

LONDON 2012: OLYMPIC 'LEGACY', OLYMPIC EDUCATION AND THE
DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL CAPITAL IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SCHOOL
SPORT: A CASE STUDY

By

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ABSTRACT

This case study explores the possibility of the proposed ‘youth sports legacy’ of the London 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games, and the values inherent in Olympic education which are connected to the delivery of Physical Education and School Sport towards developing young people through the theory of social capital.

The case study addressed the opinions and experiences of six 14-15 year-old young people from a school situated close to the main Olympic site who took part in semi-structured interviews which explored their experiences of Physical Education and School Sport and any possible London 2012 initiatives they may have participated in. This case study also explored the opinions of five members of different sporting and government bodies that were identified by the researcher as key to delivering a ‘youth sports legacy’ in a London borough. These participants were selected on the basis of providing data that identified aspects and London 2012 initiatives that could be linked to the theory of social capital. In addition to these participants, three PE teachers, of the same school as the young people, were selected to help provide and identify how Olympic type values are delivered in Physical Education and School Sport and how these values could develop young people’s social capital.

The findings of this study illustrated that although it seems that there is a possible link between aspects of the ‘youth sports legacy’ and the values inherent in Olympic education towards the development of young people through the theory of social capital, some young people still seem to take up a passive involvement in sport and participating in 2012-orientated initiatives. Even though there is limited research into this particular topic, this study attempts to provide a foundation from which subsequent research into this issue can be further explained.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introducing the Research Area

In 2007, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) released the latest version of their Olympic Charter (IOC, 2007), a document that provides a set of guidelines for the organisation of the Olympic Games. One key aspect of the Charter stresses the importance of an Organising Committee promoting “sustainable development in sport” (IOC, 2007: 15). On the back of these requirements, Lord Coe and the London 2012 Bid Team in 2004 set out a vision for the Games “to build relationships with millions of young people and connect them to the meaning of sport and the Games like never before” (LOCOG, 2009: 27).

Interestingly, prior to London’s Bid being presented, the UK Government at the time suggested that “hosting events is not an effective, value for money, method of achieving a sustained increase in mass participation” (DCMS/Strategy Unit, 2002: 75). Coalter (2004) suggests that there is a lack of post-Games analysis of major sporting events, therefore, emphasising that ‘legacy’ is an elusive outcome, especially, when considering “the impact of the Olympics on general levels of sports participation” (96). Significantly, on the back of claims such as these, Edcoms (2007) stress that in all probability it is unlikely that London 2012 will be able to sustain any post-Games ‘legacy’ effect. Thus, it is an issue worth examining, especially with the current scrutiny on the possibility of London 2012 providing a ‘legacy’ post-Games.

1.2 Outline of the Study

Literature available on Olympic ‘legacy’, the Olympic values and Olympic education has provided the foundation for this study (Binder, 2000; Girginov & Hills, 2008; Naul, 2008). In particular, issues considering Olympic pedagogy, Olympism as a learning

philosophy, increased access to sporting facilities, and membership to sports clubs have dominated the research into these areas (Truño, 1995; Parry, 1998a; Cashman, 2002, 2006; Milton-Smith, 2002; Veal, 2003; Murphy & Baumann, 2007; Veal & Frawley, 2009; Chatziefstathiou, 2011). However, there remains little evidence in research that examines how any Olympic ‘legacy’, Olympic education programme or the Olympic values can be used to develop young people. This study will examine how the London 2012 Olympic Games can be used to help promote widespread benefits for young people through the theory of social capital, but also how through social capital, our schools and communities can also be effected by the ‘youth sports legacy’ and everything the Olympic Games stands for.

Considering the theory of social capital as a framework, within Physical Education and School Sport (PESS), this study proposes using a qualitative methodology and an interpretive, constructive framework, which attempts to collect data and advance a topic with little previous research. Given the lack of evidence into this topic, this study seeks to address the following two questions:

(i) What aspects of the London 2012 proposed ‘youth sports legacy’ and the values inherent in Olympic education have been developed for, and are connected to the delivery of PESS, in order to develop young people?

(ii) How do these ‘legacy’ aspects and the Olympic values influence the development of young peoples’ social capital?

1.3 Methodological Background

This study was developed around a case study where the participants were selected from a school (young people and Physical Education (PE) teachers) in a London borough

close to the main Olympic site, and members of official sporting and Government agencies identified as key to the delivery of a 2012 ‘youth sports legacy’ within this London borough. A further two research methods were selected. Firstly, fourteen semi-structured interviews were carried out, including six with young people, five ‘legacy actors’ and three PE teachers, with the intention of creating in-depth views and opinions on the relevant issues. Secondly, documentary analysis was used to provide additional substance to the opinions of those interviewed. Documents including academic journals, books and official government and 2012 documents were used in the documentary analysis.

1.4 Thesis Overview

This chapter provides the rationale behind this study but also summarises the focus of the thesis. Chapter 2 reviews the relevant literature, which includes the key references that have shaped the direction and focus of this research study. Chapter 3 refers to the justification behind the chosen research methods in this study, and provides details of the processes used for each phase of the data collection. Chapter 4 then provides a discussion of the findings linking back to the relevant research through the documentary analysis. The final Chapter draws conclusions on the study, addressing the potential implications of this study and also highlights potential research issues to be addressed in the future.

Chapter 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 *Chapter Introduction*

The chapter focuses on the concept of the Olympic Movement, Olympism, which is followed by discussion on Olympic education. This section will also examine how the Olympic ‘legacy’ has evolved and also identify important aspects of the proposed 2012 ‘youth sports legacy’. Finally, this chapter examines the concept of social capital and the development of young people through the relationship between social capital and the 2012 ‘youth sports legacy’.

2.2 *The Olympic Movement*

2.2.1 Olympism

At the end of the nineteenth century the founder of the modern Olympic Games, Pierre de Coubertin, conceived the concept of Olympism, a philosophy that articulated the fundamental principles of the Olympic Movement (Girginov, 2010a). The Olympic Charter (IOC, 2007: 11) proposed Olympism as:

. . . a philosophy of life, exalting and combining in a balanced whole the qualities of body, will and mind. Blending sport with culture and education, Olympism seeks to create a way of life based on the joy of effort, the educational value of good example and respect for universal fundamental ethical principles.

Literature has suggested a range of interpretations of the essential meaning behind Olympism, with several scholars defining Olympism as an ideology (Loland, 1995; Parry, 2003; Smith & Himmelfarb, 2008), a social philosophy (Shipway & Brown, 2007; Woods, 2007), a philosophy of life (IOC, 2007; Toohey & Veal, 2007), a physiological anthropology (Parry, 1997, cited in Tavares, 2002: 346; Parry, 1998a, 1998b), an educational philosophy (Müller, 2000; Binder, 2005), a pluralist philosophical attitude (Tavares, 2006; Parry, 2007) and a pedagogical institution (Takács, 1992; Timmers & De Knop, 2001; Pawlucki, 2009).

Significantly, although there is a lack of a clear interpretation of Olympism as a concept, all of the above suggestions highlight Olympism as a means of social application (Gomes, 2002) that can be used as a true articulator of the Olympic values and principles around the world (Hargreaves, 1992; Chappelet & Kübler-Mabbott, 2008). The concept of Olympism had been conceived by Coubertin's admiration for the English public school system and the ideas of Much Wenlock and Dr William Penny Brookes, who promoted the ideals of PE and personal betterment (Hargreaves, 1992). Coubertin used the principles identified by Wenlock and Brookes as his inspiration when creating the vision of the Olympic movement (Loland, 1995), providing a possible link between PE and the vision of the Olympic Games.

2.2.2 The 'Religio Athletae'

The most widespread philosophy proposes Olympism as an '*universalisable*' social philosophy that encapsulates the role of sport in world development, peaceful co-existence, social and moral education, and international understanding (Coubertin, 2000; Booth, 2004). Research illustrates that the explicit values of Olympism relate to '*religio athletae*', a religion for sport (Coubertin, 1936), designed to use sport as a tool to reform society politically, educationally and socially (Malfas et al., 2004). Furthermore, literature confirms the intentions of Coubertin were to use the Olympics and the idealistic values of sport as a catalyst aimed to foster the development of young people (Culpan & Wigmore, 2010; Kohe, 2010). This is supported by Coubertin's response in 1908 when asked the question why he had revived the Olympic Games, Coubertin highlighted that "the athletic life of modern youth demands the revival of the Olympic Games" (1908, cited in Girginov, 2010a: 10). Studies illustrate that Coubertin strove to educate the world's younger generation on the idea of the unity of mind and human development through the Olympics and sport (Furrer, 2002; Binder,

2010). These values include respect, fair-play, trust, international goodwill, pursuit of excellence, mass participation, the balance between a strong body and mind and contributing to building a better and more peaceful world (Furrer, 2002). Many of these Olympic values tie in with areas of PESS and the theory of social capital (Parry, 1998a).

2.3 *Olympic Education*

2.3.1 The Olympic ‘Education Fascination’

The revival of the modern Olympic Games was itself an educational project, as Coubertin, a French educational reformer, initiated a campaign to have physical activity incorporated into the French educational curriculum (Kwauk, 2008). Girginov (2010b) highlights how Coubertin and his colleagues envisaged Olympism as an educational reform movement because the Olympic values reflected the belief of “sport as a school of life” (388). Particularly, Coubertin felt that education, sport and the Olympic Games could be used as a solution to problems in society by inspiring young people “to pursue excellence and build an international movement which would contribute to the peaceful resolution of international conflict” (Kadoodooba, 1997: 237) but also had the essential principles needed to benefit the development of young people. This type of thinking can be illustrated in the original version of the Olympic Charter, as well as contemporary Olympic education and the advocates of Olympism (Arnold, 1996, 1999; Coubertin & Müller, 2000; Binder, 2001). The original Olympic Charter contained four specific aims (Binder, 2010: 389):

- .1. To promote the development of those physical and moral qualities which are the basis of sport;
- .2. To educate young people through sport in spirit of better understanding between each other and of friendship, thereby helping to build a better and more peaceful world;
- .3. To spread the Olympic principles throughout the world, thereby creating international goodwill; and

.4. To bring together the athletes of the world in a great four-yearly sports festival, the Olympic Games.

Taking this into account Kidd (1996: 84) believes, “the touchstone of his strategy of [social] reform, Olympism, was education; sport provided the means.” In support of this assertion, research acknowledges that given the high profile sport has in society, the philosophy of Olympism should be inherent in education curricula across the world (Guttman, 1978; Booth, 1999, 2000; Culpan, 2002a; Krüger & Murray, 2003; Taylor, 2004; MacAloon, 2008a), because “Olympic education is about the promotion of sport as a valued human practice” (Gillespie, 2003: 4).

2.3.2 The Development Process: A Valued Human Practice

In 1994 the President for the Hellenic Olympic Committee, Antonios Tzikas, spoke of his vision to revolutionise education. In 1997, when the IOC presented Athens with the opportunity to host the 2004 Olympics, Tzikas vision took a whole new dimension with the development of Olympic education in Greece. Therefore, with the opportunity of hosting the Games, Greece delivered a programme that was aimed towards all school children within primary and secondary education (Georgiadis, 2010). The basic objectives underpinning this Olympic education programme included students (Theodorakis et al., 2003; Grammatikopoulos et al., 2004; 2005):

- .1. Learning and understanding the history of the Olympic Games.
- .2. Ensuring and adhering to the Olympic and sporting values.
- .3. Developing moral, social and physical skills essential for sport and everyday life.
- .4. Learning about the health benefits of exercise and sport.
- .5. Understanding the importance of volunteering in human development.

Indeed these authors believe that these objectives highlight the educative value of sport. The goal for this Olympic education programme was to help young people develop the key internal characteristics that are available through participating in Olympic education and any

valued human practice (Arnold, 1996). These ‘moral’ characteristics include developing values such as fair play, personal and social wellbeing, honesty, trust, living in harmony with others, and accepting multiculturalism (Grammatikopoulos et al., 2004). Miller et al. (1997: 115) support this belief by illustrating that valued human practice like Olympic education considers sport as “a moral practice, grounded as it is in the concepts of fairness and freedom’, but ultimately Olympic education is important because “sport without an appreciation for fairness is not sport at all”, a unique moral message that when learned appropriately can be applied to everyday life (McFee, 2004).

2.3.3 Olympic Learning- ‘The Four Areas’

The various didactic approaches to teaching Olympic education identified in research include: the ‘knowledge-oriented’ (Müller, 1998; Müller & Spangenberg, 1999; Girginov & Parry, 2005) and ‘experience-orientated’ teaching approach (Müller, 1998; Nikolaus, 2007); the ‘physical achievement-oriented’ and ‘lifeworld-oriented’ teaching approach (Binder, 2000; Rychtecký & Naul, 2005; Rychtecký, 2006, 2007). In addition to these traditional didactic and pedagogical approaches, Naul (2010) added two more principles to teaching Olympic education. The first principle was the ‘manifestations of contemporary Olympics’ which embraces the view of young people on their social-cultural background. In terms of this principle the core task of Olympic education should:

. . . analyse the sporting and socio-cultural lifeworld, with its different, positive and negative influences on the various manifestations of “contemporary Olympics”. This should involve examining, developing and promoting the idea of “Olympic principles” and their historical “cultural ideals”, while recognising, rejecting and transforming the problems of “contemporary Olympics” as potential hazards, possible obstacles and symptoms of crisis for the concept of “Olympic principles” (Naul, 2010: 412).

Naul (2010) added an educational objective of developing the young person by integrating aspects of knowledge, ability and experience, which summarise the essential subjective demands on Olympic education. Therefore, Naul (2010: 412) acknowledged the central educational principle derived from Olympic education as the:

Integrative support for the development of sporting, social, moral and intellectual education, which encourages individual sporting ability in the form of achievement, competition and fair play in order to develop various positive social experiences and moral values for the individual. Experiencing the ethico-moral principles of the Olympic idea in sporting behaviour, learning about moral behaviour and acquiring knowledge of the values and ideals of the Olympic movement, in order that moral behaviour in sport can be experienced and learned and knowledge about it can be conveyed and formed as a conscience for everyday life.

These education principles divide the Olympic education didactic approach into four topic areas: Olympic learning as *sporting efforts*, Olympic learning as *social conduct*, Olympic learning as *moral behaviour* and *Olympic knowledge* about the values of Olympism and its pedagogical concepts (Sage, 1993; Karatza-Stavlioti, 2001; Georgiadis, 2010; Naul, 2010). Naul (2010) subdivided these four subject areas/behaviour objectives into three development tasks (*disposals, actions and orientations*) in order to advance and consolidate the subject areas/behaviour objectives in order to formulate a matrix (see **Figure. 1**). This matrix intends to develop and advance the desired physical, social and moral behaviours of young people.

