stjernberg, 1995; Leopkey & Parent, 2013; Olkkonen, 2001; Stokes, 2007; T. Williams, 2005), it focuses stakeholder efforts on stated objectives (T. Williams, 2005), and is not conducive to encouraging stakeholders to see broader potentialities of IONs. As there was nothing explicit in stakeholder agreements to indicate to sport development stakeholders that they had roles or responsibilities in securing legacies for masters sport, the formal contracts did

not encourage the development/emergence of a separate, but related ION focused on securing sport development legacies.

One way in which this limitation of formal contracts may have been addressed is through informal interactions, which are considered to be more influential than formal interactions in shaping stakeholder interactions and focusing efforts (Mandell, 1988). However, through in-depth interviews it became evident that there was also nothing discussed in informal interactions to indicate to sport development stakeholders the potential to capitalise on the SWMG and secure legacies for masters sport. Similarly, the hub-and-spoke configuration of the ION limited interactions among ION participants, with sport development stakeholders interacting directly with the event organising committee and having little interaction with other stakeholders in the ION. This configuration meant the potential for collective discussion whereby participating organisations may be encouraged to focus their efforts in areas that have previously been ignored and areas of new developments (B. Gray, 1985; Kraatz, 1998) was not facilitated. Cross-ION or diagonal interactions in an ION offer valuable opportunities to overcome limitations of vertical or horizontal distinctions between organisations (Torfing et al., 2012). Such interactions would have been beneficial for advocates of masters sport (i.e. the IMGA) to interact with local sport agencies and sport organisations to raise awareness of the importance of, and potential for, securing legacies for masters sport.

Overall, the SWMG case study demonstrated that an ION focused on event delivery is unlikely to have positive influences on securing sport development legacies. Where the activities of an ION focus the efforts of sport development stakeholders on event

delivery it is likely that their attention will be drawn to short-term event delivery goals, with limited consideration given to the long-term opportunities presented by such a large-scale event. The SWMG ION illustrated that when a large-scale sport event is developed at the periphery of the mainstream sport system, there is a risk that sport development stakeholders will see the event as an additional commitment outside of the day-to-day activities of their organisations, rather than leveraging an opportunity and embedding legacy objectives in their strategic plans. For these reasons, where sport development legacies are desired, the event bid committee, event organising committee and relevant policy makers (e.g. government agencies for sport) have a role to play in facilitating the development/emergence of a separate, but related ION focused on securing sport development legacies. Such efforts are needed to ensure sport development stakeholders identify broader potentialities of events and work together to secure meaningful legacies.

7.2.2 Identify factors that influence relevant sport development stakeholder's efforts towards securing sport development legacies

Two main contextual factors were identified that had critical influences on the inclination of sport development stakeholders to coordinate and cooperate to secure sport development legacies. These were the sport development priorities of relevant governments and the existing approaches to masters sport by participating NSOs and SSOs. The superficial commitment to securing legacies for masters sport (discussed above) had flow-on effects whereby the event bid committee, event organising committee and relevant policy makers did not engage with the context of masters sport. This was problematic because it meant the instigators of the SWMG ION did

not understand the fundamental shifts required for mainstream sport to be inclusive of masters-age athletes, and secure legacies for masters sport from the SWMG.

As masters sport development was not a strategic priority of the state or federal governments in the lead up to the SWMG, there was no funding provided by governments to sport organisations to develop the area of masters sport. Consequently, sport organisations had little reason to coordinate or cooperate to secure legacies for masters sport as this would have involved shifting resources from other priority areas, including youth and elite sport (Shilbury & Kellett, 2011). In addition, there was a diversity of existing approaches to the governance and operations of masters sport across the sport organisations involved with the SWMG and some less than positive perceptions of masters sport participation held by sport organisation representatives (see Section 5.3.2). As a result, the varying levels of engagement with masters sport by the sport organisations meant that there could be no one-size fits-all approach to securing legacies for masters sport. However, the event bid committee, event organising committee and other relevant policy makers did not understand this diversity and its influence on securing legacies for masters sport, in terms of what legacy might mean, or what resources and/or developments might be needed to secure the desired legacies.

The literature has argued that to secure sport development legacies, large-scale sport events need to be integrated into broader sport development plans (Bell & Blakey, 2010; Coalter, 2004, 2007; Frawley & Cush, 2011; Hanstad & Skille, 2010; Hindson et al., 1994; Matheson, 2010; Shipway, 2007; SportScotland, 2004; Toohey, 2008, 2010; Veal & Frawley, 2009; Veal et al., 2012; Weed et al., 2009). This thesis

provides empirical support for these arguments by highlighting that when the legacy goals of an event are incongruent with existing practices and priorities, NSOs and SSOs will have limited impetus to work collaboratively and cooperatively to secure desired sport development legacies. Accordingly, if host governments seek to secure sport development legacies, an understanding of the existing structures of sport should inform the bidding, planning, and evaluation of large-scale sport events.

7.2.3 Determine how the relevant of sport development stakeholders conceptualise and operationalise sport development legacies

The conceptualisations of sport development legacy by stakeholders in the SWMG ION were similar to the types of legacies outlined in Chapter 2, with two broad themes of Increased Participation and Enhanced Engagement (see Section 5.4.1). However, stakeholders conceptualised these notions quite differently, meaning there was no agreement regarding the nature of the desired objectives, or what Benson (1975) calls Domain Consensus. The SWMG case study importantly highlighted that an absence of Domain Consensus regarding sport development legacy in an ION of sport development stakeholders will have negative flow-on effects for securing legacies. The lack of Domain Consensus is likely to affect how stakeholders perceive opportunities to leverage an event, and whether or not they take responsibility for such initiatives.

In terms of conceptualising legacies of Increased Participation, there was a lack of conceptual clarity as to the type of increases in participation referred to. This is consistent with the literature (Brown & Massey, 2001; Coalter, 2007; de Moragas et al., 2003; EdComs, 2007; Essex & Chalkley, 2003; Girginov & Hills, 2008; Gratton

& Preuss, 2008; London East Research Institute, 2007; Matheson, 2010; Preuss, 2007). Divergent stakeholder visions further complicated this lack of clarity. For instance, a general notion of increasing participation in sport and healthy lifestyles (discussed by NSW Major Events Board; SWMGOC and IMGA), was not the same as the more specific notion of increasing membership of local sports clubs (discussed by NSW Sport and Recreation and the Sport Organisations). An absence of collective discussion across the SWMG ION meant this divergence was not addressed. There was no negotiation among stakeholders to develop a vision that best achieved the objectives of each of the stakeholders. This was particularly problematic from the point of view of the sport development stakeholders whose main aim is to increase membership numbers in organised sport. They are not funded to secure the kind of physical activity objectives discussed by SWMGOC. As such, this divergence of visions acted as an inhibitor to encouraging collaborative and cooperative efforts by stakeholders towards a shared understanding of increased participation.

