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Published PDF deposited in Coventry University's Repository

Original citation:

Burgess, S, Bingley, S & Urwin, G 2019, 'Examining the grassroots participant legacy of major sporting ‘supplemental’ events', *Event Management*, vol. 23, no. 3, pp. 363-378.

<https://dx.doi.org/10.3727/152599518X15403853721231>

DOI 10.3727/152599518X15403853721231

ISSN 1525-9951

ESSN 1943-4308

Publisher: Cognizant Communication Corporation

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EXAMINING THE GRASSROOTS PARTICIPANT LEGACY OF MAJOR SPORTING “SUPPLEMENTAL” EVENTS

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For a considerable time, major sporting events have been investigated to explore their “participation” legacy impact (effect on participation in sports at the grassroots level), often with mixed results. In this article, the authors propose an approach to examine not major events themselves, but adjacent, supplemental events, and whether such events can contribute to a participation legacy. The authors do this by developing a “grassroots participation ladder,” built on the *transtheoretical model*, which has been amended to examine the stages of behavior between no involvement in a sport and ongoing sports participation. An initial test of the ladder is conducted via a case study of supplemental events conducted in conjunction with the 2015 ICC Cricket World Cup and involving interviews with event participants to demonstrate how the ladder might be utilized. Results suggest that previous measurement methods have typically neglected a key constituent, which offers a new recognition of potential participation legacy benefits, and feeds back into suggested methods of planning more effective participation legacy activities in the future.

Key words: Major sporting supplemental events; Participation; Legacy; Case study

Introduction

A “legacy” occurs from a major sporting event when a situation exists (such as changed economic conditions, new infrastructure, or alterations in levels of sports participation) because of the event. With regards to participation, a “trickle down” effect occurs where elite sporting success, athletes’ images or personalities, or the hosting major sporting events affects mainstream (“grassroots”) participation. Many studies have attempted to determine

whether a *legacy* exists, with limited evidence to support the notion. However, there are often other “supplemental” events that are conducted as part of, or alongside, the main event that may also influence legacy.

Increasing participation in sport can improve health, encourage social inclusion, and improve self-esteem (Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, 2010; Bingley & Burgess, 2012; Sports Scotland, 2003). Where claims have been researched of a legacy of increased participation at the “grassroots”

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level of sport because of major sporting events, the results in support are inconclusive, although there is some evidence of a short-term effect from activities that are supplemental to the major event. In this article, the authors propose an approach to examining this effect by considering *pathways* to club membership. The article begins by considering the legacy of major sporting events and in particular “grassroots” participation legacy. A “grassroots participation ladder,” built on the *transtheoretical model*, is developed to examine the stages of behavior between no involvement in a sport and ongoing sports participation. A case study of participants in supplemental activities run in conjunction with the 2015 ICC Cricket World Cup (CWC2015) uses the ladder to examine their involvement in grassroots cricket and whether engagement in an activity influenced changes in their involvement in cricket afterwards. The article’s contributions are in identifying current limitations in understanding the impact of major sporting “supplemental” events and proposing an alternative—a “grassroots participation ladder” for cricket and potentially other team sports.

Legacy in Major and Supplemental Sporting Events

What is a “major” or “mega-” sporting event? Swart, Bob, Knott, and Salie (2011) identified several distinguishing features of mega-sporting events from the literature. The events attract many visitors and occur infrequently. According to Barget and Gouguet (2007), they are held less frequently, than, say, national championships that are tied to a specific season. Major events have significant economic and social impact. They attract considerable international media attention. Finally, these events are “owned” by official sports authorities (such as federations) or private groups (as with the Tour de France).

Westerbeek, Turner, and Ingerson (2002) also referred to “hallmark” sporting events that are characterized by their size and require government and media involvement, “superior” technical competencies (premier facilities, skilled labor, and so forth), and support from stakeholders (such as the general public, government, and business).