Olympism: Norms and Values in between ‘Legacy’ and Reality.

		<i>DISPOSALS</i>	<i>ACTIONS</i>	<i>ORIENTATIONS</i>
EDUCATION	<i>SPORTING EFFORTS</i>	TO EXERCISE IN EFFORT	TO SHARE COMPETITION	TO BEHAVE FAIRLY
	<i>SOCIAL CONDUCT</i>	TO ASPIRE SELF-PERFECTION	TO SEEK FOR GOOD EXAMPLES	TO ACT IN SOLIDARITY
	<i>MORAL BEHAVIOUR</i>	TO ADHERE TO THE RULES	TO ACCEPT VALUES	TO RESPECT DIFFERENT CULTURES
	<i>OLYMPIC KNOWLEDGE</i>	TO ACQUIRE KNOWLEDGE	TO UNDERSTAND OLYMPIC RULES	TO COMPARE VISION AND REALITY OF OLYMPIC IDEALS

Figure. 1- Didactic Matrix for Integrated Olympic education sourced from Naul (2010: 413)

Activities are orientated towards messages underpinning the Olympic Movement and encouraged its learners to “consider how . . . people can develop positive social attitudes, values and patterns of behaviour . . . through sport and physical activity” (Ministry of Education, 2000: 5).

2.3.4 PE Curricular and its possible link to Olympic Education

There is evidence that exists between a possible relationship of Olympic education and PE Curricular across the world (Culpan, 2001, 2002b; Culpan et al., 2007). Arnold (1979) was the first academic to propose a possible connection between PE and Olympism, and

believed that Coubertin's philosophy of young people learning through sport was associated to the model of learning *in*, *through* and *about* movement, which underlines any PE curricular. Arnold (1979) elaborated by suggesting that for PE to serve its purpose, young people require to be educated: *in* PE by developing the essential movements and skills that are required for successful participation in sport and everyday life; *through* PE to develop social, personal, and moral skills; and *about* PE by learning the health, social and cultural values of participating in sport (Culpan, 1997).

When considering the National Curriculum for PE (NCPE), there is the assumption that suggests a relationship between the 'key processes' of the NCPE and those of Olympic education (Parry, 1998b). Since 1991, the NCPE has undergone various changes, and has often identified Olympic values such as fair play and moral development within its curricular (DES/WO, 1991). However, in contrast to the Olympic values, the 1995 NCPE became more sport and games focused, with language suggesting the moral development of those that participate, removed or softened. Therefore, it would seem that the NCPE has tried to distance itself from the values associated to Olympic education. The diagram below, tries to unpick areas of Olympic education and NCPE (QCA, 2007) where there may be an "internal consistency" (Culpan, 2001: 3).

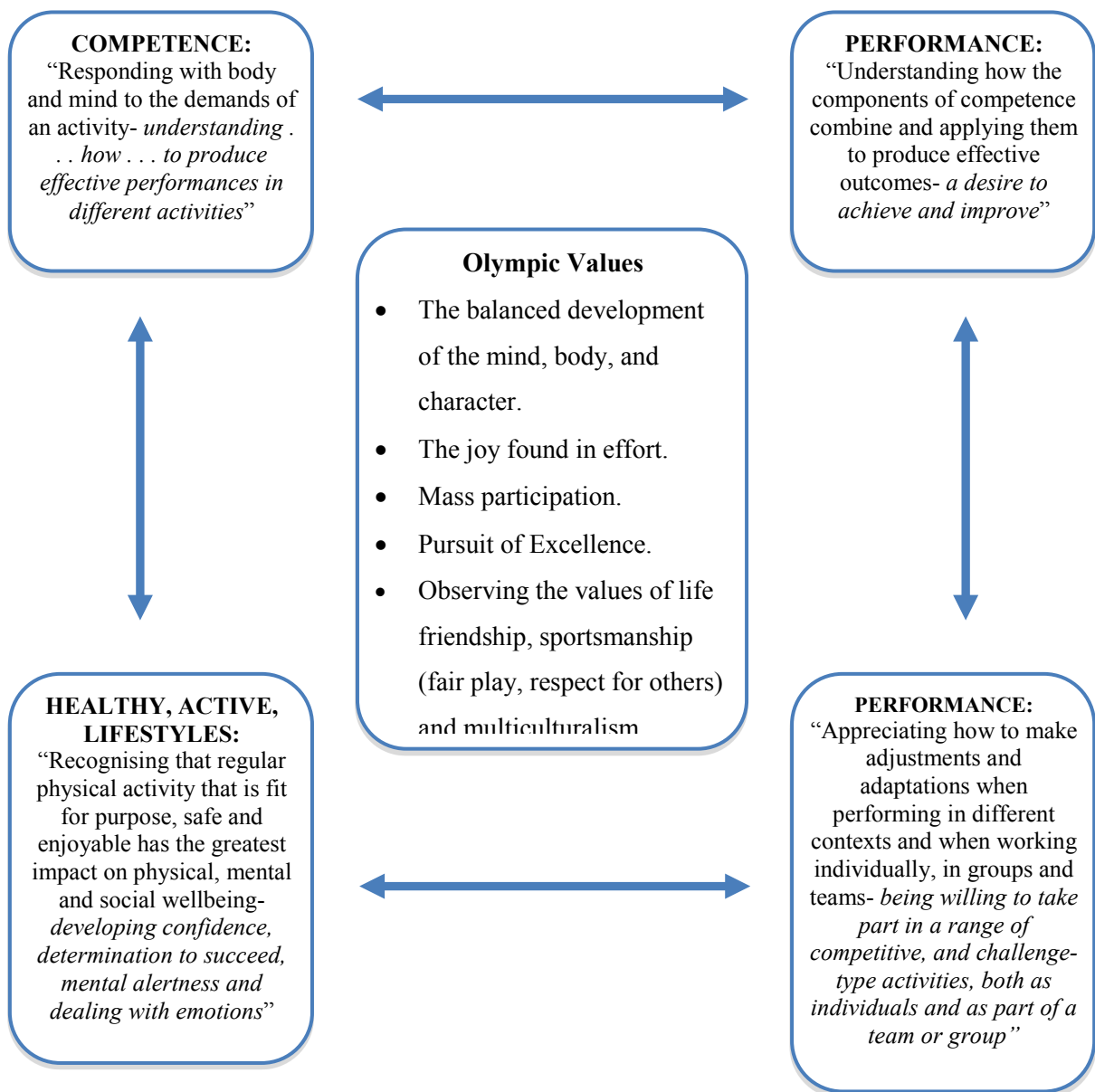


Figure. 2- Possible Relationship between the NCPE for Key Stage 4 and the values associated to Olympic education

Possible links include using participation in sport as a means to develop ethical behaviours (fair play, sportsmanship), harmony (joy of effort, friendship, multiculturalism) and moral character (trust) in young people. However, it could be argued that the NCPE has never been unpacked (historically or structurally) to include the fundamental concepts that

underpin the nature of Olympic education (Shields & Bredemeir, 1995), and merely laid next to Olympic education and assumed to be linked (Halstead & Taylor, 2000).

2.4 The Olympic 'Legacy' Evolution

2.4.1 A Definition of Olympic 'Legacy'

The Torino Organising Olympic Committee (2006: 7) state that “the success of the Olympic Games depends in no small measure on the legacy it leaves the world”. The term ‘legacy’ has become a key factor for major sporting event bid committees and has assumed ‘magical’ properties within Olympic circles (Masterman, 2003; MacAloon, 2008b). Although, the concept of ‘legacy’ has become ever-present in current debate of the impacts associated with staging an Olympic Games (Ritchie, 2000; Milton-Smith, 2002; Soteriades et al., 2006; Alberts, 2009), literature has failed to manufacture a clear definition of the term ‘legacy’ (Vigor, 2004; Woodhouse & Fielden, 2010). Moreover, according to Preuss (2007), the elusiveness of a widespread agreement and the uncertain nature on the concept of ‘legacy’ and its features, makes it rather surprising that more countries and cities are bidding for the rights to host major sporting festivals.

Cashman (2003) emphasises that “legacy is an elusive, problematic and even dangerous word” (33). Despite the lack of a clear definition, etymologically the term ‘legacy’ relates to the “property left by will” (Harper, 2001, cited in Preuss, 2007: 209) and can be defined and *operationalised* according to the semantic features and pragmatic consequences of an Olympic Games (MacAloon, 2008b). This is symbolised by the fact that ‘legacy’ belongs to a series of loosely defined terms including outcomes (Glynn, 2008), consequences (Gold & Gold, 2009), effects (Andranovitch et al., 2001), and impacts (Faulkner & Raybold, 1995; Toohey, 2008a). However, research acknowledges that ‘legacy’ is distinguished from

those other words “by virtue of the types of consequences and the time frames that are considered” (Gold & Gold, 2009: 181). Furthermore, the fact that ‘legacy’ focuses on the long-term features of an Olympics, with concepts such as inheritance (Taylor & Edmondson, 2007), the transfer of knowledge from ‘one generation to another’ (Clark, 2005), or more commonly anything that is enduring from the event or time period (Cashman, 2003), makes ‘legacy’ a more widely acceptable term in Olympic discussion. Gratton and Preuss (2008) proposed a definition of ‘legacy’ that aims to account for all the dimensions required by the IOC, “legacy is planned and unplanned, positive and negative, intangible and tangible structures created by and for a sport event that remains for a longer time than the event itself” (1924).

2.4.2 The 2012 ‘Youth Sports Legacy’

A significant challenge across the UK today is the task of getting more people involved in sport (Allender et al., 2006). The stakeholders associated with the London 2012 bid proposed to use the Games as a vehicle to endorse sports participation for all social groups but have particularly targeted young people (LOCOG, 2003, 2004). This has led researchers (Girginov & Hills, 2008: 2092) to suggest that this ‘promise’:

... is the most ambitious project in the history of the Olympic Games in terms of both its scope and level of change, as, in order to be implemented successfully, it has to address not only people’s behaviour but also deeply rooted social structures and relations.

Olympic research has widely accepted that ‘legacy’ is something that is handed down ‘from one generation to another’ (Clark, 2005; Jin & Li, 2011). Griffiths and Armour (In Review) highlight that in the perspective of London 2012:

... the proposed education legacy is ... seeking to secure a positive impact on young

people's lifestyle choices, values and aspirations. This is to be achieved through increased participation in sport, addressing youth disaffection, and orienting young people towards an understanding of their worlds in a global context.

Literature examining Olympic 'legacy' has normally occurred pre-Games, but once the event has finished the research considering any impact of an Olympic 'legacy' dries up (Baade & Matheson, 2000; Toohey, 2008b). This has led some to believe that any 'legacy' ambitions will only be realised if they are a part of existing structures (Mean et al., 2004). Therefore, some could argue that London 2012 offers an opportunity to deliver an intended 'legacy' through an existing 'Sport and PE Theme' that includes active initiatives and strategies, such as the PE, School Sport and Club Links Strategy (PESSCL) (DfES, 2003) and subsequently, the PE and Sport Strategy for Young People (PESSYP) (DCMS, 2008).

The rhetoric behind the 'Sport and PE' 'legacy' is illustrated in Public Service Agreement 22 (NAO, 2010) as it states that the aim is to "deliver a successful Olympic and Paralympic Games with a sustainable legacy and get more young people taking part in high quality PE and sport" (5). Before the recent review into the funding in school sport, the future of the PESSYP strategy (the method which was thought to deliver the 'youth sports legacy') remained under consideration (Woodhouse & Fielden, 2010). With the previous Labour administration having funded the project, the new Coalition Government remain unsure of where the PESSYP strategy features in their education/sport agenda (Woodhouse & Fielden, 2010). The assessment of young people's levels of sports participation has regularly been evaluated and monitored through different strategies, including the PE and Sport Survey (DfE, 2010), elements of the PESSCL/PESSYP strategies (DfES, 2003; YST, 2008), and the Taking Part Survey (DCMS, 2010a). However, despite the agenda of the 'youth sports legacy', which looks to increase participation in sport, the 'legacy' also considers the contribution of the

Olympics to education (BOA, 2004). This is highlighted by the two education proposals included in the Candidate File (BOA, 2004: 27):

.1. Creating an athlete ambassador programme for schools and community groups to personify the values of the Olympic Ideal. Athlete ambassadors will be drawn from the UK's past and potential Olympians

.2. Working with the Department for Education and Skills to create a range of educational materials that will support the national curriculum while spreading Olympic Values throughout the nation's schools.

As the Candidate File states, the London 2012 Olympics will be the first time that the Games and 'legacy' planning has worked hand in hand (BOA, 2004), even though it has been suggested that major sporting events are unlikely to have a significant impact on increasing sports participation (DCMS/Strategy Unit, 2002). Girginov and Hills (2008) highlight assumptions such as these exist because an Olympic 'legacy' constantly portrays sports participation as a macro-level target. Accordingly, these authors believe that achievement of sustainable sports participation should be treated as a micro-level target because an Olympic 'legacy' should be delivered towards specific communities, groups and activities. The alarmingly low average level of sports participation in the five Olympic boroughs enhances this assertion, with 40% of young people confessing to participating in no sport at all (Murphy, 2007). Additionally, a research study conducted by Queen Mary University (2003) highlighted 20% of boys and 22% of girls aged 7-11 were identified as obese and deprived of sports activity. Subsequently, deemed to have a strong ethnic community (Five Olympic Boroughs, 2007), the delivery implications of a sustainable sports participation 'legacy' in the Five Olympic Boroughs is likely to differ from those of other areas in the UK.

2.4.3 Changes in Government Thinking- The Olympic ‘Legacy’

One of the key bodies for an Olympic ‘legacy’ themed towards PESS is the Youth Sports Trust (YST), a charity that works with some of the ‘legacy’ stakeholders for the Olympics including the Olympic Legacy Company, the London Organising Committee for the Olympic and Paralympic Games (LOCOG), British Olympic Association, British Paralympic Association and Government departments to formulate strategies and initiatives through existing education and school sport infrastructure- namely the School Sport Partnerships (SSP) (Flintoff, 2003; Links SSP, 2011). Despite the investment and evolution of the PESS system from the Labour Government over the previous decade and the development of the SSP as part of the PESSCL/PESSYP strategies, the Coalition Government had intended to dismantle the ‘successful’ system, that “not only met the targets set by the previous Government, but exceeded every single one” (Campbell, 2010: 1). This is illustrated in a letter addressed to the YST by the Secretary of State for Education, Michael Gove (2010: 2):

The Coalition Government will encourage more competitive sport which should be a vibrant part of the life and ethos of all schools. We are committed to doing this through the creation of an annual Olympic-style school sport competition. The best way to create a lasting Olympic legacy in schools is to give them the freedom and incentives to organise it themselves, for themselves, rather than imposing a centralised government blueprint...Our approach differs fundamentally from that of the last Government. As part of this change of approach I have concluded that the existing network of SSP is neither affordable nor likely to be the best way to help schools achieve their potential in competitive sport.