As predicted by Benson (1975), the lack of domain consensus regarding increased participation was matched by a lack of agreement as to how the SWMG should be leveraged to secure this legacy (i.e. ideological consensus). Stakeholders all identified event participants and event media as opportunities to be leveraged. However, there were differences of opinion concerning how these opportunities should be capitalised on. In this instance, the SWMG case study demonstrated the critical need for ION coordinators to undertake collective discussion with stakeholders participating in IONs to develop a shared understanding of legacy goals and processes to guide stakeholder efforts.

In terms of the Enhanced Engagement legacy, the event governing body, event bid committee and event organising committee discussed the enhanced engagement by sport organisations with masters sport as a desirable legacy. Given the limited development and low priority of masters sport outlined in this thesis, the vision to enhance engagement by sport organisations with the delivery of masters sport opportunities was fundamental to securing sport development legacies (Burns, 1992). This is because the lack of participation legacies secured through large-scale sport events is typically due to supply-side failures in the sport system (Frawley & Cush, 2011; Hanstad & Skille, 2010; Hindson et al., 1994; SportScotland, 2004).

Coalter (2004) argues sport organisations need to be prepared to benefit from the raised profile of sport generated by a large-scale sport event to cater for and encourage increased demand in participation. This requires investments and developments across areas of facilities, opportunities to participate, volunteers and officials, community engagement and skill development programs, to name a few. However, there was limited evidence to indicate that these ideas were discussed with the relevant sport agencies or sport organisations, thus reflecting a lack of Domain Consensus regarding the enhanced engagement legacy. Without communication across the SWMG ION regarding the importance of enhancing engagement with masters sport, stakeholders lacked opportunities to interact, exchange ideas and gain knowledge that may have led to processes being put in place to secure legacies (Hudson, 2004). This disconnect of the enhanced engagement legacy from key stakeholders was a substantial obstacle for securing sport development legacies from the SWMG.

Overall, the absence of domain and ideological consensus for sport development legacy meant stakeholders did not acknowledge their individual, or shared, responsibilities for securing legacies for masters sport. SWMGOC representatives did not acknowledge the concept of an ION regarding legacies and denied their organisation had a responsibility to secure legacies beyond connecting other organisations that were better suited to do so. While the position of SWMGOC representatives may be justified on the grounds of impracticality due to the short lifespan of event organising committees, SWMGOC did not delegate responsibility to any other organisation to be responsible for coordinating efforts. In addition, the sport agency and the majority of the sport organisations involved did not assume responsibility for securing legacies for masters sport. This was unsurprising given these stakeholders did not see the relevance of the event to their strategic plans and day-to-day operations.

7.3   Theoretical Contribution

This section outlines the main theoretical contributions of this thesis, which are:

1. ION Theory is a useful theoretical framework for investigating large-scale sport events and sport development legacies;

2. IONs achieve what they set out to achieve;

3. Event leverage for sport development legacies is different; and

4. A proposed Model to Leverage an Event for Sport Development Legacies.

Each of these contributions are described below.

7.3.1 ION Theory is a useful theoretical framework for investigating large-scale sport events and sport development legacies

Research has provided valuable insights into the identification of stakeholders in an ION (Leopkey & Parent, 2013; Parent, 2012; Parent et al., 2013), but there has been limited theoretical development regarding how these relationships and interactions influence the securing of broader event objectives, such as sport development legacies (Chalip, 2004; O'Brien, 2005, 2006). This thesis responded to O'Brien's (2005, 2006) suggestion that investigation into the influence of IONs of large-scale sport events may provide valuable insights as to the inhibitors and facilitators of effective event leveraging. Interorganisational Network Theory (ION Theory) (Benson, 1975) was used to investigate the impacts that an ION has on securing sport development legacies.

The application of ION Theory to the SWMG ION encouraged the researcher to consider outcomes in collaborative scenarios as being subject to a series of interactions, interdependencies and external operating environments (Benson, 1975). Consistent with this understanding of collaborative scenarios, previous research has found that participation legacies from large-scale single-sport events have been influenced by the extent to which the relevant governing bodies of the specific sports have been supportive of the desired participation legacies (Bell & Blakey, 2010; Frawley & Cush, 2011). The application of ION Theory enabled the researcher to expand knowledge beyond the governing body level, and show that broader macro structures of government priorities and policies also have an important influence on whether or not sport development legacies will be secured.

The SWMG case study demonstrates that the broader sport system needs to be supportive of event bid commitments and political statements if desired legacies are to be achieved. By demonstrating this, the thesis provides empirical support for suggestions that large-scale sport events should be integrated into plans for sport development if legacies are to be secured (c.f. Cashman et al., 2004; Coalter, 2004, 2007; Frawley & Cush, 2011; Hanstad & Skille, 2010; Hindson et al., 1994; Shipway, 2007; SportScotland, 2004; Taks et al., 2009; Toohey, 2008, 2010; Veal & Frawley, 2009; Veal et al., 2012; Weed et al., 2009). Specifically, the SWMG case study reveals that mainstream structures of sport need to provide capacity building and/or financial incentives for sports to develop inclusive programming opportunities for targeted groups to secure meaningful legacies.

7.3.2 IONs achieve what they set out to achieve

Based on Benson's (1975) ION Theory, the premise underlying this thesis was that an effective ION, characterised by sport development stakeholders working towards a common goal, could secure sport development legacies. In the case of the SWMG, the ION was characterised by formal, central and low-density interactions among stakeholders narrowly identified for their contribution to delivering a successful event, reflecting the emphasis of ION organisers on securing economic objectives. While the case study demonstrated the effective development of an ION for event delivery, the findings highlight the same ION was not conducive to securing sport development legacies.

The SWMG case study demonstrates that when sport development stakeholders are brought together in an ION for a narrow objective (i.e. delivering a successful event),

it cannot be assumed that the organisations will work together to achieve broader objectives of securing sport development legacies. Instead, if governments genuinely aim to secure sport development legacy objectives, a strategic process is required. This process needs to include a delegated authority to map out and engage stakeholders and to facilitate collective discussions to ascertain what sport development legacies could be, and what is required to achieve them. As became evident through the SWMG case study, this process needs to occur in a timely fashion. In the context of sport development, there may be a need for capacity building (i.e. the supply-side of sport) to take place in advance of an event to ensure sport organisations are equipped to capitalise on the hosting of an event. This means that lead time is important in ION development to maximise sport development legacies for host communities.

7.3.3 Event leverage for sport development legacies is different

Despite the burgeoning research into event leverage there has been limited investigation into event leverage to achieve sport development legacies (Taks et al., 2009; Weed et al., 2009). This thesis sought to address this gap by investigating initiatives undertaken by sport development stakeholders involved in a large-scale sport event (the SWMG) to capitalise on the event and integrate opportunities into broader plans for sport development. However, initiatives to capitalise on the SWMG for sport development legacies were limited and ad hoc. The SWMG case study highlighted that there are fundamental differences between event leverage for sport development legacies, and other forms of event leverage.