According to Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries, a “legacy” can be described as “a situation that exists

now because of events, actions, etc. that took place in the past” (http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/legacy_1). In the sporting context, in 2002 the International Olympic Committee (IOC) began to develop its notion of legacy, which required host cities to undertake longitudinal studies to measure the economic, environmental, and social impact of the Olympic Games (Girginov & Hills, 2008). However, legacies can be positive or negative (Thomson, Schlenker, & Schulenkorf, 2013). Preuss (2006) identified a list of potential positive and negative legacies potentially emerging from such events. Positive legacies included the development of new facilities and infrastructure, increased tourism and reputation, urban revival and improved public welfare, improved community spirit, positive event memories, and improved experience and know how. Negative impacts included high costs, debt, temporary inconvenience, longer-term problems (such as socially unjust displacement), and long-term tourism loss. Veal, Toohey, and Frawley (2012) produced a similar list of legacies from such events. According to Preuss (2006), legacy can be difficult to manage as it “is planned and unplanned, positive and negative, intangible and tangible structures that were/will be created through a sport event and remain after the event” (p. 3). The potential of legacies resulting from hosting major sporting events is used to gain the support of the population of “candidate” cities to host the event (Veal et al., 2012).

However, major sporting events do not operate in isolation. They usually involve many other “supplemental” events that are run in conjunction with the major event. Weed et al. (2009) suggested that these include “community and educational programmes, opportunities for coaching, and well-planned, accessible facilities” (p. 10) and that they can also be used to encourage a participation legacy. In this article we particularly focus on grassroots participation and the possible influence of some of the supplemental events that were conducted in conjunction with the 2015 Cricket World Cup.

Participation Legacy

Girginov and Hills (2008) noted that “the value of participation in sports for individuals and society has long been established” (p. 2097). Thus, less than

desired levels of participation in sport on a wider scale has been a focus of governments and sports bodies for some time (Grix & Carmichael, 2012). Sports participation can potentially benefit economies by reducing health costs (Vail, 2007) as well as providing other social benefits (Veal, 2003).

A “trickle-down” effect is said to have occurred where the general population are inspired to participate in sport by elite sporting success, the elite athletes themselves, and/or hosting elite sporting events (Weed et al., 2015; Weimar, Wicker, & Prinz, 2015). The hosting of elite sporting events is the focus of this article with regards to how supplemental events can influence grassroots participation.

With regards to hosting elite sporting events, Coalter (2004) cited several studies that have suggested little or no effect of Olympics/Commonwealth Games on levels of sports participation. Frawley and Cush (2011) noted that “while some governments and related funding agencies have become more sophisticated in planning major sport event participation legacies in recent years, the evidence to suggest that these strategies are working is slim” (p. 67). When discussing the effect of the Olympic Games on levels of participation, Coalter (2004) suggested that there might be more of an impact on sporting clubs (especially in Olympic sports), but little evaluation of this had been undertaken and there was little evidence of increased participation where it had been. A central tenet of the London 2012 Olympic bid was that the Games would be used to promote sports participation for all. Both the bid committee and the UK government, as major stakeholders, promised to use the games to inspire the country’s people to become more physically active. Early indications were that there had been increases in participation levels in some Olympics sports (such as athletics) but decreases in others (such as swimming and football), with levels having stagnated after the Olympic games were held (Sedghi, 2015). Also, there were decreases in participation in lower socioeconomic groups and the elderly (Gibson, 2015). There have also been some comprehensive reviews of the published and “grey” (nonacademic) literature that relate to the participation legacies that have resulted from the hosting of major sporting events. Weed et al. (2009) conducted a “systematic review” related to physical activity, sport, and health legacies. Murphy and

Bauman (2007) examined the published and grey literature to 2005 to examine research into the influence of one-off sporting events on population physical activity levels. Subsequently, Craig and Bauman (2014) found that the 2010 Vancouver Winter Olympic Games had no apparent impact on physical activity or participation in sport of Canadian children.

Referring to the Australian landscape, Veal (2003) suggested that unlike other areas of public policy (like health and education), data on “leisure participation” is not collected at the point of *service delivery* (that is, at the time that the sport is being played). Thus, it is necessary to collect data in other ways, such as through social surveys—this approach is also being used by other governments around the world. Of course, these surveys should be comparable from one year to the next and, in the case of assessing the effect of policies designed to affect changes in levels of participation, be comparable and conducted before and after the policy is implemented. However, this has not always occurred.

Murphy and Bauman (2007) indicated that few “quality” evaluations had been conducted, reporting on studies that conducted population surveys and examined increases (or otherwise) in club memberships. The most common approaches to determining levels of grassroots participation changes due to major sporting events has been via population surveys (Murphy & Bauman, 2007; Swart et al., 2011) or by examining membership data (Frawley & Cush, 2011). In a few cases, interviews of stakeholders and/or the general population have occurred (such as Frawley & Cush, 2011). As suggested by Swart et al. (2011), one of the problems with many of the studies that have been conducted is that they rely on data drawn from general surveys. It is difficult to relate this data back to trickle-down effect and the data “is not sensitive enough to pick up the nuances of participation changes” (Weed et al., 2015, p. 209).