Therefore, according to Griffiths and Armour (In Review), the intentions of the Coalition denotes a political and ideological shift in the intentions of how PESS is presented, with these authors highlighting that the Coalition Government’s new approach is represented through two clear aims:

- .1. To introduce more traditional competitive sport into schools - despite clear evidence that the school sport partnerships have increased the number of children engaged in competitive sport and extended the range of sports available.

- .2. To leave schools to decide on the amount of physical education/school sport on offer - despite the success of the partnerships in increasing the amount of PE and school sport offered and the wealth of historical evidence showing that curriculum time for PE declines when schools are free to determine its allocation.

These changes proposed, outline a different approach to the Olympic ‘legacy’ that was approved and formed by the previous Labour administration when the bid was presented back in 2004, with the approach centering around competitive sport in schools rather than looking at the Olympic values (Woodhouse & Fielden, 2010). Discussion on the Olympic values has considered the best approach to deliver the Olympic values in PESS through either competitive sport or sport for all (Arnold, 1996) and how these values can essentially help to develop young people (Parry, 1998a). This leads on to the next section of the literature review, which considers the important aspects of the theory of social capital and how these aspects can transmit back to the Olympic values and possible delivery of an Olympic ‘legacy’ to develop young people.

2.5 *Social Capital*

2.5.1 Defining Social Capital

Literature has so far failed to arrive at a universally agreed definition of the term social capital, which stems from the fact that social capital has been applied inconsistently to explain various phenomena across a wide range of applications (Reimer et al., 2008; Skinner et al., 2008; Oxby, 2009). This point is illustrated by the significant differences and the interpretations of social capital by the three most prominent researchers, Coleman (1988), Putnam (1995) and Bourdieu (1997). However, it must be stressed that these researchers do, according to Nicholson and Hoye (2008), share the concept of social networks as the foundation for their interpretation of social capital.

Often seen as the most well-rounded model (Blackshaw & Long, 2005), Bourdieu's model (1997) is based on social capital stemming from the quality and the extent of the social networks available to them and the means by which individuals mobilise these networks (Blackshaw & Long, 2005). Thus, Bourdieu's (1997) theory focuses on the potential dominance of those that have access to a strong social network, at the expense of those that do not have access. Significantly, as Coleman (1988) suggests, social structures facilitate the actions and intentions of those individuals who experience the social opportunities available to them. Therefore, social capital is an intangible concept, because it is founded on the relations between people and their social network (Coleman, 1988). Furthermore, Coleman (1988) believes that social capital is created by the quality of the interactions between different social networks.

Putnam (1995: 66) defined social capital as "the features of social organisation such as networks, norms and social trust that facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit". It could, therefore, be interpreted that social capital is a 'multi-stranded network' (Putnam et al., 2004; Reimer et al., 2008). Falk and Kilpatrick (2000: 103) furthered Putnam's definition by drawing upon the context of existing sport and political policies and defining social capital as "the product of interactions which contribute to the social, civic or economic wellbeing of a 'community-of-common purpose'". These interactions include knowledge of community attitudes, group values, networks and human capital as well as vision, trust and commitment (Falk & Kilpatrick, 2000).

2.5.2 Sports Role- 'Legacy' as Social Capital

For Griffiths and Armour (In Press), when evaluating the potential impact of the 'legacy' left behind by the London 2012 Olympic Games for young people, the claims made

by the relevant bodies could be analysed theoretically by “considering the Olympic legacy as a mechanism for generating social capital” for young people. Indeed, young people participate in physical activity and sport for a variety of reasons, including, compulsory PE in school (De Knop et al., 1996; Kremer, 1997), intrinsic and extrinsic motives (Vallerand & Rosseau, 2001; Vallerand, 2007).

Putnam (2000) identifies participation in sport as a mechanism for providing young people with the opportunities to connect and engage with others from alternative social backgrounds. Indeed, Bailey et al. (2009) stressed that PESS allows young people to develop social, moral and personal skills that then act as forms of social capital in order that young people can “engage actively in a range of social situations” (Griffiths & Armour, In Press). Although there appears a link between social engagement and sport and physical activity for young people, there remains a lack of evidence to substantiate this claim. However, despite the lack of empirical evidence into this relationship, some still believe that participation in sport can act as a form of ‘social participation’, which can promote social capital, individual empowerment and networking opportunities (Kay & Bradbury, 2009). Thus, social capital can be seen as a means for developing within communities, democratic values and civic engagement (Tonts, 2005; Coalter, 2007). Consequently, where social capital is evident, people begin to trust and engage in one and other (Tonts, 2005). Griffiths and Armour (In Press) stress that considering this, it is of no real surprise that through schemes such as Game Plan (DCMS/Strategy Unit, 2002), a significant importance has been placed on sport to bridge inequality and social exclusion. To support claims such as these, it is clear that the underlying message of sport-related UK policy documents, has changed its mentality from “developing sport *in* communities to developing communities *through* sport” (Griffiths & Armour, In Press).

Recently, scholars have employed the concept of social capital as a method for examining the effects of sports participation on social inclusion, civic engagement and community revitalisation (Tonts, 2005; Coalter, 2007). However, according to Griffiths and Armour (In Review), using social capital in these contexts has been criticised because:

- (i) the concept of social capital remains contested in terms of definition and scope; for instance social capital is used to describe both the characteristics of interaction (social relations), but also the effect (e.g. trust); and,
- (ii) much of the literature portrays social capital as a wholly positive outcome, largely ignoring the negative aspects of the theory.

Consequently, it is not surprising that the aims of the London 2012 ‘legacy’ are based on the foundations of developing social capital *in* and *for* young people.

2.5.3 Social Capital and Social Exclusion

Putnam (1995) considers social capital as the connection between people and demonstrates the “features of social life-networks, norms and trust-that enable participants to act together to pursue shared objectives” (665). From a similar perspective, Cox (1995) refers to social capital as the “social fabric or glue” (15), which links individuals together. The core of this concept and understanding social capital is trust and reciprocity (Coleman, 1988; Field, 2003; Reimer et al., 2008; Glanville & Bienenstock, 2009). Glanville and Bienenstock, (2009: 1512) classify trust as “expectations of good will and acceptance of risk or vulnerability” and reciprocity as “a norm that requires a return in kind of a good or service rendered”. But as highlighted with preaching the Olympic values in education, how can elements of trust be developed through PESS and an Olympic ‘legacy’? Indeed it could be argued that the ideal context would be developing social capital through what is deemed ‘brokerage’ (Foley & Edwards, 1999). ‘Brokerage’ has two core aspects: (i) certifying that individuals and groups know that information exists; and (ii) those individuals or groups of people actively seek to

develop social relationships and access the information (Foley & Edwards, 1999). Therefore, it is imperative ‘legacy actors’ guarantee that young people are aware of what resources are available to them and also search for any sporting opportunities, instead of taking a passive approach to ‘legacy’ initiatives. As a result, the ‘youth sports legacy’ should provide young people with the opportunity to demonstrate a critical approach to sport and the Olympics (Griffiths & Armour, In Review).

Elkington (1982, cited in Atherley, 2006: 350), who examined the contribution of social capital in Australia, stressed that sport had the ability to draw together and allow public admiration for people from all backgrounds. Cashman (2002) supports this assertion by indicating that sport advocates egalitarianism. Conversely, Tonts (2005) believes that this argument does not address the real issues of inequality and exclusion within sport such as status and class (Dempsey, 1990; Tonts, 2005). As a result, “within a social capital context, the exclusionary side of sport can be understood by distinguishing between the bridging (inclusive) and bonding (exclusive) (or building) elements of social capital” (Atherley, 2006: 350). Sport can provide opportunities for both the bridging and bonding of social capital (Harris, 1998; Bale, 2003; Seippel, 2006) by forming friendships and social connectivity and interaction between different social networks (Hague & Mercer, 1998). Bridging social capital demotes the “wider overlapping networks that generate broader identities and reciprocity” (Tonts, 2005: 138). In this sense, resources are linked between people from diverse social networks, regardless of ethnicity, socio-economic status, or religion. Therefore, bridging social capital makes existing resources and opportunities available from one network to a range of others (Portes, 1998). Contrastingly, bonding social capital demotes “to trust and reciprocity within dense or closed networks” (Tonts, 2005: 138). This refers to bonds that are made within closely associated networks such as at school or sports clubs. However, the

problem here is that the norms and values of trust and reciprocity are only beneficial to those within the networks; to those who are ‘outsiders’ to the network, the effects can be negative and hostile (Tonts, 2001; Field, 2003), developing ‘the darker side’ of social capital (Putzel, 1997). Consequently, it may be fair to say that sport does not have any unique characteristics that make it a necessity for social capital development of young people (Seippel, 2006). Nevertheless promoted within a school environment and a curriculum context, social capital may be better resourced to ensure positive effects for young people (Bankston, 2004).

2.5.4 Social Capital and PESS

Within the 2012 Candidate File (BOA, 2004), government agendas (Department of the Deputy Prime Minister, 2004) and in PESS (Christodoulou, 2009), there are references to the contribution of sports participation and education to the widespread benefit of young people. Thus, it may be seen that because PESS is available to the entire social spectrum of young people (Home Office, 2002; McKenzie et al., 2004), it can be identified as a socially inclusive activity and an ideal setting to create social capital for all young people (Bruegel, 2006). However, there is a fear that despite this, young people between the ages of 5-16 participate in sport through compulsory PE and, with further opportunities through extra-curricular activities, there is literature that suggests that the outcomes of these activities differ dependant on their social group (Green, Smith & Roberts, 2005). Specifically, one common finding is the effect of comparable household income on the level of participation in sport (Estabrooks et al., 2003). Brunton and colleagues (2003) pointed to the fact that young people from lower income families fail to participate in sport because of a lack of accessible, affordable facilities. Therefore, there are suggestions that regardless of the fact that all young people experience some kind of PE, there seems to be differentiation in the execution of PE depending on religion, ethnicity, gender, social class and ability (Kirk, 2010). It must be

stressed that this in turn changes the impact of social capital on young people (Green et al., 2005).

But what can such implications on the delivery of a ‘youth sports legacy’ have on the impact of PESS and young people? The only research into this topic by Griffiths and Armour (In Press) clarifies that although ‘legacy’ strategies may affect those already participating or interested in sport, they may also have no influence on the individuals who experience PESS differently or are excluded from PESS. Consequently, Griffiths and Armour (In Press) assume that a ‘youth sports legacy’ delivered through PESS “has as much potential to reinforce, as to challenge, inequalities in the development of both social and other forms of capital for children and young people”.

2.6 Chapter Conclusion

Considering the above, this study therefore focuses upon on how the proposed ‘youth sports legacy’ of the London 2012 Olympic Games and the values inherent in Olympic education that are connected to PESS can help develop young people through elements of the theory of social capital. In particular, the study will focus on how to prevent social exclusion of young people through the delivery of Olympic-orientated initiatives in PESS, and how trust and reciprocity, and ‘bonding’ and ‘bridging’ social capital between young people is enhanced because of participation in these ‘legacy’ initiatives and experience of Olympic-type values in PESS.

Chapter 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1 *Chapter Introduction*

This chapter provides a step-by-step account and justifies the rationale for employing certain research strategies that were used to formulate, analyse and interpret data for this study. This section discusses the challenges of conducting qualitative research in practice. Studies examining the separate effects of an Olympic ‘legacy’, Olympic education, Olympic values and social capital on young people have consistently used the qualitative approach to research (Binder, 2005; Girginov & Hills, 2008; Reimer et al., 2008) and this study will therefore, use qualitative research.

3.2 *The Context of Research*

3.2.1 The Ontology and Epistemology

Literature has identified that research should consider the strategy formulated to collect data (Marsh et al., 1999; Blaikie, 2000, 2007; Grix, 2002). Sparkes (1992: 14) illustrated that a research strategy is underpinned by the:

. . . ontological assumptions [that] give rise to epistemological assumptions which have methodological implications for the choices made regarding particular techniques of data collection, the interpretation of these findings and the eventual ways they are written about and presented.

According to Grix (2002), research is weakened by the failure to identify the differentiation between ontology and epistemology. Thus, ontology is defined as:

. . . claims and assumptions that are made about the nature of social reality, claims about what exists, what it looks like, what units make it up and how these units interact with each other. In short, ontological assumptions are concerned with what we believe constitutes social reality (Blaikie, 1993: 8).

From these ontological assumptions, the epistemological and methodological positions logically follow (Grix, 2002). In this study, the epistemological positions reflect and validate

the knowledge gained through the opinions and views of its participants (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). It is important to acknowledge the ontological and epistemological assumptions because they form the foundations of the different paradigms or traditions, which underpin research (Blaxter et al., 2001).

In this study, an interpretive, constructivist paradigm was utilised. The ontological approach recognises that those views and observations generated by participants provide an interpretation of the social world in which we live (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Gerson & Horowitz, 2002; Krane & Baird, 2005). Consequently, Marsh and Smith (2001) believe that research does not search to attain objective explanations and facts, instead seeking to provide an interpretive understanding where the research methods and principles are aligned to these interpretations (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003). Therefore, a researcher's responsibility is to "uncover the multiple social constructions of meaning and knowledge" (Robson, 2002: 27). These principles have shaped the research strategy in this study through the methods used to; pose questions to the participants, how the data was interpreted, and the way the findings are evaluated and reported. In order to account for these principles, this section will now consider the methodological issues of this study.

3.2.2 Methodological Issues

This study adopts a qualitative approach instead of a quantifiable, statistical method. Considering the ontological and epistemological stance, it is necessary for this study to formulate a series of opinions, views and experiences. Snape and Spencer (2003) illustrate that qualitative research provides complex, rich, in-depth data, based on subjects' thoughts and understandings, which can help explain any subject relationship arrangements. Denzin and Lincoln (2005) stress qualitative research is particularly good at studying "things in their

natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them” (3). Therefore, qualitative researchers assume a *naturalistic* approach to the subject, as they concentrate on examining and understanding the meanings of the accounts and the social behaviours of the phenomena and the world that they live in (Blaxter et al., 2001; Barbour, 2008; Johnson & Christiansen, 2008). Thus in this study, qualitative research was used to find out “what happens, how it happens, and why it happens” (Edwards and Skinner, 2009: 49) in terms of the ‘youth sports legacy’ towards developing young people.