Event leverage models (Chalip, 2004, 2006; O'Brien & Chalip, 2008) are underpinned by the assumption that organisations, agencies and services are motivated to leverage events to realise economic or social gains. Such models rely on the use of event and feel-good factors to communicate positive outcomes to the broader public. The beginning point of Chalip's (2004) Schematic Representation of Event Leverage is identifying an event as a leverageable resource to capitalise upon by encouraging tourists to spend more and stay longer. The beginning point to the Proposed Model for Social Event Leverage (O'Brien & Chalip, 2008) is identifying the liminality that exists during an event as a leverageable resource to interact with participants to raise awareness of social issues and set or change behaviours. These models encourage stakeholders to capitalise on an event as a means of meeting their existing objectives. For instance, tourism stakeholders may want to sell more bed nights, community stakeholders may want to raise awareness of social causes in their community (O'Brien & Chalip, 2008) or encourage greater community engagement (Kellett et al., 2008) so the event becomes an opportunity to maximise their gains.

In contrast, sport development legacies require pre-event capacity building from the supply-side of sport if sport development stakeholders are to effectively capitalise on an event for increases in sport participation (Coalter, 2004). The sport development literature indicates sport systems are typically constrained in their ability to grow and develop, with NSOs and SSOs dependent on government funding and KPIs (Green, 2007; Shilbury & Kellett, 2011; Stewart et al., 2004), and community sport organisations reliant on fewer volunteers to do more work (Cuskelly, 2004; Misener & Doherty, 2009; Shilbury & Kellett, 2011). Therefore, it cannot be assumed that participation opportunities will be ready and available in response to an increase in

the number of people wishing to participate. Rather, there is a need to increase the skills of stakeholders so that they are able to effectively leverage an event (Kellett et al., 2008). There is also a critical need for investment in the supply side of sport (i.e. human resources, facilities, development of participation opportunities) if this leverage is to be effectively carried out.

Building capacity in the supply-side of sport is complex due to the interdependencies of government funding, access to facilities and reliance on volunteers to provide sport participation opportunities. Economic motivators and the entrepreneurial efforts of individual stakeholders do not drive event leverage for sport development legacies. Instead, there are a number of stakeholder efforts that need to be coordinated if sport development legacies are to be secured. The challenges of deciding who should be responsible for leverage and legacy initiatives have been identified (Allen et al., 2008; Chalip & Leyns, 2002; Kellett et al., 2008; O'Brien, 2005, 2006; Smith & Fox, 2007). Table 40 sets out the key stakeholders and their potential roles and responsibilities. Importantly, Table 41 highlights that the event governing body, event bid committee, event organising committee, relevant government departments and agencies, and sport organisations all have some responsibility for securing sport development legacies. No organisation is singly responsible, but all are dependent on one another for contributing to the collective whole of securing sport development legacies.

Table 41: Summary of Sport Development Stakeholders Roles for Legacy

Key Stakeholder	Roles and Responsibilities
Event Governing Body	Event governing bodies have a role to play in requiring bid committees to include well thought-through sport development legacy plans that are supported by relevant sport development stakeholders
Event Bid Committee	Bid committees have a role in consulting with sport development stakeholders to inform bid promises, and inform stakeholders of their commitments to sport development legacies.
Event Organising Committee	Event organising committees have a role as conduits and facilitators of interaction among key sport development stakeholders to encourage information exchange and sport development initiatives
Government Departments and Agencies Responsible for Funding and Developing Sport	Government departments and sport agencies need to develop funding arrangements that create impetus by sport organisations to capitalise on large-scale sport events for the sake of sport development
Sport organisations	Sport organisations are responsible for the development and delivery of sport participation opportunities and have a role to play in capitalising on opportunities presented by large-scale sport events

Given the critical need for pre-emptive strategies and shared responsibilities, this thesis highlights flaws in the way the trickle-down effect has been conceptualised for large-scale sport events. Investment in events has been assumed to trickle down and result in things such as increased participation, strengthened sport organisations and improved sport policy (see Section 2.3.2). Little thought has been given to how supply- and demand-side factors need to interact to secure sport development legacies (Coalter, 2004; Veal et al., 2012). This thesis finds that rather than relying on trickle-down effects, a specific plan to strengthen sport organisations and improve sport policy is needed in advance of an event. Such a plan is needed to ensure the complex sport system is equipped and functioning effectively to cater for increased demands for participation stimulated by a large-scale sport event and the undertaking of leverage initiatives. Based on the unique nature of event leverage for sport development legacies, and the need for pre-emptive strategies highlighted in this thesis, a conceptual model for sport development leverage is proposed in the following section.

7.3.4 Proposed Model to Leverage an Event for Sport Development Legacies

The final theoretical contribution of this thesis is a proposed Model to Leverage an Event for Sport Development Legacies (the Model), illustrated in Figure 22. The Model adapts and expands upon Chalip's (2004, 2006) and O'Brien and Chalip's (2008) models for event leverage by recognising and incorporating:

- The impact of an ION of securing sport development legacies (see Chapter 6); and

- The need to address the supply as well as the demand sides of sport (Coalter, 2004).

In keeping with the extant models, the Model is schematic, reflecting a chronological process to be followed if sport development legacies are to be realised. There are three main parts to the model. The first part is taken from Figure 21, in which the relationship between ION development and structure, sport development context and normative consensus are demonstrated. The interactions in this first part are indicated as affecting the subsequent processes documented in the Model.

The second part of the Model focuses on the supply-side of sport, and pre-event development. The third part focuses on the demand-side of sport and the leverage initiatives before, during and after the event. It is critical that the supply-side of sport be addressed so that leverage initiatives on the demand-side can be effectively carried out and sport development legacies can be secured. To assist in operationalising the Model, the context of masters sport and a large-scale mass participation sport event (e.g. the SWMG) is used to populate Figure 22.

In terms of the supply-side of sport, the strategic objective is to increase and/or improve opportunities for masters sport participation so sport organisations can capitalise on the opportunity presented by hosting a large-scale sport event. The means by which pre-event development can be achieved include:

- Securing government funding for masters sport development (to create impetus by sport organisations through a pool of resources to improve or develop their engagement with this group in sport);

- Providing information and resources about masters sport to sport organisations (to raise awareness and encourage capacity building in sport organisations to support masters sport development initiatives);

- Facilitate knowledge sharing opportunities for sport development stakeholders (to enable interaction among organisations that would not typically interact and encourage inter-organisational learning and application of new knowledge);

- Encourage sport organisations to implement strategies which can develop their existing approaches to masters sport (strategies would be specific to each organisation based on their existing approaches to masters sport).

These supply-side developments then place sport development stakeholders in a position to effectively engage in leverage initiatives before, during and after the event.