However, the focus of this article is specifically on major sporting *supplemental* events. Weed et al. (2009) noted a lack of evidence of the impact of major sporting events. However, they suggested that there was “mixed evidence for a ‘demonstration’ or ‘trickle-down’ effect on participation, with this often being short-term or having been leveraged

by supplemental activities” (p. 9). They suggested a need to plan these supplemental activities to “leverage” the primary event and thus provide a link between it and community participation levels. These events have similar characteristics to what Taks, Chalip, and Green (2015) described as non-mega-sport events in that they are “one-off, discontinuous and out of the ordinary” (p. 1). Taks et al. (2015) suggested that the creation of local partnerships is important to achieving success in these events.

Factors Influencing Participation

In countries such as Australia, sports participation has typically occurred through local sporting club or association memberships (Frawley & Cush, 2011). However, in recent decades there has been a shift in participation from organized (e.g., club-based) to less formal or nonorganized sports. Sports preferences in Australia have changed recently with more people participating in nonorganized sport while participation numbers in organized sport have stagnated (Australian Sports Commission, 2013b). Similarly, in a longitudinal study of sports participants in Belgium, Scheerder and Vos (2011) found that in later years many participants could “partake in sport without the need of a strong club membership” (p. 31).

Scheerder and Vos (2011) identified many factors: “age, sex, income, ethnicity, education, socio-professional status, socio-geographical status, as well as psychographic variables” (p. 31) that can influence sports participation. Veal et al. (2012) suggested that “the level of sport participation in a community is, however, a dynamic phenomenon subject to numerous influences, of which a city’s hosting of an international sporting event is but one” (p. 165). The Australian Sports Commission (2013a) divided the Australian adult population into different market “segments” according to factors such as the importance of sport, need for physical activity, need for social interaction, and family, work, and financial constraints. They suggested that clubs might need to adopt strategies that might include offering less competitive, more flexible versions of the sports, some of which may require less commitment than traditional offerings (Australian Sports Commission, 2013a). Examining such factors from a marketing perspective, Shank and

Lyberger’s (2014) model of participant consumer behavior suggested that the decision making of participants was influenced by:

- *internal factors* [such as personality, level of motivation, individual perception of the sport, approach to learning about the sport, and attitude towards the sport]
- *external factors* [culture of participation, social class, reference groups (the ability of others to influence participation decisions) and family]
- *situational factors* [physical surroundings such as weather or location, social surroundings (who you are participating with), time availability or constraints, the reason for participation, and antecedent states, such as feeling tired or stressed].

Thus, participants can potentially be influenced at a heightened level when major sporting events are held. As suggested earlier, Weed et al. (2015) suggested that trickle-down effects of such events are not automatic and that they could be leveraged by other supporting activities. Supplemental events as described in this article and linked to a major event, could play this role.

Ramchandani, Davies, Coleman, Shibli, and Bingham (2015) listed factors identified from sporting events in the lead up to the London 2012 Olympics that had influenced sport participation. The most influential factors related to *watching events on TV or attending them*. Other factors included *trying the sports out* (in nonthreatening environments or locally to where they live), being given information on *how to participate in the sport locally or meeting athletes*. These could potentially be employed as strategies in supplemental events to influence sport participation.

In relation to building capacity to manage new participants, Hanstad and Skille (2010) referred to attempts to increase mass participation “through various other programmes and incentives, such as a well-functioning structure of district associations and local clubs, educated leaders and coaches, accessible equipment and facilities, and special efforts targeted towards less well represented specific groups, e.g. women” (p. 65). Importantly, when linked with the hosting of major events it is important that sporting bodies are prepared for a possible trickle-down effect by having strategies

in place to market the sport effectively to potential newcomers and have the capacity to accept new members (Weimar et al., 2015).

One other aspect worthy of consideration is the notion of the immediate *impact* of an event versus its *legacy* (Ramchandani et al., 2015). Thomson et al. (2013) discussed the *temporal* nature of legacy, classifying research that describes legacy as lasting or permanent, long term and short term in duration. This article examines legacy in the shorter term but also looks beyond the immediate impact of the events.