Literature consistently discusses the role and the influences of the researcher on qualitative research (Patton, 2002). Therefore, it is important that a researcher identifies any potential influences or biases that may affect the research process; consequently, this chapter will now provide a short biographical account of the researcher.

3.3 *The Researcher*

3.3.1 Profile

The researcher has been involved in sport for the past seventeen years. During this period, the researcher’s interest in the potential of London 2012 to affect young people began to grow. The researcher previously conducted a dissertation into the potential of the Olympic 2012 ‘legacy’ influencing sports participation for young people. The findings illustrated that the Olympic values and PESS needed to be integrated within a broader Olympic ‘legacy’ strategy to provide desired outcomes for young people. During a gap year, the researcher spent time working in the PE Department at the school, which is part of this study, so the researcher understands the key features and the requirements of PE teachers inside the NCPE and at the school.

3.3.2 Researcher Bias

The researcher's background helped facilitate interest in the field of inquiry. Consequently, the researcher becomes aware of and improves: the possibility of asking probing or follow-up questions to the original research strategy/methods (Amis, 2005); the quality of the data interpreted and presented (Sands, 2002); and the potential to provide "rich, contextual information that can increase the depth of our knowledge about particular subjects" (Chambers, 2000: 862). The researcher was aware that because of his professional and personal background there was a possibility of presenting conscious and unconscious views, feelings, opinions, motives and bias (Scheurich, 1995; Ogden, 2008). Subsequently, the research design considers existing understanding on the topic and implements it within the design, so that this prior knowledge can be used and tested within this study (Richards, 2009). Additionally, to ensure that the researcher remained an "objective outsider" (Hartnett & Engels, 2005: 1050), it was decided that the sample would involve PE teachers and young people that the researcher had not previously worked with or taught in an attempt to minimise possible researcher bias.

3.3.3 Reflexivity

Reflexivity, or the researchers' reflections and observations of their research (Preissle, 2008), are measured through *subjective statements*, which summarise "who researchers are in relation to what and whom they are studying" (Preissle, 2008: 844). Considering that in qualitative research a researcher's communication is a fundamental variable of the process (Flick, 2006), the researcher's opinions, feelings or preferences along with those of the participants are therefore essential to the research design (Siegesmund, 2008). For many, the key to the research process is a researcher's reflexivity and their ability to minimise any

subjectivities that could hinder the design and affect the sample (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2004). Therefore, to minimise subjectivity in this study, the researcher has kept the data collection and the recruitment of possible participants as simple as possible (Flick, 2006). As a result, interviews with teachers and young people took place in a classroom during PE lessons and the interviews with ‘legacy actors’ took place in their offices, so the research collection would take place in an environment where participants felt comfortable and with minimal interruptions (Flick, 2006).

3.4 Pilot Study

A pilot study was included to assist the researcher in developing a strong justification for the research strategy, but also to provide the researcher with the opportunity to practice and refine the research strategy (Marshall & Rossman, 2006). Thus, prior to the data collection for the main study, a pilot study was conducted in February 2011 with one PE teacher, one ‘legacy actor’ and one young person. It must be stressed that all participants in the pilot were not included in the main study. Participants were recruited through similar methods explained within this section, to ensure there were no problems with participant recruitment and also to guarantee that the main study would be ethically legitimate (Robson, 2002). Semi-structured interviews were used, and the PE teacher was asked twenty-four questions, the ‘legacy actor’ was asked sixteen questions and the young person was asked fifteen questions.

On finishing the pilot study, the researcher was provided with the opportunity to fine-tune the interview protocol. Revisions included: changing the order of the questions asked in the interview protocol to ensure a “more natural order” (Arthur & Nazaroo, 2003: 135), removing and adding questions from the interview protocol, adding additional follow-up

questions and also changing the language of the questions that were unclear to the participants or did not provide sufficient answers. These reflections were based on the researcher's opinion on whether the research strategy and methods used in the main study would answer the research questions.

3.5 Research Methods

3.5.1 Case Study of a Local Borough

Case studies are best utilised when research requires evaluating complex behaviours and their contexts (Stake, 1994), especially when the confines between the behaviour and the context are unclear (Yin, 2003). This premise is particularly significant for this study, which searches to analyse contributions of various agencies connected to a 'youth sports legacy' and delivery of PESS within the same geographical location (a London borough). Selecting the case to examine is a particularly significant aspect within the research process. This is highlighted by Stake (1994) who illustrated that the "most unique aspect of case study in the social sciences and human services is the selection of cases to study" (243). A case is chosen to either reproduce previous cases, broaden emerging issues, or to fill theoretical gaps in current research (Yin, 1981; Dempsey, 1990; Tellis, 1997). Thus, selecting an independent and interrelated case would be most beneficial for gathering significant data for this study, but also guarantee a logical research structure and coherent research process. Therefore, the case and sample were selected based on their geographical location and their potential effect on young people in that geographical location.

Selection of a specific case for the research inquiry depends on the kind of case study adopted. This study conducted an exemplifying case (Bryman, 2004), which answers the research question by providing a context and insight into a particular issue (Yin, 1981, 2003).

However, exactly what a case demonstrates may not become evident until the researcher begins collecting data (Bryman, 2004). This is particularly evident in this study where the choice of case was selected without knowing any specific contributions and partnerships between each of the selected 'legacy' agencies on the geographical location selected.

3.5.2 Interviews

This study's intention is to understand and construct opinions, views and experiences of the participants involved in the study. Fontana and Frey (2005) identify the interview as the most effective method of collecting data that addresses human perceptions and opinions, as this assists the researcher in understanding "what the interviewee views as important in explaining and understanding events, patterns and forms of behaviour" (Bryman, 2004: 321). Therefore, the interview will be an important research method for the data collection in this study.

Interviews can be classified as structured, semi-structured or unstructured, or alternatively as individual or group interviews. This study will predominantly use individual semi-structured interviews, but the interviewing of young people due to accessibility and time constraints will be undertaken through individual and group semi-structured interviews. Literature has acknowledged that using both individual and group interviews in the same qualitative study could provide comparability limitations for the researcher (Barriball & While, 1994; Gaskell, 2000) because of their ability to manufacture "*different perspectives on the same issues*" (May, 1993: 94). Nevertheless, using both interview techniques could also strengthen the study, especially when interviewing young people, because it could generate "more opportunities for 'soapbox' stances to be expressed" (Lewis, 1992: 419).

An interview protocol guides semi-structured interviews and provides the opportunity for the interviewer to elicit data based on relevant topics, whilst also giving interviewers the freedom to probe and ask supplementary questions to extract additional information based on interesting information that emerges in the interview (Burns, 2000; Bryman, 2001). Utilising semi-structured interviews as a research method allows freedom in the data collection process because each individual interview can be tailored towards each respondent to provide topic-related answers (Devine, 1995; Fielding & Thomas, 2001; Duke, 2002). This is important in this study when considering the inquiry of the delivery of any Olympic values or ‘youth sports legacy’ in PESS because the various interviewees (teachers, young people and ‘legacy actors’) all have different roles within the ‘legacy’ and, consequently, their knowledge and interpretation of ‘legacy’ constructs could vary. Thus, the amount of questions asked at each interview varied from seven questions for the PE teachers, fourteen questions for young people and twelve questions to the ‘legacy actors’ (*see Appendix A*). Additionally, the timings of the interviews ranged from 21-93 minutes (*see Appendix B*).

The interview protocol was designed through important themes identified by the researcher in relation to the topic and the research design. Literature supports the rationale of asking questions in an interview that are linked to key themes identified previously in research (Pawson, 1995; Rubin & Rubin, 2005). Thus, issues highlighted in the Literature Review will form the foundations of the questions posed to the participants in this study. For example, the key Olympic education objectives highlighted by Grammatikopoulos et al. (2004, 2005) will be used to outline the questions related to the potential delivery and contribution of the ‘legacy’ and Olympic values in PESS towards the development of young people. The questions asked will also depend on the interviewee(s), as some of the questions

in the interview protocol may be unsuitable for particular participants. For example, questions relating to the delivery of the 'youth sports legacy' will be inappropriate for young people.

Qualitative researchers are encouraged by scholars to use a variety of question forms throughout an interview process (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995; Robson, 2002). The semi-structured interviews were guided by a series of open-ended questions. Through using this flexible approach, the researcher probed for additional information with supplementary questions, related to interesting lines of inquiry that materialised from the interviewees' answers. The 'probing' questions would be asked until the researcher was satisfied that all and emerging issues had been covered (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). However, in order to provide consistency throughout the interview data collection process, when possible, questions were asked in the same order (Patton, 1990; Côté et al., 1995).

Similarly to the observations made on the researcher's role made earlier, the interviewer can also affect the data collection process. Specifically, it is important for semi-structured interviews to construct a relationship of trust between the interviewer and the interviewee (May, 1997; Patton, 2002); although, May (1993) admits there is a worry between trust building and the reliability of semi-structured interviews. This could be evident when interviewees give answers that they believe are desirable and answers what the interviewer wishes to hear (Fielding & Thomas, 2001). This could particularly be the case when 'legacy actors' provide answers to the questions related to the contribution of any potential 'youth sports legacy' developing young people. Furthermore, by building an element of trust with the interviewees, the researcher may be able to elicit confidential or sensitive information that may create unexpected additions to the data (Robson, 2002). In this study the researcher attempted to gain the trust of the interviewees by explaining the role of the researcher and the aims of the study. A further issue or potential cause of unreliable interview data is the

falsification of previous experiences and attempts to rationalise actions (Legard et al., 2003). Consequently, it is wrong for the researcher to assume the actions presented by the participant in the interview are the same as the actions themselves. To minimise this risk, the researcher carried out ‘member checking’ to ensure that the opinions of the interviewees are portrayed correctly by the participant and the researcher.

3.5.3 Documentary Analysis

Documentary analysis involves analysing journal articles, policy documents and books amongst a broad range of documents available, in an attempt to understand their substantive content and meanings (Ritchie, 2003), but also looks to “elucidate the social processes through which they were formed” (Scott, 1990: 37). This point is enhanced by May (1993) who expresses that documents are “mediums through which social power is expressed” (139). Consequently, documentary analysis provides the researcher with the opportunity to assess further issues that interviewees fail to recognise or they perceive are not important to the inquiry (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995).

According to Prior (2008), the availability of documents to analyse is a major consideration when using documentary analysis. Therefore, before proceeding with further issues linked to using documentary analysis, clarity of the documentation that will form part of the analysis for this study is required. Official government documentation related to PESS agendas, development of social capital for young people and the London 2012 Olympic Games will be available to help the researcher establish possible interviewees and also help provide substantial evidence for the discussion on the ‘legacy’ and possible links between PESS agendas and Olympic values. Additional available documents include academic literature, which provides evidence and components of previous Olympic values and Olympic

education programmes, ‘legacy’ contributions to young people and social capital. Relevant documents will be identified in both the interviews and the analysis of the researcher. Questions of researcher bias will be removed as long as the researcher can defend the use of the documents as part of the findings in the study to the reader (Ritchie, 2003). The researcher found public documents published through the important Olympic and PESS stakeholders, in addition to searching through Google Scholar and other academic search engines for other important documents and books which would aid the analysis.

Scott (1990) stressed that when using documentary analysis the researcher is required to address four issues: (i) authenticity; (ii) credibility; (iii) representativeness; and (iv) meaning. Furthermore, the primary consideration when considering these four issues is to address and determine “the social and political context in which the document has been produced” (May, 1997: 170). However, when considering the different documents used as part of the analysis, some of these four issues will be more relevant than others.

The first of these issues, authenticity, is the easiest to assess. It entails the researcher agreeing with the originality of the document in terms of the correct publishing date and the author is who it is said to be (Macdonald, 2001). Nevertheless, for documents used in this study, this is unlikely to be relevant for those documents published by official governing bodies or part of government agendas, as well as, recently released academia. Credibility of documentary analysis reflects the honesty of an author’s findings and the context of their research, but also reflecting the reasons for producing that research (Scott, 1990). For example, evaluations of previous Olympic-impact based studies are often produced to promote the positive outcomes and refute possible negative effects. Consequently, it could be argued that these documents are published so that the relevant bodies assess the impacts of hosting an Olympics positively. Representativeness is important when considering the

accessibility and availability of documents and whether all documents are readily available to the researcher (Scott, 1990).

Finally, when a researcher attempts to understand and analyse the meaning of documents, Scott (1990) identifies that there are three meanings documents can construe: (i) an ‘internal meaning’; (ii) the meaning of the document from the author’s perspective; and (iii) the meaning of the document identified by the audience. By ‘internal meaning’, the researcher attempts to explore possible hidden agendas, issues, values and thoughts that underpin the context of documents (Macdonald, 2001). Therefore, in terms of ‘internal meaning’, documentary analysis refers to the procedure where the “researcher relates the literal meaning of the document to the contexts in which they were produced in order to understand the meaning of the text as a whole” (Scott, 1990: 30). Thus, this study’s analysis will not solely be theoretically based, but also the interview phenomena will provide the research with a more in-depth analysis because the interview data can be used to substantiate the frameworks located in the official and academic documents (May, 1993)

3.6 *Research Design*

3.6.1 Sampling Method

Thomas and Nelson (2001) illustrate that a group of participants within a study are referred to as a sample. Miles and Huberman (1994) identified a number of different sampling techniques, which are linked to qualitative research. Selecting those to participate in the study is an important aspect of the research design because the researcher can then collect in-depth data to answer the research questions. Therefore, this study will utilise a combination of purposive and snowball sampling.

The intention of purposive sampling is to select a typical group of interviewees who are able to provide insights that are most likely to correspond with the research question (Silverman, 2001; Robson, 2002; Bryman, 2004). In this study, through the analysis of official London 2012 and government documents, various bodies and potential interviewees were identified. Purposive selection was used in turn with snowball sampling, where additional interviewees who fit the sample criteria were identified as a part of the interview process with the original participant sample (Ritchie et al., 2003). In this study, the advantage of using snowball sampling was tapping into a network of people who are not widely disclosed in the public domain, such as key figures involved with creating the 2012 Olympic 'legacy'. However, because snowball sampling generates new participants through the original sample members, there is clearly a possibility of compromising the diversity of the sample (Morgan, 2008). To remove this potential problem, at the end of each interview the researcher specified the characteristics of possible additions to the sample, but asked interviewees to identify individuals who were dissimilar to them in their job specifications and their individual roles.