In terms of the demand-side of sport, the Model retains Chalip (2006) and O'Brien and Chalip's (2008) notion of liminality to reflect Weed et al.'s (2009) recommendations on how to capitalise on the festival feel of events to encourage increases in physical activity and sport. In line with the empirical findings from this thesis, the opportunities include:

- Event participants – an opportunity due to the mass participation nature of the event and potential to connect with newcomers, or people returning to sport; and

- Event media – an opportunity based on the large-scale status of the event and the potential to attract media attention. Event media provides the opportunity to communicate with, and encourage participation by, an audience beyond that participating in the event.

In terms of event participants, the strategic objective is to increase their numbers, and the means to capitalise on event participants include:

- Encourage all levels of ability and experience to register and participate in the event, and limit the entry requirements, for example no pre-qualification events that some sports had for the SWMG; and

- Connect participants with opportunities to continue participation post-event (these opportunities will have been developed and refined as part of the supply-side of sport processes).

In terms of event media, the strategic objective is to raise community awareness and engagement in lifelong participation in sport. The means to capitalise on event media include:

- Balance messages promoting event registration with promotion of lifelong participation in sport; and

- Ensure media coverage includes a diverse and representative depiction of masters sports participants.

The schematic representation of the various components related to the supply-side of sport and the demand-side of sport are illustrated in Figure 22.

Figure 22: Proposed Model to Leverage an Event for Sport Development Legacies
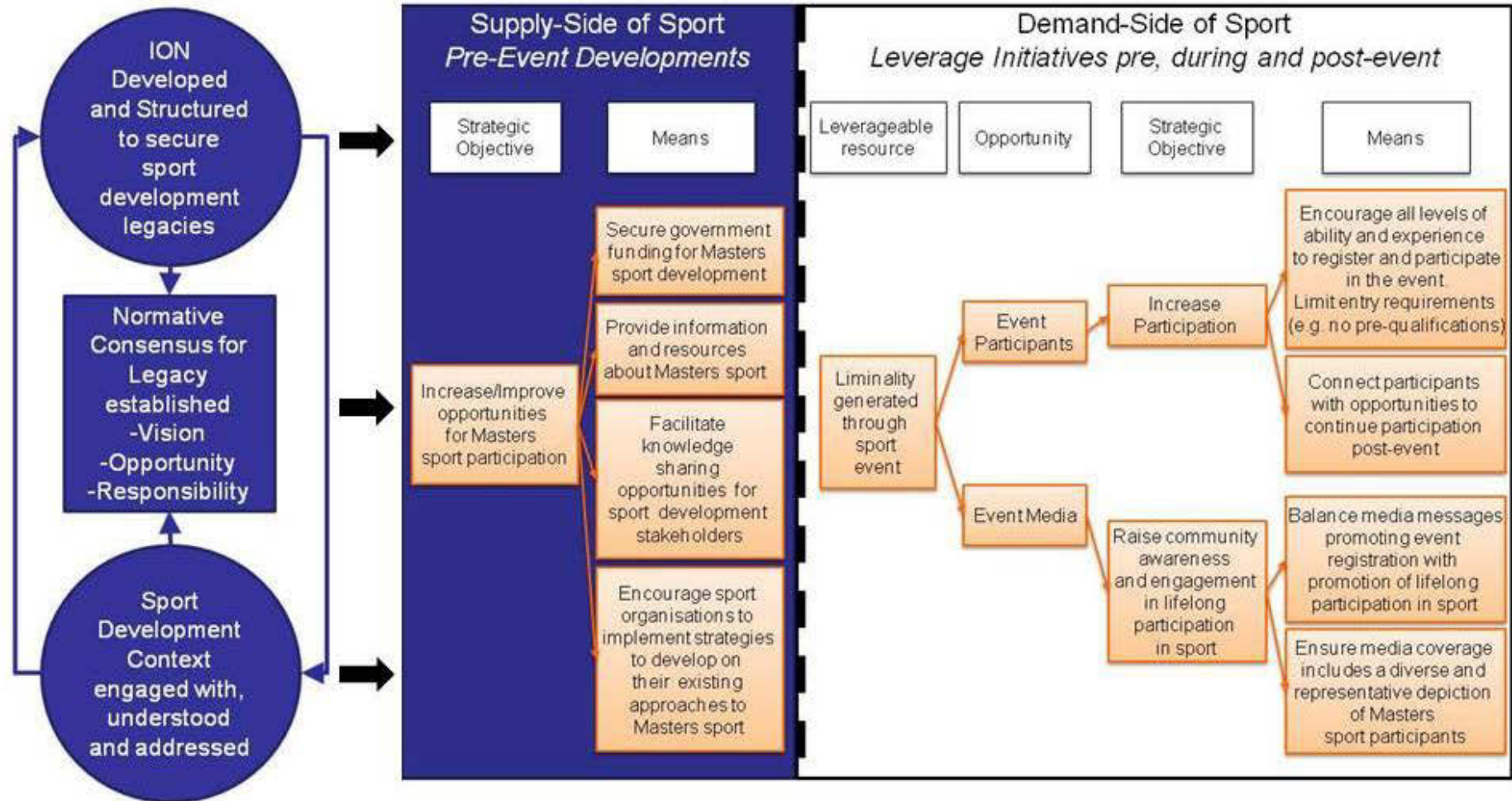
(Source: Chalip, 2004, 2006; O'Brien & Chalip, 2008 adapted and expanded upon)

While the example of masters sport is used in Figure 22, this could be replaced with any other population group for which legacies are desired. For example, the population could be women, culturally and linguistically diverse groups, among others.

A critical factor with this Model is the timeliness in which phases are completed. The increased/improved opportunities for participation required in the supply-side of sport must be in place prior to the hosting of an event to ensure all sport organisations demonstrate organisational readiness to capitalise on the hosting of the large-scale sport event. The other pressure in terms of timeliness is that the liminality generated through an event is only present in the time immediately before, during, and immediately after an event (Chalip, 2006; O'Brien & Chalip, 2008). This means that there is a specific time by which supply-side development needs to occur and, in turn, a limited window of opportunity in which to implement demand-side initiatives before the excitement and good feeling of an event wears off and the momentum is lost.

Along with the theoretical contributions outlined in this section, the Proposed Model to Leverage an Event for Sport Development Legacies informs the implications for policy and practice, outlined in the following section.

7.4   Implications for Policy and Practice

This section highlights a number of recommendations for policy and practice arising from this thesis, which will be important in future events for which sport development is a desired legacy. Stemming from the key findings of the research, if sport

development legacies are desired, recommendations include: 1) Develop and structure an ION to be conducive to securing sport development legacies; 2) Engage with the context of sport development; and 3) Collectively conceptualise sport development legacies. Subsidiary policy- and practice-related recommendations for each of these three main recommendations are outlined below.

7.4.1 Develop and structure an ION to be conducive to securing sport development legacies

An important message for host city governments is that sport development legacies do not trickle down; they require governments to develop strategic policy frameworks to guide the development and structure of IONs to provide a foundation from which to secure legacies. For instance, formal policy instruments, including special event legislation and formal agreements with sport development stakeholders, should explicitly outline commitments to securing sport development legacies, as is the case with tourism and economic objectives. Alongside these explicit commitments, formal policy instruments can then highlight the individual roles sport development stakeholders have in securing legacies. Suggestions for roles were provided in Section 5.4.3, and responsibility was addressed further in Section 7.3.3.