3.6.2 Participants

The study included fourteen participants. The first set of interviews were carried out with six 14-15 year-old students at a school located twenty minutes away from the Olympic Park, and was selected for this study based on its close proximity to the Olympic Park. The Director of Sport at the School (DoS) purposely selected the young people to partake in the study. The sample was purposive because the young people ranged in their levels of sporting ability, knowledge of the Olympics and their enthusiasm towards sport. Of the six students, three were male and three were female. Young people were used in this study to formulate

data that represented a variety of opinions and knowledge to help understand the potential of the ‘youth sports legacy’ and any Olympic values on their personal development. In addition to these young people, three PE teachers were interviewed, from the same school to ensure consistency. The teachers were selected based on their previous relationships with the researcher and ranged in ages from 27-52 years old and teaching experience from 5-30 years. PE teachers were chosen to give views and experiences of the promotion of Olympic type values and initiatives within PESS and the potential of using those values as a method to develop their students.

Other participants included those close to developing a ‘youth sports legacy’. Participants ranged in ages, 22-59 years old and experience ranged from 1-40 years in a variety of sectors. Consequently, the study gained an insight into the minds of the people behind delivering the ‘youth sports legacy’. Hence it offered the researcher the opportunity to learn about the various processes that are a part of the Olympic Games and ‘youth sports legacy’, which could influence the development of young people. All fourteen interviewees were given a pseudonym name before the interview and were referred to from that point forward by the pseudonym, as fulfilment of the researcher’s promise to ensure anonymity throughout the research process (*see Appendix B*). The participants who were members of the various institutes involved with the processes of the ‘youth sports legacy’ (*see Appendix B*), and also the various documents, used were given a generic name of ‘legacy actor’ instead of revealing the name of the actual ‘legacy’ institute, which could lead to some of the participants being identified in the study.

3.7 *Data Analysis*

Attride-Stirling (2001) believes that for research to produce significant, detailed results, it is necessary for the collected data to be analysed in a methodological manner. Therefore, to ensure this, each interview was tape-recorded and fully transcribed within a Word document. Considering previous recommendations of data analysis for unstructured qualitative data (Creswell, 1998, 2009; Attride-Stirling, 2001; Fielding & Thomas, 2001), this study adopted aspects of the “grounded theory analytic process” (Harry et al., 2005: 3). Inductive and deductive analytical procedures can provide the foundations for this procedure (Le Compte & Preissle, 1993).

The intentions of using this approach are to arrange the interview transcripts into “manageable and meaningful text segments” (Attride-Sterling, 2001: 390) by reducing the data into common themes and categories. This study adopted this strategy through a coding framework of the interview transcripts. The first step in this procedure is ‘open coding’ (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). This meant that the researcher read each interview transcript and identified significant, common actions and events in the data, including single words, quotations, and sentences, before comparing them with one another and placing them into the pre-established criterion (semi-structured interview protocol).

As the analysis progressed, the researcher clustered the commonalities of the open codes into conceptual sub-divisions within the pre-established criterion that centred on similar events or ‘axes’ (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). This is known as ‘axial coding’ (de Vaus, 2001). The third and final part of this process refers to the ‘selective coding’ or ‘abstraction process’ (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). Here the researcher formed new categories through the selection of some of the already identified codes that groups a “set of relational statements that can be used to explain, in a general sense, what is going on” (Strauss & Corbin, 1998: 145). This was done

in this study to identify possible interrelationships and ‘themes’ between the codes that may not be in the same category originally, but data that belongs together (Dey, 1993) as the researcher began to construct interesting topics for discussion. It is important to illustrate that the categories and the codes are identified through “the interpretive lens of the researcher” (Harry et al., 2005: 5), so the researcher had to remain as objective as possible. Data was scrutinised until clear themes and issues had emerged (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

3.8 Ethics

Silverman (2001: 200) acknowledges that before qualitative methodology uses the views and opinions of people, it is important that a study identifies “not only the values of the researcher but the researcher’s responsibilities to those studied”. This is important when using interviews as “the objects of inquiry in interviewing are humans, extreme care must be take to avoid any harm to them” (Fontana & Frey, 2005: 715). Consequently, before proceeding with any data collection process, an initial research proposal of the methods and ethical conditions of the study were presented and approved through the University’s Ethics Committee.

In order to gain access to potential interviewees, the researcher needed permission from the appropriate personnel, who had the ability to give the researcher access to potential participants. This is known as the ‘gatekeeper’. Hammersley (2008) highlighted the importance of identifying a ‘gatekeeper’ because they are the individuals who control the group of which the researcher wishes to examine. Before conducting research with the young people and the PE teachers, the school and parents had to provide formal consent. The identified ‘gatekeeper’ for this group was the DoS. The initial consent from the DoS was based on the researcher undergoing a full Criminal Records Bureau check, and gaining consent from parents of the young people. This is because Darlington and Scott (2002)

question the extent to which young people can give their own consent to partake in a qualitative study and whether it is legally meaningful. Therefore, once these conditions had been met, the DoS granted access to the interviewees.

Gaining access to ‘legacy actors’ was done through a person not involved with the planning of the 2012 Games but had contacts within the ‘legacy’ planning process. Once identified, potential participants were initially contacted through the ‘source’ before initial consent was given, allowing the researcher the opportunity to speak to participants directly. The researcher provided each participant with an information sheet (*see Appendix C*) that would provide an explanation for the reason of their involvement (McFee, 2006) and consent form (*see Appendix D*) that required signatures from the ‘gatekeeper’ and themselves to validate their consent to participate in the study. Once full consent had been agreed, participants were contacted via phone and e-mail to arrange times and settings for when/where the interviews would take place. The interviewee chose the dates and times for these interviews, so that interviews would cause little disruption to their daily routines.

The researcher ensured that participants were aware that their consent would guarantee that participation is voluntary (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003) but also emphasising their rights and views would remain anonymous and confidential throughout the research process. This was a part of an explicit confidentiality agreement between the researcher and the participant, which also confirmed that all personal details would remain solely with the researcher. Anonymity in a study ensures that apart from the researcher nobody else reading the study will be able to recognise any of the participants from their responses (Babbie, 2007). Furthermore, although initial consent was granted, all participants were informed that they had the option to withdraw or abstain from any question at any time in the interviews. Subsequently, all potential participants agreed to partake in the study.

3.9 *Establishing Validity and Reliability*

3.9.1 Validity

Validity is termed the “extent to which an account accurately represents the social phenomena to which it refers” (Hammersley, 1990 cited in Silverman, 2001: 175). Literature has acknowledged that when using interviews for data collection, validity can be a particular problem for the researcher (Golafashani, 2003; Legard et al., 2003). This is because interviews are a method to elicit self-reported experiences and opinions from the interviewees, and the researcher must ensure the interviewees do not consciously or subconsciously mislead them (Flick, 2002). In order to counteract this problem, it was important for the researcher to understand the culture of those studied to enhance the level of trust between the researcher and the interviewees. This enhances the chances of the participants giving truthful, legitimate answers and the researcher obtaining solid data (Charmaz, 2001). Thus, a research relationship that avoided the stereotypical question and answer axis between interviewee and interviewer was developed and a more informal discussion was endorsed. A further characteristic of the researcher to enhance the validity of the study was to provide non-ambiguous questions in the semi-structured interview protocol that would not provide any possibility of personal characteristics being identified in answers.

3.9.2 Authenticity

Authenticity is a theme closely linked to validity (Schwandt, 2001) and concerns ensuring that research is meaningful for society (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). Authenticity attempts to ensure the “conduct and evaluation of research are genuine and credible not only in terms of participants’ lived experiences but also with respect to the wider political and

social implications of research” (James, 2008: 44). Therefore, the researcher attempted to accurately portray the experiences and opinions of those involved by, firstly, tape-recording the entire interview before each was transcribed fully into a word document (Richards, 2009). This would prepare the foundation for the data analysis but also ensure that the researcher’s views would correspond with what was actually said in the interview. Secondly, the researcher prepared a ‘feedback loop’ in the research design. This involved the researcher returning the discussion section to ensure that the interviewees were happy with the text fully reflecting their opinions on the research inquiry (Piantanida & Garman, 1999).

3.9.3 Reliability

Reliability refers to the “degree of consistency with which instances are assigned to the same category by different observers or by the same observer on different occasions” (Hammersley, 1992 cited in Silverman, 2001: 175). Thus, reliability is the researcher’s expectations to replicate and obtain the same findings if the study was researched again using a similar or the same research design (Silverman, 2004). To ensure the interview data remained reliable, a semi-structured interview protocol was employed, where similar questions were asked, in order to produce in-depth data that gave the best opportunity for the researcher to highlight recurring themes and issues within the data analysis process. However, it must be noted that the findings from the interviews may differ, because the interviews were structured towards the individuals involved.

Janesick (1995) stresses that using triangulation techniques is a method of enhancing the reliability of a research strategy, but triangulation is also important when guaranteeing quality research (Patton, 2002). Triangulation methods used in this study included gathering data from individuals involved with the delivery of the 2012 youth sports and education

legacies, PESS and the young people who both the ‘legacy’ and PESS are aimed at. An additional triangulation technique was combining the interview data with the data collected from the documentary analysis to try to verify the findings from the interviews.

3.9.4 Trustworthiness

Curtin and Fossey (2007) state that trustworthiness refers to “the extent to which the findings are an authentic reflection of the personal or lived experiences of the phenomenon under investigation” (89). Literature has established that the one particular problem of ensuring trustworthiness in a qualitative study is the possible affect the researcher has on influencing the development of the inquiry, by fabricating the opinions of those studied (Padgett, 1998; Lietz et al., 2006; Gray, 2009). Within this study, trustworthiness was developed through “member checking” (Sandelowski, 2008: 501). This was utilised for the “confirmability” (Given & Saumure, 2008: 895) and understanding of the research data matching the interpretations and findings presented by those being studied. The researcher achieved this by repeating and summarising important issues and themes highlighted in the interviewees answers, before asking whether this summary provided supported their answer.

3.10 Chapter Conclusion

Qualitative research was selected as the research methodology for this study because of its ability to formulate a series of opinions, views and experiences. This chapter provided an overview of the research methods used and justified the reasons why they were selected, in addition to all other procedures and factors related to analysing and collecting the data. From these procedures, various issues and themes have emerged and will now be discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter 4: DISCUSSION ON CASE STUDY

4.1 *Chapter Introduction*

The contributions of the previous two chapters are now brought together in the discussion chapter of the thesis. This chapter explores the issues that emerged from the semi-structured interviews, and then verify these findings with the relevant research into the topic. The rationale of this section is to scrutinise and examine the possible answer to the two research questions presented earlier:

(i) What aspects of the London 2012 proposed ‘youth sports legacy’ and the values inherent in Olympic education have been developed for, and are connected to the delivery of PESS, in order to develop young people?

(ii) How do these ‘legacy’ aspects and the Olympic values influence the development of young peoples’ social capital?

The data suggests that a number of aspects of the proposed London 2012 ‘youth sports legacy’ and the values inherent in Olympic education, appear to be connected to the delivery of PESS and provide a foundation to develop young peoples’ social capital. Factors related to fair play, trust, inspiration, ‘sport for all’, developing moral and social behaviour, social inclusion and volunteering. Specifically, this section is split into three themes which emerged from the data collection and are aligned with; (a) ensuring and adhering to the Olympic and sporting values, (b) developing the moral and social values essential for sport and everyday life, and (c) preventing social exclusion. It must also be noted that the list of interviewees are listed alphabetically in Appendix B to clarify the individual role of each interviewee.

4.2 *Ensuring and Adhering to the Olympic and Sporting Values*

4.2.1 Inspiring Young People to Participate in Sport

For many observers the reason for the decision to award London the 2012 Olympics was down to the ‘Singapore Promise’ and to utilise the message of the Olympic Games to inspire young people around the world to choose sport (Coe, 2008). The underlying principle of the ‘Singapore Promise’ was to ensure that:

Sport in London and the entire UK would be enhanced forever. The Games would inspire a new generation of athletes and provide wonderful facilities for them. Grassroots participation would be boosted. An already sports-mad nation would get fitter and healthier (London 2012, 2012).

Indeed, evidence from the semi-structured interviews points to the ‘Singapore Promise’. As one respondent, who is a key ‘legacy actor’ towards delivering an educational ‘legacy’, observed, the London bid was won on the assumption that young people around the world would be inspired to participate in sport (Interviewee J, 27th May 2011). It may well be the case that to achieve the ‘Singapore Promise’, the 2012 Games will be required to inspire three separate groups of young people. One PE teacher, stated that London 2012 had provided PESS with the inspirational effect and the:

. . . chance to inspire those [young people] that are at elite level who want to reach Olympic standard . . . those that participate in sport for the fun of it . . . then, there are those not that interested in sport who decide on the back of the Games that they want to play more sport. (Interviewee N, 25th May 2011)

For this observer “the Games in 2012 can offer, just the general sense of . . . achievement and inspiration for all young people regardless of their sporting ability and interest”. There are those such as the last observer, who see the Olympics as the ultimate example of sporting excellence and competition, and is designed to help young people feel empowered to follow their sporting dreams. Mirroring this argument, Segrave and Chu (1996) illustrated that “every two years the Olympics offer each of us a mirror, and in it, we look at ourselves” (65).

It is also clear that interviewees saw the connection between the values inherent in Olympic education and the requirements of the NCPE, namely, providing a framework for developing young people socially, cognitively and emotionally (Interviewee I, 23rd May 2011). Yet it appears that the Games offers relevance to the existing PESS structure by “helping promote PE, and our extra-curricular clubs . . . in many respects it could strengthen our PE and school sport programme” (Interviewee M, 25th May 2011). As one of the ‘legacy actors’ illustrated, although not directly related to increasing sports participation, it seems one key value of the NCPE and the Olympic Movement is self-improvement through striving for excellence in physical activity and developing one’s sporting ability (Interviewee K, 17th May 2011), a view also supported by Grupe (1996). Yet it appears that whereas the PE teachers and the ‘legacy actors’ see striving for excellence and self-improvement as a valuable tool, young people were not so sure about the values of striving for excellence. Many of the young participants referred back to the negative aspects of sport related to the Olympics and those Olympians who have striven to be the best that they can be, but have overstepped the mark and consequently had turned them off participating in sport:

. . . how can erm drug taking . . . cheating . . . be good for young people . . . what sort of society do you think we would have if this was the case and these sort of things have been preached? (Interviewee E, 18th May 2011)

This is further enhanced by Interviewee C (17th May 2011) who suggests that those athletes that overstep the mark by taking drugs and cheat are behind the reasons why they do not enjoy sport:

Drugs, you know a lot of the time the athletes are on drugs and cheat to do their best . . . earn their living you don’t see lawyers cheating, how is that a value? . . . that’s why I don’t like sport.

This observation was supported by Petersen (2010), who suggested that Olympic athletes should be aware of their responsibilities for being role models for young people, because

those that do take drugs to enhance performance can ultimately have a negative effect on the moral development of young people.

4.2.2 Fair Play and Trust: The Spirit of Sport in Life and Community

Respondents agreed in their assessment of fair play as part of the Olympic values. However, respondents differed in their interpretation of fair play, a common occurrence in research given the broad meaning of the term (Leaman, 2004). On the one hand, a key ‘legacy actor’ referred to the term fair play in their Get Set initiative from a philosophical sense, meaning that they saw fair play outside of its sporting values “Get Set . . . uses fair play . . . to take care of themselves [young people] in their sporting careers and life in general . . . but also looking after the environment” (Interviewee J). However, the young participants’ and one of the PE teachers saw fair play as a more encompassing term that represented a magnitude of ethical sporting situations; “fair play . . . its about keeping to the rules . . . making sure sport is not all about winning” (Interviewee B, 17th May 2011) and “we have to make sure our pupils . . . use fair play and stick to the rules in sport but also respecting the opponent” (Interviewee L, 24th May 2011).

For some of the teachers interviewed in the study, the key was identifying the best methods to integrate fair play into PE lessons and other sport practices. Interviewee B felt that for young people to inherit the traits of fair play, they first had to embrace the value of sport, not just for the physical development but also the social and moral benefits of participating in sporting activity. Interestingly Interviewee B stated that in a world dominated by individuality and alienation, it was essential that fair play was one of the underlying messages of the PE lessons and practices that were taught at the school. When questioned on how fair play was operationalised in PE lessons and after school practices, Interviewee B responded by saying:

It is about creating conditions that are dictated by rules, accepting the skills and abilities of your opponent . . . the children must observe the importance and the reasons why rules are in place . . . essentially I make sure the children do not strive for victory at the cost of others, by breaking the rules that manage the practices

In terms of Olympic education and the use of the Olympic values, fair play has always been used to describe the more generic ethical rationale (Parry, 1998a; Binder, 2000). This scenario reflects the argument of Interviewee J, who values fair play and participation in sport as an aspect that contributes to various social competencies, which are linked to social capital. Further evidence provided by another interviewee, who is a part of the ‘legacy’ delivery at a local authority, suggested that the Olympic values such as fair play can be transmitted back into their communities by stating “Olympic values such as . . . fair play are used . . . to shape our youngsters but also to become responsible, self-controlled with all of their actions in our community” (Interviewee G, 18th May 2011). It is clear that many of the interviewees saw sport and the Olympic values as a means of shaping a life philosophy for young people through building social cooperation and with the hope of educating “young people to become independent, self controlled, resolute, responsible, and communal in their outlook” (Papp & Prisztoka, 1995: 375).

Amongst the PE teachers there was clearly a sense that the Olympic values such as fair play reflected a more ethical approach to PESS. In particular, a PE teacher recognised the potential contribution of fair play in helping develop relationships between pupils that reflects the “right behaviours” of society (Interviewee M). The key indicator for this PE teacher in forming fair play was to help pupils understand and develop the trust between each other, “Olympic values . . . fair play I use it to help form relationships between our students to help them trust each other and build friendship between each other” (Interviewee M). Indeed, research highlights that trust is key to establishing a functional society (Chou, 2006; Larkin,

2008); and through a teacher's "ability to generate positive outcomes through shared trust, norms and values" (Meikle-Yaw, 2006: 55) there is desirability between pupils to work together towards achieving a "collective understanding and action" (Meikle-Yaw, 2006: 55). However, a young person who was not so keen on sport illustrated that they did not enjoy PE because they did not trust those who were good at PE; "those who are good at sport . . . cheat and try to win all the time . . . I don't trust them" (Interviewee E). In terms of social capital theory, Morrow (2002) highlighted that young people only really established trust and reciprocity with individuals within their closer networks of friends rather than individuals outside those networks. Therefore, to counter views like the last respondent, teachers have to create strategies to develop the ethical behaviours for all of their pupils working towards the same collective understanding and reduce possible problems such as the lack of trust.

4.2.3 Pursuing Sporting Excellence: The Wrong Message?

Amongst those involved in the study, there was a clear sense that the Olympic Games was seen as the "epitome of sporting excellence" (Interviewee L). For some of the young people interviewed, the inspiration of seeing and witnessing sporting excellence was a reason for watching and getting involved in sport:

. . . I love the Olympics it is just great to watch because of the level of those highly skilled athletes competing . . . they come from all parts of the world but . . . these athletes are a massive inspiration to me. (Interviewee B)

Indeed another young person specifically identified the performances of Kelly Holmes as providing the catalyst for their interest in sport:

I think the Olympics is great . . . seeing Kelly Holmes win gold made me really, really want to win too and do running. (Interviewee A, 17th May 2011)

What is clear here is that these two young people value sporting excellence and reaching the 'epitome' as a clear reason for wanting to and being inspired to participate in sport. This is

also reflected in the PE teachers' universal response to applying the use of sporting competition and team games as an essential aspect of their pedagogy when teaching the Olympic values, although their rationale behind using such a concept differed. Interviewee M recognised that sporting competition and the pursuit of sporting excellence provided the perfect foundations for young people to base their lives on, as competitive situations provide experiences of "winning and losing . . . elation and frustration . . . it teaches them how to manage their emotions". This observation reflects the view of a 'legacy actor', who identified that the changes in Government had seen a shift in the delivery of a 'youth sports legacy' towards a more competitive stance, in order to provide young people with these sort of experiences through striving for excellence (Interviewee K). Essentially, behind the Coalition Government's thinking was that competitive sport would increase the appetite of young people to participate in more sport once they leave school and mandatory PE (Interviewee H, 16th May 2011). This decision was made on the back of the reality that four in ten young people participate in sport competition in school, with just two in ten competing in intra-school competition/fixtures (DCMS, 2010b). Therefore, the Coalition Government will provide the funding to provide more intra-school competitions at district, county and city level, that will be correlated based on the sporting profile of the school (Woodhouse, 2010). However, this could present schools, sports governing bodies and young people with the same participation dilemma, as recognised by Interviewee C who stated "I feel that if you are good at PE you play in all the school teams . . . I just feel left out".

Evidence suggests that promoting sporting excellence through competition is not in the best interests of PESS and the Olympic Movement (Binder, 2010) nor is it in compliance with developing a balanced personality for young people (Elshahed, 2008). This argument was borne out by a 'legacy actor', who established that integrating competitive sport into the

PESS system might be a mistake considering that competitive sport “stresses success at the expense of others . . . doesn’t the Olympic Games resemble the taking part aspect of sport” (Interviewee I). Mirroring this argument, Interviewee C highlighted that when it came to playing team games and matches in lessons they did not enjoy PE because “I always have to play on the wing, out of the way . . . and then we lose, pointless”. Therefore, the Olympic values should transcend the message of Coubertin (1908, cited in Kaufman, 2005: 241) “the most important thing in an Olympic Games is not the win, but to take part . . . The essential thing is not to have conquered, but to have fought well”, essentially the values of sport for all.

One particular inconsistency in Olympic parlance is the view that performance and competition cannot be interlinked (Torres, 2006), as the above seems to identify. However, at the centre of the Olympic Games resides competition and the ability of one to be the best. Throughout this study, it is clear that when considering the principles of Coubertin’s Olympic vision, it seems that participation in sport is designed to develop a collection of moral and social values (Elshahed, 2008; Binder, 2010). However, according to Torres (2006), it could be argued that competition and participation are inextricably intertwined. This notion is supported by Kretchmar (2003: 134) who stressed that participation in sport “involves a series of relationships where the excellences related to superiority can be shown by both teams on the way of the final verdict” (134). When considering the works of Kretchmar, it is clear that those that excel in sport are devoted to improving their proficiency of the skills that define their sport. Interviewee J supported this notion by discussing how the idea of competition sits alongside the notion of performance in school sport:

. . . those that signal sporting excellence at school do not . . . take part in sport to win . . . in spite of others, but do so to test their abilities and be the best they can . . . I must stress that they seem to compete not to the detriment of others but to test themselves, like anything in life.

4.3 *Developing the Moral and Social Values Essential for Sport and Everyday Life*

4.3.1 Moral Behaviour

4.3.1.2 Olympic Valued (*Human*) Practice

Literature stresses Olympic values are characterised by their “explicit pursuit of moral values through the practice of sport” (Torres, 2006: 242). In this respect, this study highlighted that the Olympic values could be served as an initiation for young people into the traditions of the Olympic culture and the Olympic way of life that could socially benefit them and the communities in which they live (Interviewee J). This argument was borne out by a young person who believed that the Olympic values are “about those positive values which . . . we take from sport into everyday life” (Interviewee B) and was further enhanced by Interviewee H who said that the Olympic values are “essential to developing a spiritual attitude”. It would appear that these types of observations recognise the Olympic values as a series of ‘valued human practices’ that introduce young people to the “distinctive forms of activity worthwhile in life” (Arnold, 1992: 237). In this respect, Olympic PESS initiatives, such as “Get Set” (Interviewee J), “Borough Carrying the Flame” (Interviewee G), “UK School Games” (Interviewee H), and “International Inspiration” (Interviewee I), all attempt to deliver the Olympic values through these frameworks in an attempt to influence human behaviour and get young people to understand and adhere to those Olympic values on a daily basis (Interviewee L). This is emphasised by a young person who was semi-interested in sport and suggested that their attitude changed when involved in Olympic styled lessons instead of standard PE lessons:

. . . when I am in PE and the teacher mentions the Olympics . . . like in long-jump the other day when Sir put down the world record mark . . . I felt like I tried much harder and did better when I tried to reach that mark. (Interviewee F 18th May 2011)

This validates Potter and Wetherell's (2004) view that the formation of moral attitudes and transformation of these attitudes into everyday life is dependent on one's positive outlook to a certain sporting situation.

4.3.1.3 The 'Unwritten' Rules

Interviewee M reiterated the belief that sport and everyday life are both contexts in which rules must be obeyed and as such dictate both sporting and life behaviours. Naul (2008: 129) furthers this argument by suggesting that there are "unwritten rules that morally suggest specific behavioural dispositions in certain sporting situations" and "as value systems for one's behaviour". Interestingly, one of the PE teachers who developed a mini-Olympics in class witnessed that when there were no rules to be broken in some disciplines, the pupils although not realising it, subconsciously had developed a stable set of rules between them (Interviewee N). This observation is heightened when one of the young people said that they enjoyed PESS more when they just went out and played but:

. . . even though we are having fun I still want to keep to rules . . . there is no fun in cheating . . . all you are doing is cheating you and your friends . . . even though the teacher hasn't provided us with rules we still play fairly. (Interviewee B)

In reference to social capital theory, this observation provides an illustration of trust, as the pupils worked together to provide a desired outcome- a fair competition (DeFilippis, 2001)- and it also illustrates elements of reciprocity as it shows the pupils willingness to co-operate together, within the rules, for a mutual benefit (Saheb Zadeh et al., 2010). In this situation, the attitudes (trust, reciprocity), rules and social co-operation that have been developed in previous sporting experiences have been replicated subconsciously into another sporting practice. Essentially, the 'unwritten rules' of sport have acted as the "social fabric or glue" (Cox, 1995: 15) that has brought the young people working together towards a common

purpose. Indeed, Putnam (1995: 665) suggests that social capital is based on the connections between people, which is evident when people work together through the “features of social life . . . networks, norms and trust . . . that enable participants to act together to pursue shared objectives”.

4.3.2 Social Values: Creating the ‘2012 Generation’

4.3.2.1 Young Ambassadors: A Knowledge Creating Process

Among the ‘legacy actors’, one specific Olympic initiative recognised as being key to achieving a ‘youth sports legacy’, spreading the Olympic values and producing benefits for young people was the Young Ambassador Programme, designed by the YST. Eley and Kirk (2002) suggest that ‘sports leaders’ should be inherent in any programme looking at community-orientated sport and increases in participation. For one ‘legacy actor’ there was the view that the “thousand Young Ambassadors are used as little advocates of sport” to develop the Olympic inspirational effect and “provide ways to get their fellow students to be enthused about 2012 and sport” (Interviewee H). The intention was for those students influenced by the Young Ambassadors to then “promote these values to their families and take them into their communities so everyone can benefit” (Interviewee I). Interviewee I believed that the Young Ambassadors would be the best method for getting those not so interested in sport participating in some sort of physical activity- a key to any ‘youth sports legacy’.

Respondents agreed in their assessment of using schools as the best place to promote the Olympic values and addressing these sorts of social values, because as Interviewee I suggests:

. . . the learning of social values for young people requires an environment which could encourage consistent interaction and knowledge sharing amongst

young people and the school environment is the one place where this can happen. Indeed, Morrow (2002) stresses that young people define their community through the identification of a common environment of interest such as their school or a sports club. As Interviewee L maintained, schools are the only place where the entire social spectrum of young people can be accessed and therefore, the best environment to create an equal opportunity for all young people. The same respondent suggested that the Olympic Games offered the chance not only to influence PESS but could be capitalised on “to get young people more involved in their communities”. For the importance of a ‘youth sports legacy’ and also for any sports development programme, Green (2008) suggests that positive experiences and relationship building are the key features in producing such an effect. Furthermore, through social interaction, social capital is developed through the development of formal and informal social networks and reciprocity of these networks (Whiting & Harper, 2003).

These types of statements suggest that a ‘youth sports legacy’ can be developed through a knowledge-creating process where the knowledge of the Olympic Games and Olympic values are transmitted through the social interactions between young people within PESS (Interviewee G). Indeed, Interviewee I believed that young people were the best tool to use to help influence the behavioural decisions of their peers, because of their capacity to easily form social relationships; in particular, the Young Ambassador’s may influence lifestyle decisions of their friends who are more likely to listen to them than anybody else. In this situation, social capital is also strengthened because, through the Young Ambassador programme, new social relationships can be developed and existing relationships can be strengthened (Chalip, 2006) through the promotion of the Olympic values. Social relationships are viewed as an essential element of social capital (Portes, 1998), in community

development (Bull & Jones, 2006) and improvement of health of those involved (Poortinga, 2006). The significance of using such an approach is regardless of “individual background, age, whether male or female, we can use the Olympics to make and inspire the entire scale of young people as one . . . we want them to be known and remembered as the 2012 generation” (Interviewee K).