Since the hosting of the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games, policy developments such as these have become institutionalised for tourism and economic stakeholders, and initiatives such as state-based tourism leveraging strategies and business club initiatives have become common and expected (Chalip, 2004; O'Brien, 2005, 2006). The area of sport would benefit from such institutionalisation of policy, whereby key sport agencies and sport organisations organise to position themselves to capitalise on

opportunities to leverage large-scale sport events in ways that are meaningful to their context and potential sport participants. This institutionalisation may entail the inclusion of sport agency charters and sport organisation KPIs and a specific role to leverage large-scale sport events for sport development opportunities, as was the case with Events NSW's efforts towards developing and coordinating the Tourism Leveraging Strategy (see Section 5.2). Formal policy development should include the commitment of adequate resources for achieving sport development legacies and robust methods for monitoring and evaluation.

In addition to formal and institutionalised policy developments, event bid and organising committees should recognise the importance of managing informal interactions to secure sport development legacies. Until policy development reaches a state of institutionalisation referred to above, bid and event organising committees' engagement of sport development stakeholders should be iterative and incremental to bring about desired developments (B. Gray, 1985; Mandell, 1988). Iterative and incremental stakeholder engagement will be particularly important in cases where desired sport development legacies challenge the status quo of mainstream sport, as is the case with legacies to masters sport. Another aspect of the roles of event bid and event organising committees in managing informal interactions is encouraging and facilitating interactions among sport development stakeholders across the ION. These informal interactions provide important opportunities for information exchange and knowledge transfer among organisations, which underpin the kind of organisational learning that anecdotal reports have claimed lead to strengthened sport organisations and policy development (Cashman, 2006; Coalter, 2008; Parent, 2008b; Shipway, 2007).

7.4.2 Engage with the context of sport development

An important message for bid and host governments, including event bid committees, is that the context of sport development is critical to whether or not promised sport development legacies will be realised (see Section 6.3). Where sport development legacies have been promised but are not congruent with existing sport development priorities, sport organisations will not be motivated to work collaboratively to secure promised legacies. Bid and host governments should establish a thorough understanding of sport development priorities at the relevant levels of government to understand how existing KPIs and distribution of funds may affect the motivation of sport organisation stakeholders to work collaboratively to secure sport development legacies. As indicated in the proposed Model to Leverage an Event for Sport Development (see Section 7.3.4) the analysis of sport development priorities should inform pre-event development in the supply-side of sport, for instance, by securing government funding to support the desired sport development legacies.

Improved understanding of the existing approaches to the targeted area of sport development by bid and host governments is required to understand what sport development legacies mean to sport organisations and how stakeholders might secure legacies. The analysis of existing approaches to masters sport will assist with identifying a baseline of the different approaches to the target area of sport by participating sport organisations. This analysis helps to inform the type of strategies needed and the extent of resources required to realise development in the supply-side of sport.

7.4.3 Collectively conceptualise sport development legacies

An important message for bid and host governments, including event bid committees, is that sport development legacies must be collectively discussed among sport development stakeholders. The nature of the task and appropriate methods to secure a legacy must be agreed upon by sport development stakeholders participating in an event ION. A forum such as the Olympic Business Round Table that was mobilised for economic development legacies from the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games (O'Brien, 2006), may be an appropriate model that could be developed with sport development stakeholders and implemented for large-scale sport events.

All relevant stakeholders must be part of establishing a purposive whole to work towards to ensure that visions are clear, that challenges and complexities are understood, and that all stakeholders can see their individual roles and responsibilities in securing the collective goal. This process of collective discussion is particularly important in terms of sport development legacies given that some supply-side development may need to take place in the lead up to an event to make it possible to capitalise on the opportunity provided by a large-scale sport event.

In situations where desired legacies challenge the status quo of existing sport systems, some coordination of the collective discussion process and implementation of initiatives will be necessary. As demonstrated through the SWMG, masters sport development was not a priority in the existing structures of sport, and instead was seen as a threat to priority areas of youth and elite sport. As such, sport organisations were unlikely to act entrepreneurially to capitalise on the SWMG as the event leverage literature would suggest because these activities were seen as a threat to what

these organisations perceived as core business activities. This meant that a coordinating organisation was needed to encourage cross-ION and diagonal interactions among participating organisations and facilitate collective discussion to address the inhibitive sport development policy environment and encourage support for masters sport development across the sport system.

Event organising committees cannot be wholly responsible for securing sport development legacies due to the short and temporary lifespan of these organisations and the fact that their primary purpose is to deliver successful events. However, the central positioning of event bid committees and event organising committees in an event ION means they have an important role to play alongside relevant government sport departments and agencies in identifying and connecting key stakeholders. This includes encouraging interactions among advocates (e.g. IMGA), policy makers (e.g. ASC and NSW Sport and Recreation) and opportunity providers (e.g. sport organisations) in the sport development system. Accordingly, the committee should be equipped with adequate resources to assist them to be an effective conduit for interactions and information relating to sport development legacies.

Event bid committees and event organising committees also need to recognise that to achieve the full potential of sport development legacies, collective discussion processes need to occur alongside recommendations made in this thesis regarding ION development and structure (see Section 7.4.1) and engagement with the sport development context (see Section 7.4.2). The combination of these actions will help to ensure that top-down perspectives about what constitutes desirable development can be balanced with the bottom-up experiences and perspectives of the sport

organisations. This is because the sustainability of sport development legacies relies on sport organisations feeling they have ownership of initiatives and embedding them in their plans for sport development.

7.6   Limitations of the Research

The limitations of this thesis occur in four main areas: the research design, including generalisability of the findings presented, the boundary for the sampling frame, the self-selection bias in this thesis and the temporal limitations of the thesis. Chapter 3 outlined the shortcomings of qualitative research and case study design (see Section 4.9). This is social research, and there are challenges presented by social situations. They are often imperfect and unpredictable (Bryman, 2012; Denzin & Licoln, 2011; Snow & Thomas, 1994). In addition, qualitative case studies and qualitative research methods often attract criticism based on robustness and generalisability. However, the research design was justified based on the aim of the research, that is, to increase our understanding of a phenomenon rather than trying to predict or explain a phenomenon (Bryman, 2012; Flyvberg, 2006b; Stake, 2000) (see Section 4.3). In addition, the methodological limitations were all acknowledged and where possible, addressed in the research design.

Second, the indefinite nature of IONs presented challenges in determining the boundaries of the SWMG ION and the inclusion of stakeholders in the sampling frame. The time and resource constraints of the PhD process meant the sampling frame needed to be manageable. Bearing in mind that there is limited research into IONs and their influence on securing sport development legacies, the boundary set for

the SWMG case study (see Section 4.4.3) provided a useful starting point on which to build for future research.