4.3.2.2 Accepting Multiculturalism

Amongst those involved in the study there was a general belief that the Olympic values and any ‘youth sports legacy’ could act as the catalyst to help stimulate friendship between young people regardless of their individual background. For Interviewee G one key responsibility was helping to promote a “global spirit” in the community, with the intention of taking this sort of approach into the school environment because it would help schools “celebrate a cultural, diverse society”. Indeed the evidence from the PE teachers illustrates that their school had attempted to do this through a number of Olympic-based programmes which would help pupils understand the Olympic messages of “international brotherhood” (Interviewee L) and “cultural exchange” (Interviewee, M) but also with the intention of “using the Olympic values to look at developing young people from a social . . . spiritual perspective” (Interviewee L). These initiatives included:

. . . BBC Olympic School Programme . . . set us up with a school link with a school from the Ukraine and we have looked at developing a partnership that will see our pupils work together in 2012 inspired activities . . . also see us going out to the Ukraine and for them to come over here in the lead up to the Games in 2012. (Interviewee L)

A further example of a school initiative was offered by Interviewee N who added:

. . . in terms of PE and school sport we have set up links with a number schools around the globe . . . we will be able to hold our own mini-Games at the school . . . which encompasses all of the finer Olympic traditions . . . opening and closing

ceremonies . . . national anthems . . . medals we want to be able to transmit the Olympic message.

Clearly, these programmes emphasise a clear message of trying to get young people to understand and value the meaning of sport and the Olympic values from other cultures around the world. Part of the explanation for the understanding of sport from other cultures is to help young people appreciate the reasons why every four years we see athletes from all over the world, from all backgrounds and speaking many different languages, come to the Olympic Games and pursue sport (Interviewee D, 18th May 2011). More importantly, the justification of holding events and using the Olympic values such as these is to help young people value multiculturalism in society, a prominent theme within Olympic discussion (Abreu, 2002; Da Costa et al., 2002). Multiculturalism draws attention to developing “communities of learners who accept and respect people from other cultures . . . one in which there is acceptance and respect for people of all races” (Gomes, 2002: 266). As Interviewee B highlighted, through sport she has made friends from all types of backgrounds, but through the values of PESS they have all been socially integrated and have become friends. It is important to recognise that social capital is a multicultural concept, which is located within the different social networks of a community (Côté & Healy, 2001), and creating social networks from all different backgrounds provides evidence of developing social capital (Atherley, 2006). The link between social capital and the possible interaction between different social groups are dealt with in further depth within the following section.

4.4 Preventing Social Exclusion: Creating Olympic Inclusion

4.4.1 Social Inclusion: A Collective ‘Legacy’?

In terms of the ‘youth sports legacy’ and in many respects also when considering the objectives of PESS, the interviewees involved in the study believed that the best way to

achieve a mass increase in sports participation would be through combating the possible exclusion of certain groups from sporting activity. As Interviewee G recognised “traditionally you have had those people that have not been included in sporting activity . . . if a sporting Olympic legacy is to be achieved from 2012 we must combat these potential divides in our communities and include everyone”. Interestingly, two interviewees demonstrated that the change in Government had seen a modification in the delivery of not just the ‘youth sports legacy’ but also PESS (Interviewee H & I). For Interviewee H there were concerns that this approach, which had seen a more focused delivery towards Olympic styled inter-school competitions, could also possibly contribute “to heightened exclusion for many youngsters in sport”. Such concerns rest on the beliefs that, traditionally, competition in PESS has often seen many young people excluded (Keech, 2003), and therefore, Griffiths and Armour (In Press) suggest that in terms of social capital theory, PESS and the new proposals put forward by the Coalition Government “has as much potential to reinforce, as to challenge, inequalities” within the development of young people.

Respondents disagreed in their assessment of how best to plan and deliver a ‘legacy’ containing initiatives to help with greater inclusion. On the one hand, for many of the ‘legacy actors’, the key to preventing social exclusion, a potentially harmful effect on the ‘youth sports legacy’, is to “provide a collective Olympic experience in PESS, so all of young people experience the same beneficial outcomes of the Olympic Games” (Interviewee H). This is a view supported by another ‘legacy actor’, who stated that “there is a social right with sport, we have to make sure that all young people are targeted through our initiatives” in order to ensure “a collective impact on views associated to participation in sport and integrating the Olympic values into their lives” (Interviewee, J). Arguably, there is a possible connection between the integration of a series of collective programmes and tackling issues regarding

social exclusion (Brownill & Darke, 1998). Those young people interviewed in this study who were not so interested in sport, and had previously indicated feeling excluded from sport, provided the study with responses that indicated interest in participating in Olympic-linked programmes and provoke a possible example of behaviour change towards getting involved in more sport within PE and their community:

. . . you know where I live (Hackney) we had an outdoor centre made . . . I read about it in the paper and I wanted to have a go because it was made because we got the Olympics . . . I actually really enjoyed my time using all the machines and stuff. (Interviewee C)

It must also be stressed, a collective broad-based participation in Olympic programmes could also have an influence on the development of productive social capital in young people's communities (Coleman, 1988, 1990; Wilson, 2002). Indeed, when questioned, Interviewee G suggested that for young people to produce various social outcomes to benefit their community, "strong community networks between young people is essential, but it has to be a team effort from LOCOG to us, to schools then to our communities, and only then can we boost sports participation". In this observation, it is important to highlight the "strong community networks", which Interviewee G consistently referred to in their interview, because a 'community network' draws on social capital as a means to provide equal opportunities and assist in the personal development of those involved (Coleman, 1990). 'Community networks' transcends the message of collectivity, the inclusion and interpersonal relationship between all, regardless of their social background, which could see a collective Olympic initiative influence young people from a sporting perspective, enhance self-esteem and a collective sense of self-identity to the community in which they live (Steinfeld et al., 2008).

4.4.2 Social Inclusion: A Specific Legacy?

For one ‘legacy actor’ involved with a Young Ambassador programme, there were questions regarding the full extent any collective programme can have on achieving any desired mass sports participation and effecting PESS and communities alike (Interviewee I). Such concerns for this individual rested on the concerns a collective programme may have on reaching those groups of young people in need of these initiatives; “there are programmes out there to reach all, through PE and schools, but we are still seeing the same results with not everyone being given or taking up the option to be involved” (Interviewee I). These same concerns were also raised by one of the key ‘legacy actors’, who spoke of the anxiety of those bodies involved with any ‘youth sports legacy’ that they were seeing some young people not showing any interest in Olympic based initiatives (Interviewee K). Such concerns were seen to rest in large part on those who may not be interested in sport, or those excluded from some sport in the past (Interviewee K). This concern was reinforced by the young people, who although pinpointing the fact that there were the opportunities to participate in an Olympic PESS initiative, they preferred not to or were not given the opportunity to:

. . . at school we have done a lot about the Olympics . . . I feel I don’t really get the chance to be involved . . . anyway I would not want to. (Interviewee E)

A view further enhanced by Interviewee D:

Dwain Chambers came into school I would have quite liked to have gone but erm never got the chance because I was not in the athletics team . . . it would have been really inspirational and once in a lifetime chance . . . I can never get involved with anything good and I’m always put to one side cause I’m not any good’.

Such comments are interesting because although it shows that initiatives are available, it seems that they are not suited or successful in engaging those who may feel that they have been excluded in PESS in the past. Therefore, it is important that all of the ‘legacy actors’ and PE teachers understand that they have to value all skills and encourage the contributions of all those participating in any Olympic initiatives within PESS if a ‘legacy’ is to be created

(Frisby & Millar, 2002). Indeed, one PE teacher suggested that the inspirational effect of the Games would influence three separate groups of young people (elite, active, not active) and in turn we should be helping those three groups achieve their sporting aspirations, but also assist to “strengthen their own identity and personal awareness of what they can do and achieve through sport” (Interviewee N). Consequently, discussion on creating a ‘youth sports legacy’ has seen some academics disagree with a collective ‘legacy’ and instead suggest that those ‘legacy’ developing agencies should concentrate more towards specific groups and communities by focusing on how best to involve them in sporting activity (Girginov & Hills, 2008).

However, as Interviewee J highlighted, the key ‘legacy’ agencies had to be careful on what they promised because, despite the scrutiny the ‘legacy’ is under, it was unrealistic to suggest that the London 2012 Olympics was going to “solve all the problems across the world regarding young people and their participation in sport”. This is a view supported by Interviewee K who thought it was almost unfeasible to develop a ‘legacy’ looking at specific community groups; “we have to be looking at a legacy which effects everyone . . . at the end of the day young people are a communal group . . . we don’t have the resources to plan for everyone individually”. Thus, “everyone [young people] has an equal opportunity to be influenced and inspired by the Olympics in 2012” (Interviewee N).

4.4.3 Volunteering

Although young people are unable to be involved as a volunteer for 2012 unless they are over the age of 18, amongst the ‘legacy actors’, there was the belief that providing young people with the “Olympic-related opportunities to volunteer is essential” (Interviewee H). However, it must be stressed that these Olympic opportunities although “associated,

unfortunately are not directly linked to 2012” (Interviewee H). As one respondent observed, a unique method of the sports ‘legacy’ agenda, volunteering, was believed to be “essential to help develop our communities socially and preach those important Olympic values which we hope will be a part of everyday communities in the long run” (Interviewee G). It was identified that by offering volunteering opportunities including the “Young Ambassadors Programme” (Interviewee I), “Host City Volunteer Programme” (Interviewee G) and “Young Leaders Programme” (Interviewee J) to young people, volunteering was seen as a unique opportunity to assist in their personal development and have an impact on their wider community (Interviewee G). Kemp (2002) stressed that volunteering can develop a set of positive feelings and skills for those involved including heightened self-esteem, developing a sense of contribution to society and increased competence in certain skills. Within this study, one of the young people, who is actually a Young Ambassador, believed that through this Olympic initiative and also through additional volunteering experience, they had “improved organisational skills by planning the assemblies . . . also just talking to lots of different people and passing the 2012 message to people has really given me more confidence” (Interviewee A). Thus, this evidence shows that an Olympic-orientated volunteering programme can help young people create a positive attitude, but also provide an example of potential social development (Hamilton & Fenzel, 1988).

Interviewee G suggested that volunteering provides young people with the unique opportunity to actively engage through the Olympic Games, not just in their schools but also in their community. Indeed, this last observer was not alone when discussing the social impacts and the possible contribution volunteering has for the ‘youth sports legacy’, as one of the PE teachers stressed that volunteering “encourages young people to go out into different places and communities to teach and educate sport to young people from various clubs,

primary schools and disabled centres” (Interviewee N). Additionally, as Interviewee G recognised “London 2012 has provided a relevance for young people to engage with each other but volunteering merges that relevance into a social relationship”. Clearly, from this evidence, volunteering creates a social connectedness between young people, as volunteering experiences provide young people with the chance to engage with each other (Davis-Smith et al., 2002). Indeed, one of the PE teachers identified that the school’s Young Ambassadors had shown an improvement in their interaction and communication skills with their teachers and peers throughout the school (Interviewee N). Not only do these sort of experiences offer young people with the chance to engage with each other, volunteering also recognises that young people have to become aware and adapt to the individual requirements of other people, especially when trying to translate the Olympic values to the entire school through the Young Ambassador Programme and Young Leaders Programme (Interviewee I). Therefore, it is clear that there is a great deal that a young volunteer can learn through social interaction with lots of different people (Minnaert, 2011). In terms of social capital theory, the relevance of volunteering and the increased level of social connectedness refer back to ‘bridging’ and ‘bonding’ social capital. Taking into account the views provided by Interviewee N concerning the increased interaction and communication skills of the school’s Young Ambassadors, this provides evidence of increased trust and reciprocity from the Young Ambassadors interaction with their peers (Stolle et al., 2008), thus developing ‘bonding’ social capital. Furthermore, Interviewee A described their joy at being able to help other young people less fortunate than themselves and people they would not normally come into contact with. The social interaction, cooperation from this relationship suggests that ‘knowledge-based’ trust was developed providing evidence of ‘bridging’ social capital (Marschall & Stolle, 2004).

4.5 Chapter Conclusion

The discussion section explored the themes that materialised from the data collection and related these findings back to relevant research around the areas of Olympic ‘legacy’, Olympic education, Olympic values and social capital. The various aspects of a ‘youth sports legacy’ and the various elements of Olympic education and Olympic values were discussed and analysed in connection with the theory of social capital towards the development of young people. The following chapter will provide conclusions for the study, and suggest possible areas to be considered for future research and discuss the implications of this study for future research.

Chapter 5: CONCLUSION

5.1 *Chapter Introduction*

This final chapter will address the findings of the case study. This chapter will initially address the two research questions posed throughout this thesis and provide an overall summary of these findings. The implications of the case study will then be discussed before presenting some potential issues to be examined within future research.

5.2 *The Research Question*

This case study set out to address two research questions: (i) ‘What aspects of the London 2012 Olympic Games proposed ‘youth sports legacy’ and the values inherent in Olympic education have been developed for, and are connected to the delivery of PESS, in order to develop young people?’ and (ii) ‘How do these ‘legacy’ aspects and Olympic values influence the development of young peoples’ social capital?’

5.3 *Summary of Findings*

The previous chapter addressed that there are aspects of the London 2012 ‘youth sports legacy’ and values inherent in Olympic education, which are connected to the delivery of PESS. The subsequent analysis also provided evidence that elements of the ‘youth sports legacy’ and the Olympic values reinforce the theory of social capital.

Coleman’s (1988, 1990) theory of social capital recognises issues such as trust, reciprocity, social inclusion, multiculturalism and strong community networks when considering the social impact on various communities. These values are inherent within the messages of the Olympic Movement and interviewees provided evidence to suggest that the ‘legacy actors’ involved with the construction of a ‘youth sports legacy’ sort these values to

help enhance sports participation of young people, a sentiment echoed by the PE teachers. The key to developing social capital is the organised reciprocity between people and the civic engagement which reciprocity develops (Putnam et al., 2004). This sentiment supports Nicholson and Hoyer (2008: 3) who stressed “the more connections individuals make with their communities the better off they will be emotionally, socially, physically”. Thus, ‘legacy actors’ and PE teachers confirmed the existence of social capital within the ‘youth sports legacy’. They spoke of how Olympic-orientated initiatives, such as the Young Ambassador programme, were developed so that young people could build a relationship between each other. The relationship was formed on the degree of trust and reciprocity that underpinned the formation of ‘bonding’ and ‘bridging’ relationships that were key when transcending the Olympic values within PESS to their fellow pupils from all different backgrounds.

As highlighted throughout the claims of those involved with the ‘youth sports legacy’, there is the intention to get many young people participating in sport on the back of the London 2012 Olympics. Regardless of this vision for London 2012, there was evidence that some of the young people were not invited or decided against participating in Olympic-based PESS initiatives. This raises fundamental questions about the concept of the 2012 ‘youth sports legacy’ because as Griffiths and Armour (In Review) stress, “legacy approaches are characterised by forms of passivity, even though activities promoted in the name of legacy are labelled as engagement and empowerment activities”. Does this mean those involved with the creation of a ‘youth sports legacy’ are fighting a losing battle?

5.4 *Limitations of the Study*

Care should be taken when generalising the findings because of the small sample and because the case study is based in one geographical location. Although it is unclear whether

the results can be reflected across the UK, it should be stressed that a lot of the concepts and programmes in terms of the ‘youth sports legacy’ and aspects of PESS are delivered nationally. As the case study was located in one London Borough, opinions offered by the member of the local authority would only be considered useful in this case study, as local authority Olympic initiatives may well differ in other areas across the UK.

If the case study could have been extended across the UK, and additional participants taken from other areas of the UK, not only would the study have uncovered more data on the potential effects of the ‘youth sports legacy’ and the Olympic values on young people, but also offered additional data to consider the contribution of these aspects to social capital across the UK. Furthermore, it would have been interesting to see and compare the views of those that are not so close to the Olympic Park and whether there was anything being done on the same scale in these locations. However, the findings provided in the case study could offer a methodological foundation for future research to draw upon.

5.5 Recommendations for Future Research

In terms of developing a ‘youth sports legacy’, future research needs to consider trying to understand the diversity of sporting and Olympic experiences among young people, because it seems there are no collective or specific organisational structures available to manage the diversity of young people. Therefore, when considering the delivery and organisation of a ‘legacy’, researchers may want to explore how the different social backgrounds of young people are related to their interests in sport and the Olympic Games. It may also be worthwhile to compare the desire and opportunities that young people have to participate in Olympic-orientated initiatives inside and outside of PESS, in the hope of finding out how a ‘legacy’ linked to social capital can strengthen positive identities of young people.

On the back of the finding that the Young Ambassador programme was key to delivering aspects of the 'legacy', and also considering the possible contribution of developing social capital through social interaction between young people, another interesting inquiry for future research could be understanding the contributions of social interaction to the successful sharing and integration of the Olympic values into young people's everyday lives. Other possible research questions could include understanding: who is most responsible for delivering a 'legacy', and how are 'legacy' outcomes such as sports participation and social capital best developed.

5.6 *Concluding Remarks*

This thesis set out to investigate the possible contribution of aspects of the London 2012 'youth sports legacy' and values inherent in Olympic education towards the development of young people through the theory of social capital. It was found that there are a lot of aspects of the 'legacy' and Olympic education values which could contribute to the successful development of young people's social capital. These aspects are important because not only will they improve the standards of PESS but also these aspects and values can be transferred into young people's everyday lives and into their communities, regardless of their social backgrounds. It is argued that although the development of social capital through increased social interaction and engagement could provide opportunities, there still seemed to be the view that some young people were being excluded or took up a passive role within Olympic-orientated initiatives, and were therefore, also excluded from the 'inspiration' that could be provided on the back of participation in these initiatives. Regardless, there still seems to be a link between the London 2012 'youth sports legacy', the delivery of Olympic-type values in education and social capital. Although the concept of a 2012 'youth sports

legacy’, as well as the delivery of Olympic education and the Olympic values in PESS will remain under scrutiny, the possibility to use the ‘legacy’ to provide a foundation for social progress and equality for all young people within PESS remains an achievable target. If it takes the London 2012 Olympic Games to help achieve these types of aims and provide widespread benefits for *all* young people then hosting the Olympics in 2012 is certainly worthwhile. But the focus has to be on how to get more young people into sport in order to reap the long-term benefits of hosting the 30th Olympiad, and produce “an active 2012 generation” that we can all be proud of.

Chapter 6: BIBLIOGRAPHY

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Semi-Structured Interviews

Introductory Comments

Thank you for taking the time and agreeing to take part in this research. As already discussed this interview will remain anonymous. Also, with your permission this discussion will be recorded so I have a record of what ideas you have come up with and the contribution this makes to my research.

Explanation of Interview Purpose

The purpose of this interview is to explore your opinions and views into what the London 2012 ‘youth sports legacy’ and potential delivery of Olympic values in PE and school sport may provide for the development of young people’s social capital. Remember, there are no right or wrong answers to the questions- I am simply interested in your thoughts and opinions. Take your time before answering and if you feel you do not want to answer the question then just let me know and we will move onto the next one.

Topic One: Context of PE and School Sport through the Olympic Legacy and Values

1. What are the most effective ways to develop the social practices of young people?

Probe for reasons why?

2. What do you understand of the Olympic values?
 - a. What different approaches are there to teaching the Olympic centred values?

3. How would this foster the development of young people?

Probe for reasons why?

4. Are you aware of any Olympic-based PE and school sport initiatives?

- a. Do you think that there are Olympic type values already in practice in PE and school sport?

5. What importance do the Olympic games have for PE and school sport?

Probe for reasons why?

Topic Two: The Value of Sport.

1. What does sport mean to you?

Probe with questions on affecting personal development?

2. What are your views and attitudes towards PE and School Sport?
3. What skills are required to participate in sport?
4. Does your community support participation in sport?

Probe for examples

5. What social values are there in participating of sport?

Topic Three: The Value of Olympic Games.

1. What are your first thoughts when I mention the Olympism?
2. Do you know what the Olympic values are?
 - a. What ideas or values are important in your philosophy of life?
 - b. Which athletes have these qualities?
3. Which Olympic athletes do you admire?

Probe for explanations why?

 - a. Do you think an Olympic' athletes career provides a good example for your personal development?
4. Would you like to become an Olympian?

Probe for reasons why?

 - a. What would be the benefits?

Probe for reasons why?
5. Have you been involved with or are going to be involved with any Olympic based initiatives within PESS?

Topic Four: Effects of a youth sports legacy.

1. How would you wish to develop a 'youth sports legacy'?
 - a. What methods are in place to ensure this through education?
2. Has the change in Government had any affects on the delivery of a 'youth sports legacy'

Probe in what ways?

 - a. Who are the main legacy actors?
3. How would you use the 'legacy' and sport to foster the social development of young people?

4. Should sport be regarded as the only method to promote Olympism?
5. Why do you think the Olympic Games and the Olympic Movement appeal to so many around the world?

Topic Five: Effects of a youth sports legacy, PE and School Sport and its Delivery.

1. What role does PESS have in the Olympic 'legacy'?
2. How can you use PESS as a means for promoting the values of the Olympics?
3. What importance do the Olympic games have for PE and school sport?
 - a. Are there any Olympic PE and school sport initiatives in place?
4. What types of sport activity and sporting organisational structures are most conducive to developing the social and Olympic values?

The following is a list of the interviewees that contributed to the study and their roles in the delivery of the ‘youth sport legacy’. Also featured is the length and date of the interviews. The Age of the interviewees is also provided, as well as the interviewee (interest in sport) of the young people or career experience of the ‘legacy actors’ and ‘PE teachers’.

Interview Pseudonym	Role	Date of Interview and Length of Interview	Age of Interviewee	Interviewee / Career Experience
Interviewee A	Young People	17 th May 2011: 53 Minutes Long	14	Interested in sport
Interviewee B	Young People	17 th May 2011: 53 Minutes Long	15	Interested in sport
Interviewee C	Young People	17 th May 2011: 24 Minutes Long	15	Dislike Sport
Interviewee D	Young People	18 th May 2011: 17 Minutes Long	15	Semi-interested in Sport
Interviewee E	Young People	18 th May 2011: 19 Minutes Long	15	Dislike Sport
Interviewee F	Young People	18 th May 2011: 21 Minutes Long	14	Semi-interested in Sport
Interviewee G	Legacy Actor: <i>Local Authority</i>	18 th May 2011: 45 Minutes Long	31	11 years
Interviewee H	Legacy Actor: <i>Youth Sports Trust</i>	20 th May 2011: 53 Minutes Long	33	8 years
Interviewee I	Legacy Actor: <i>Youth Sports Trust</i>	23 rd May 2011: 39 Minutes Long	23	1 years

Interviewee J	Legacy Actor: <i>a key member of a Legacy Body</i>	25 th May 2011: 72 Minutes Long	47	30 years
Interviewee K	Legacy Actor: <i>Education Team at a key Legacy Body</i>	25 th May 2011: 93 minutes	57	33 years
Interviewee L	PE Teacher	24 th May 2011: 29 minutes	27	5 years
Interviewee M	PE Teacher	25 th May 2011: 33 minutes	52	32 years
Interviewee N	PE Teacher	25 th May 2011: 38 minutes	27	5 years

The Purpose of the Research:

To understand the possible contribution of the proposed London 2012 ‘youth sports legacy’ and the delivery of Olympic ‘valued’ education in Physical Education and School Sport to develop young people. The research will then discuss how these ‘legacy’ aspects and Olympic values can develop young people through the theory of social capital.

Benefits of the Case Study and a Brief Outline of what the Study Involves:

This case study addresses the little explored issues of how the Olympic Games and various elements of the London 2012 delivered through Physical Education and School Sport can have an impact on young people. Social capital is a concept that identifies the various constructs that impact our community’s well being, such as, the development of social interaction, trust and commitment between different individuals from all backgrounds. The case study involves a series of one to one conversations where predefined questions will be created inside a “semi-structured” interview protocol to explore various issues relating to the topic of the study.

Benefits to the Participants where Applicable:

The predominant benefit to participating in this study is to help participants understand how the London 2012 Games may help you individually or the ones close to you. Furthermore, the study will help participants understand what the modern Olympic Movement means and how it can affect our everyday lives. Additionally, the study also offers an understanding into the full scope of the Olympic Games and how the London 2012 Games may help young people.

Risks Involved in Participation: Semi-structured interview techniques are popular methods of research for working with people, however, there remains some sensitivity surrounding the ethics of using this procedure. The key concern of using this methodological approach centres on the prospective anonymity of participants. Additionally, a further risk to participation includes the correct portrayal of the interviewee's opinions and answers that are formulated from the interviews.

Procedures to minimise risks: In order to secure anonymity of the interviewee's names and location of where the interviews take place pseudonym (fake) names will be assigned. The participant will be given a name (Interviewee A-N) before the interview takes place to be assigned and referred to throughout the research process. In order to reduce the chances of falsification of results and the opinions collected participant feedback will be issued to each of the interviewee's. Each interviewee will receive, once completed, a copy of the discussion section- in order to provide the interviewees with a more complete description of the research. Attached to the discussion section will be a feedback sheet, which will allow participants to discuss and pinpoint any misinterpretations or parts of the research they may feel unhappy with. If they are happy with the way they have been accurately portrayed in the study they will sign the form to give their final consent for their views to be used in the study. The researcher will also offer the chance for participants to meet and speak with the researcher to discuss the research and how the individual is portrayed in this study.

Amount of time participation involves: The interviews could last anywhere between 10-50 minutes depending on the relevance of the questions.

Researcher Contact Details:

If you wish to discuss any of the research design or the pending participation in the study of yourself or your child you can contact the researcher who will be happy to answer any questions or concerns you may have with the case study.

Name: **James Defroand** (Tel: [**Phone Number**] *or* E-mail: [**E-mail Address**])

Re: [Child Name]

Dear Parent / Guardian

I am currently a postgraduate student at the University of Birmingham, reading an MPhil (B) Sports Coaching (Education) qualification and I am a former pupil and Games Captain of the School. As a requirement of my course, I must carry out a research project. Therefore, I would like to look into the potential collaboration between the proposed 'youth sports legacy' created as part of the London 2012 Olympic Games, and the use of the Olympic values in Physical Education and School Sport to developing young people (please read the attached information sheet for further details). A comparison will be made between the possible contribution of these 'legacy' aspects and Olympic values towards developing young people through the theory of social capital (please read the attached information sheet for further details).

To help me with my research, I am hoping to carry out a series of semi-structured interviews regarding the subject, and I would be grateful if you would agree to your child's participation in this study.

By signing below you are giving your consent for me to carry out these interviews with your child. Confidentiality is assured, no real names will be used in any written documentation and none of the data will be used in any other circumstance. Participants are also reminded they may withdraw from the study at any time and that all answers given by the pupils will be voluntary. It must also be stressed that a copy of the discussion section and all quotes used in the main study by your child, will be sent to you after the research has been conducted to verify that you are still happy with the portrayal of the views provided by your child

I **do/ do not** give my consent for my child (name of child) to participate in the research project (delete as applicable).

Name of Parent / Guardian

Signature of Parent / Guardian

Signature of Child

.....

James Defroand

Director of Sport

Researcher

Dear [Name of Interviewee]

I am currently a postgraduate student at the University of Birmingham, reading an MPhil (B) Sports Coaching (Education) qualification. As a requirement of my course, I must carry out a research project. Therefore, I would like to look into the potential collaboration between the proposed 'youth sports legacy' created as part of the London 2012 Olympic Games, and the use of the Olympic values in Physical Education and School Sport to developing young people (please read the attached information sheet for further details). A comparison will be made between the possible contribution of these 'legacy' aspects and Olympic values towards developing young people through the theory of social capital (please read the attached information sheet for further details). To help me with my research, I am hoping to carry out a series of semi-structured interviews regarding the subject, and I would be grateful if you would agree to your participation in this study.

By signing below you are giving your consent for me to carry out these interviews. The consent is also required from your Head of Department to certify that they are happy for you to participate in this study. Confidentiality is assured, no real names will be used in any written documentation and none of the data will be used in any other circumstance. Participants are also reminded they may withdraw from the study at any time and that all answers given will be voluntary. It must also be stressed that a copy of the discussion section and all quotes used in the main study by yourself, will be sent to you after the research has been conducted to verify that you are still happy with the portrayal of the views you provided in the interview

I **do/ do not** give my consent to participate in the research project (*delete as applicable*).

Name of Head of Department

Signature of Head of Department

Signature of Interviewee.....

James Defroand

Researcher