Third, there was some self-selection bias evident in terms of the interview sample with respect to the sport organisations involved in the research. Twenty-two of the twenty-eight sport organisations that were involved in the SWMG participated in this study. The findings that emerged across the twenty-two sports indicate the diversity of organisation type, approaches to masters sport, and therefore potential resource requirements to secure sport development legacies. This nature of the sport organisations indicates that a fuller picture of the SWMG ION and its influence on securing sport development legacies may have been realised if all sport organisations participated in the research. Ways to better encourage the participation of all key stakeholders in ION research should be considered in future research.

Last, the data collection for this thesis was conducted at the time the SWMG was hosted, and given that legacy often needs several years to be fully realised (Gratton & Preuss, 2008), this thesis provides only a snapshot of an ION in the time immediately leading up to, during and immediately after the event. The case study provides important insights into intentions and processes at the time of the event only. This means there are important opportunities for future research to develop on this basis to determine the longer-term impact of the SWMG on masters sport development in NSW and Australia.

These limitations provide scope for future research that may advance academic understanding of the ION of large-scale sport events and the ION's effect on the relationship between large-scale sport events and sport development legacies.

7.7   Recommendations for Future Research

The process of completing this thesis has given rise to suggestions for four areas for future research: social network analysis, longitudinal research designs, the testing of empirical models and action research methodology.

First, the exploratory nature of this thesis, and the time and resource constraints of PhD research, meant the scope of this thesis was limited to an examination of interactions at the organisational level of a project ION established for the delivery of an event. The thesis highlighted that the setting for sport development differs from the setting for tourism, with sport development typically characterised by resource constraints and reliance on few paid staff and volunteers. As such, future research should deepen investigation into the complexity of the development and structure of event IONs to better understand how to manage and coordinate IONs that include stakeholders from multiple sectors, particularly in a not-for-profit setting. A social network analysis methodology may be useful in mapping out these interactions at the individual actor level to identify facilitators and inhibitors of sport development legacies from a large-scale sport event.

Second, future research should use a longer-term research framework which includes the conception of an event bid, through to one or two years after the event. This would enable the establishment of a baseline measure pre-event, and then allow the

researcher to monitor event-related developments through to the post-event phase. Such a timeframe would more adequately capture the depth and breadth of the sport development legacies that can arise from the staging of an event.

Third, the proposed Model to Leverage an Event for Sport Development Legacies should be empirically tested. The Model is based on a case study where sport development legacies were limited and ad hoc, and the means are mostly representative of strategies that stakeholders did not effectively execute. As such, there is a need to determine if these means are effective, if they need adjustment, or if there are others that would better secure sport development legacies. An action research approach, elaborated below, may be a suitable methodology to use to test the proposed Model and iteratively inform the development of the model.

Given the importance of achieving normative consensus in an event ION to maximise sport development legacies from a large-scale sport event, a research approach that examines an event ION with a view to improving the quality of interaction among stakeholders within it would be appropriate. A long-term action research approach would assist in linking the research process and its context, and could provide a practical outcome of the research leading to change. Action research is defined as 'an approach in which the action researcher and members of a social setting collaborate in the diagnosis of a problem and in the development of a solution based on the diagnosis' (Bryman, 2012, p. 397). Embedding a researcher within an ION to work alongside stakeholders would enable the researcher to monitor key interactions and encourage adjustment along the way to improve the likelihood that legacies are secured.

To conclude, these recommendations for future research build on the findings of this thesis. They focus on extending the knowledge of policies, processes and practices of sport development stakeholders, with a particular emphasis on action research methodology to improve the likelihood that sustainable sport development legacies are secured. The investigation into the topics recommended here would build on knowledge about the interorganisational interactions among stakeholders during a large-scale sport event and their roles and responsibilities in leveraging large-scale sport events to secure sport development legacies. Finally, the testing and development of the proposed Model to Leverage an Event for Sport Development Legacies will provide a basis from which sport development stakeholders can organise and position themselves to leverage large-scale sport events and maximise the benefits to their sports from the hosting of large-scale sport events.

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Appendix 1: Summary of Australian Federal Governments Approaches to Sport Policy, 1972-2010

Govt	Ideology	Approach to Sport	Rationales and Justification for Involvement in Sport	Subsequent Policy Developments
Whitlam Labor (1972-1975)	Social Demo-cratic	Bottom-Up	Falling levels of fitness among Australian population Sport and leisure integral to peoples welfare	First federal government portfolio for tourism and recreation; and Review into Australian sport review – Bloomfield Report
			1973 Bloomfield report recommended government: - Create community recreation centres throughout Australia; - Increase awareness of the importance of fitness; and - Improve elite athlete programs and sport science.	Funded building of community sports facilities across Australia Funded NSO programs to improve administration, development and competition functions for both community and elite sport Inquiry into elite athlete development – the Coles Report.
			1975 Coles report found sport in European countries superior to Australian approaches and recommended balancing elite and community sport but establish a national centre of excellence.	Whitlam Government voted out of power in 1975
Fraser Liberal (1975-1983)	Liberal	Non-interventi on	Reduce government intervention commitments Sedentary lifestyles contributing to increased prevalence of lifestyle diseases	Dismantled Department of Tourism and Recreation Continued financial grant support for elite athletes Scaled down capital projects and assistance to NSOs National active promotion campaign 'Life. Be In It' **Critical event: 1976 - Australia secures only 1 silver and 4 bronze medals at the Montreal Olympic Games**
	Shifted to Neo-liberal	Top-down	Sport for national identity development and electoral popularity Confederation of Australian Sport (CAS) released 'A Masterplan for Australian Sport' in 1980, echoing recommendations from Bloomfield and Coles reports for government support of community participation and elite performance policy	Committed substantial $ to community participation and elite sport Committed funding in the early 1980s to elite performance to re-establish Australia's position on the international sporting scene Opened Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) in 1981
Hawke* Labor (1983-1991)	Neo-liberal	Top-down	Consolidate policies for elite performance and broaden community participation policies implemented by previous governments Reduce administrative duplication Sport for national identity development and electoral popularity Economic potential of large-scale sport events Support of community participation contributes to increases in the talent pool of potential elite athletes *Replaced by Keating in 1991	Opened Australian Sport Commission (ASC) in 1985 as national coordinating authority for sport to represent **all** interests in sport Moved the AIS under the responsibility of the ASC in 1985 Required NSOs to be more accountable for spending, linking substantial funding to strategic management of elite outcomes Bidding and hosting of large-scale sport events Re-established capital investment in sport and recreation facilities Community participation - school sport and disadvantage youth

Appendix 1: Summary of Australian Federal Governments Approaches to Sport Policy, 1972-2010 (continued)

Govt	Ideology	Approach to Sport	Rationales and Justification for Involvement in Sport	Policy Developments
Keating Labor (1991-1996)	Neo-liberal	Top-down	Maintained rationales for involvement from Hawke leadership	Maintained policies from Hawke leadership **Critical event: 1993 - Sydney host city for 2000 Olympics**
			Government support committed to a successful performance by Australia at the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games	Direction of sport policy changes, with sport funding tied to a number of goals and targets for Sydney 2000, which took funding away from community participation and non-Olympic sports
Howard Liberal 1996-2007	Neo-liberal	Top-down	Sport for national identity development and electoral popularity, maintained government support to an extent, but reduced spending. Need to address Australia's increasingly inactive population. Demonstrate links between sport policy and health outcomes	Continued elite support towards Sydney 2000 Olympic Games, but emphasised the economic outcomes. Supported development and leadership of NSOs. Continued support for community-level development programs. Implemented Active Australia: A National Participation Framework in 1996 to encourage lifelong participation in sport; promote the benefits of sport and support cross-department (i.e. sport and health) participation in sport policy
		Top-down	Review undertaken by Sport 2000 Task Force highlighted that the trickle-down effect had not been effective in encouraging increased community participation and there was a need for greater investment in community participation at the federal level	*Backing Australia's Sporting Ability* (BASA) implemented in 2001, designed to: - ensure continued elite success post-Sydney 2000 - enhance sport management structures - improve response to doping issues; - increase numbers of participants in sport in Australia; Funding distributed across elite sport and community participation at a 5:1 ratio. Provided funding for hosting 2003 Rugby World Cup. Active After Schools Community Program launched in 2004 aimed at increasing participation of primary aged children with a focus on preventative health, 2007 funded for 3 more years. Howard government voted out of power in 2007. Provided funding for Melbourne 2006 Commonwealth Games
Rudd Labor 2007-2010	Neo-liberal	Top-down	Sport and recreation seen to have a role in addressing the prevalence significance of obesity in young Australians and in contributing to a preventative health agenda. 2009 Crawford Report recommends to incorporate mass participation and investment in community participation in definitions of Australia's sporting success	Shifted sport portfolio from connection with arts, to more closely align with youth, based on targeting youth obesity issues

(Crawford, 2009; Green, 2007; Green & Collins, 2008; Hoye et al., 2008; Shilbury & Kellett, 2011; Stewart et al., 2004)

Appendix 2: Market Failure Justifications for Government Involvement in Sport

In capitalist countries such as Australia, government involvement in sport development is often justified based on the argument of market failure. Market failure occurs when the free market is not working effectively, or in the best interests of the community (Veal, 2002; Stewart et al. 2004). In terms of sport development, market failure occurs when there is an under-supply of opportunities provided by the free market, which limits the potential benefits of sport development to the broader society (Veal, 2002; Stewart et al, 2004). Most national governments in developed nations consider sport to be culturally significant and a resource to deliver non-sport objectives such as health, social connections and wellbeing, and for these reasons they pursue sport policy (Green, 2007; Hoye et al., 2008).

As summarised in Table 42, the types of market failure often referred to in the area of sport development include the public good quality of elite and mass participation sport, the potential externalities of mass participation in sport, and the notion of equitable access to elite and mass participation sport regardless of ability to pay.

Table 42: Market Failure and Government Involvement in Sport Development

Type of Market Failure	Explanation	Sport Development Example
Public good	Public goods are: Non-excludable, meaning it is not possible to exclude anyone from enjoying the benefits of these goods or services. Non-rival, meaning one person's enjoyment does not preclude others from enjoying it also. The free market engagement with these goods or services is limited due to the free-rider scenario, where there is no guarantee people will pay for the cost of providing the benefit	Mass participation: public parks, etc. in the local community are free to access and the experience is often enhanced by the presence of other people also enjoying these spaces. Elite sport: The successful performance of an athlete or sport team, or the hosting of a large-scale event in a resident's host city, can induce positive feelings in communities.
Externalities	Externalities are effects experienced by third parties when a transaction occurs between providers and consumers. Externalities can be positive or negative. The government will choose to intervene to limit negatives and maximise positive externalities.	Mass participation: The government support of sport services and promotions encourages individual participation in sports, leading to improved levels of health and wellbeing. The subsequent cost reduction in public health areas benefits the whole of society through reduced taxes, or distribution of funds to other policy areas.
Equity	Equity relates to quality of life, underpinned by the argument that access to certain goods and services should be available to all, regardless of their ability to pay. The government will choose to provide subsidised goods and services to provide a minimum standard of living.	Mass participation: The cost of access to facilities or participation in sports programs are subsidised for certain groups in society. Elite sport: Scholarship programs to develop talented athletes from targeted societal groups

Appendix 3: Preliminary Model for Social Event Leverage

Figure 23: Chalip's (2006) Objectives and Means for Cultivating Liminality
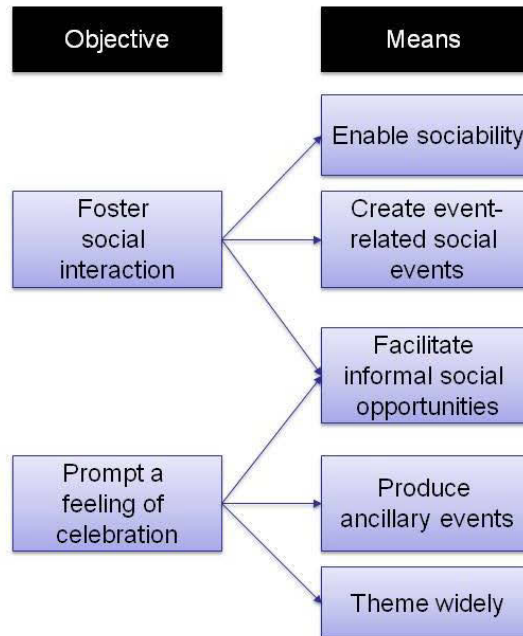
Source: Chalip (2006, p. 114)

Appendix 4:   Interview Checklists

Interview Checklist: SWMGOC

1. Objectives of SWMGOC
2. Main SWMGOC objectives for providing broader social/sport outcomes from the SWMG
3. Evolution of objectives
   e.g. differences from bid stage to delivery
4. How will objectives, implementation and outcomes be monitored and evaluated? And looking forward how will they continue to be monitored and evaluated?
5. Do you consider you are on track to achieving the objectives set out?
6. Key Organisation/Stakeholders identified in the SWMG ION
   e.g. State Govt, World Masters, Sporting Orgs, other stakeholders
7. Roles of stakeholders in event delivery
8. Influence of stakeholders in event design
9. Nature of relationships and interactions with other organisations/stakeholders
10. Management of relationships with Organisations/Stakeholders
11. How have collaborative objectives been developed/influenced?
12. How is programming being implemented to achieve collaborative social/sport objectives?
13. What is being provided, by whom, when, why?
14. Opportunities/constraints of achieving the objectives?
15. Resources influencing/ other factors of influence, factors inhibiting/factors facilitating
16. Are there outcomes you think could be incorporated that have not been? Why/Why not?
17. Any contextual factors compared to other events you have worked with? Explain
18. Involved in the bidding/planning/staging again, would you do anything differently to leverage the event for social outcomes?
19. Any other relevant information?

Interview Checklist: IMGA

1. Objectives of the IMGA
   e.g. for the IMGA & SWMG
2. How does the IMGA conceptualise the World Masters Games?
3. What are the potential sport development outcomes and how should these be realised?
4. What are the roles and responsibilities of the IMGA in achieving these objectives?
5. How will objectives, implementation and outcomes be monitored and evaluated? And looking forward how will they continue to be monitored and evaluated?
6. Do you consider you are on track to achieving the objectives set out?
7. Key Organisation/Stakeholders identified
   e.g. for the IMGA & SWMG

8. Roles of stakeholders in event delivery
9. Influence of stakeholders in event design
10. Nature of relationships and interactions with other organisations/stakeholders
11. Management of relationships with Organisations/Stakeholders
12. How/Will relationships be maintained?
13. How have collaborative objectives been developed/influenced?
14. Balancing IMGA objectives with other stakeholder objectives?
15. Consistencies/contrasts in purpose
16. Nature of relationships, roles and responsibilities of the IMGA, role and responsibilities of organisations/stakeholders
    e.g. Structural development, working group, research, legacy plan?
17. Opportunities/constraints of achieving the objectives?
18. Resources influencing/ Other factors of influence, factors inhibiting/factors facilitating
19. Are there outcomes you think could be incorporated that have not been? Why/Why not?
20. Any contextual factors compared to other events you have worked with? Explain
21. Lessons for future events
22. Any other relevant information?

Interview Checklist: Government Departments

1. What was the involvement of (insert department) for (bidding and) staging the SWMG?
2. Objectives of (insert department) for SWMG
3. How were the SWMG conceptualised by (insert department)?
   e.g. sport development considered
4. What are the roles and responsibilities of (insert department) in achieving these objectives?
5. How will objectives, implementation and outcomes be monitored and evaluated? And looking forward how will they continue to be monitored and evaluated?
6. Do you consider you are on track to achieving the objectives set out?
7. Key Organisation/Stakeholders identified
8. Roles of stakeholders in event delivery
9. Influence of stakeholders in event design
10. Nature of relationships and interactions with other organisations/stakeholders
11. Management of relationships with Organisations/Stakeholders
12. How/Will relationships be maintained?
13. How have collaborative objectives been developed/influenced?
14. Balancing (insert department) objectives with other stakeholder objectives?
15. Consistencies/contrasts in purpose
16. Nature of relationships, roles and responsibilities of the (insert department), role and responsibilities of organisations/stakeholders
    e.g. Structural development, working group, research, legacy plan?

17. Opportunities/constraints of achieving the objectives?
18. Resources influencing/ other factors of influence, factors inhibiting/factors facilitating
19. Are there outcomes you think could be incorporated that have not been? Why/Why not?
20. Any contextual factors compared to other events you have worked with? Explain
21. Lessons for future events
22. Any other relevant information?

Interview Checklist: Sport Organisations

1. Details of Masters Sport programming by sport organisation
2. Current/future plans
3. Opportunities & constraints for planning
4. Objectives of sport organisation for SWMG
5. How were the SWMG conceptualised by sport organisation?
6. e.g. sport development considered
7. What are the roles and responsibilities of the sport organisation in achieving these objectives?
8. How will objectives, implementation and outcomes be monitored and evaluated? And looking forward how will they continue to be monitored and evaluated?
9. Do you consider you are on track to achieving the objectives set out?
    a. Any increases in interest since the SWMG were won by Sydney in 2004? E.g. Registration/Participation/Sponsorship or media? Explain/Demonstrate
10. Have there been any:
    a. Changes in the approaches of your SSO to Masters Sport since the Sydney World Masters Games were won by Sydney?
    b. Strategies/programs in place to leverage participation in the Sydney World Masters Games for increased Masters participation in your sport?
    c. If so, how successful has the program been in delivering participation increases in your sport? If not, what other strategies/programs do you have in place to increase Masters sport participation?
11. Key Organisation/Stakeholders identified
12. Roles of stakeholders in event delivery
13. Influence of stakeholders in event design
14. Nature of Relationship with other organisations/stakeholders
15. Management of relationships with Organisations/Stakeholders
16. How/Will relationships be maintained?
17. How have collaborative objectives been developed/influenced?
18. Balancing sport organisation objectives with other stakeholder objectives?
19. Consistencies/contrasts in purpose
20. Nature of relationships, roles and responsibilities of the sport organisation, role and responsibilities of organisations/stakeholders

e.g. Structural development, working group, research, legacy plan?

21. Opportunities/constraints of achieving the objectives?
22. Resources influencing/ other factors of influence, factors inhibiting/factors facilitating
23. Are there outcomes you think could be incorporated that have not been? Why/Why not?
24. Any contextual factors compared to other events you have worked with? Explain
25. Lessons for future events
26. Any other relevant information?

Appendix 5:   Sample Consent Form

UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY SYDNEY

Understanding the role of the State in sport events for cities
A PhD research project in the School of Leisure, Sport and Tourism at the University of Technology, Sydney

I _____ (your name) agree to participate in the research project: Understanding the role of the State in sport events for cities, being conducted by Alana Thomson, a PhD candidate at the University of Technology, Sydney, Kuring-gai Campus Eton Road Lindfield, (02) 9514 5843. Funding for this scholarship has been provided by the Sustainable Tourism Cooperative Research Centre and the Australian Centre for Event Management, UTS.

I understand that the purpose of this study is to develop an understanding of the role of the event stakeholders in maximizing broader social outcomes from sport events.

I understand that my participation in this research will involve approximately 30 minutes of time to complete the interview. I also understand that the completed interview will be stored in a secure place at the University of Technology, Sydney.

As a participant, I understand that the researcher will endeavor to limit the ability to identify me in any published material from this study. However, due to the in-depth nature of the study and contextual nature of the Sydney World Masters Games, it may be possible for people familiar with the area of study to identify me.

I am aware that I can contact Alana Thomson or her supervisor(s) Associate Professor Simon Darcy (02 95145100 – simon.darcy@uts.edu.au) and Dr Deborah Edwards (02 95145424 – Deborah.edwards-1@uts.edu.au) if I have any further concerns about this research. I also understand that I am free to withdraw my participation from this research project at any time I wish, without consequences, and without giving a reason.

I agree that Alana Thomson has answered all my questions fully and clearly.

_____   ____/____/____
Signature (participant)

_____   ____/____/____
Signature (researcher or delegate)

NOTE:
This study has been approved by the University of Technology, Sydney Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about any aspect of your participation in this research which you cannot resolve with the researcher, you may contact the Ethics Committee through the Research Ethics Officer (ph: +61 2 9514 9772 Research.Ethics@uts.edu.au), and quote the UTS HREC reference number (Ref: 2008-296A). Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated fully and you will be informed of the outcome.