The Pathway to Sports Participation

Ramchandani et al. (2015) and Weed et al. (2015) examined several approaches to examining how participants engage with sport and other physical activity. Both articles suggested that the most widely adopted model used in the literature to explain this behavior is the *transtheoretical model* (TTM), initially proposed by Prochaska, DiClemente, and Norcross (1992) for the purposes of explaining how addictive behavior is modified. The model proposes five stages of behavior modification that can occur before an identified addiction is terminated. Ramchandani et al. (2015) modified these stages to examine participation in physical activity: *Precontemplation* (no intention to become active); *Contemplation* (thinking about becoming active); *Preparation* (making small changes in becoming active); *Action* (becoming active); and *Maintenance* (being active for a sustained period).

Along similar lines, De Bosscher, Sotiriadou, and van Bottenburg (2013) discussed four levels of involvement in sport that lead to elite sport: attraction/recruitment of new participants, retention in the sport, advancement to higher levels, and finally nurturing associated with participation at an elite level. The *attraction/recruitment* and *retention* levels can be related directly to Ramchandani et al.'s (2015) five levels of participation in physical activity and are of interest in this article. Shank and Lyberger (2014) identified five steps in the sport participant decision-making process: problem recognition (creation of the desire to participate), searching for information about the sport or activity, evaluating alternatives, actual participation, and postparticipation evaluation. This evaluation can influence whether participation will be continued

(or *maintained*, as per Ramchandani et al., 2015). In fact, Prochaska et al. (1992) suggested that people can move forwards and backwards through the behavioral stages of TTM.

One approach to measure changes in participation in sports at the grassroots level could be to measure participation according to *pathways*, designed along the lines of TTM and that track a continuum of activities or programs for individuals from not playing the sport at all to playing regularly in competitive competitions (Vail, 2007). This would involve identifying a similar set of stages to those proposed by Ramchandani et al. (2015). An example of how such a sporting pathway might be structured is that provided by Cricket Australia (<http://www.playcricket.com.au/australian-cricket-pathway>). The Australian Cricket Pathway provides a pathway from *foundation level* (being involved in informal cricket; learning through skills-based programs and playing in junior and senior competitions), through *talent identification programs* and finally to *elite* cricket (playing for the national team). The aim of this research is to consider a detailed pathway for the foundation (“grassroots”) level.

Thus, although there is increasing evidence of recognition of “legacy” as an important part of major sporting events, it is also recognized that it is multifaceted, with mixed results as to evidence of its impact. This research focuses on participant legacy with an emphasis on developing greater understanding of the legacy of events that are supplemental to major sporting events by examining more than their effect just on club membership. This greater understanding can then be applied to assist in examining the grassroots participation legacy of the supplemental events that are held in conjunction with major sporting events.

Methodology

The major aim of this research is to consider the notion of participation legacy as it may emerge from events that are supplemental to major sporting events and to develop a framework of grassroots participation pathways designed along the behavioral stages of TTM. Crucially, these “early stage” pathways are not typically measured at present and without attention may never flourish into the typically measured more formal, or club membership.

The event selected to test and refine the grassroots participation ladder was the International Cricket Council (ICC) Cricket World Cup, held in Australia and New Zealand in 2015. The plan was to identify participants in supplemental activities of the major sporting event and to match any changes in their level of grassroots participation to the proposed participation ladder. Thus, the study was suited to an inductive, interpretivist approach (Williamson & Johanson, 2013) as the intention was to develop an initial version of the grassroots participation ladder based on TTM and then refine it based on the data collection.

As part of hosting the 2015 ICC Cricket World Cup (CWC2015), Sport and Recreation Victoria, a unit within the Victorian State Government (<http://sport.vic.gov.au>), approached Cricket Victoria (the governing body of cricket in Victoria), with the aim of creating tangible outcomes (“legacy”) at the grassroots level. Funding was provided to support this initiative and was directed to several projects surrounding CWC2015. Supplemental events that were part of the research project included the Victorian sections of the 2015 ICC Cricket World Cup Trophy Tour (before CWC2015 commenced); the Cricket Victoria Community Cup (a series of local events themed around CWC2015) and the MCG Fanzone, held at Birrarung Marr (a major park area) in the City of Melbourne before and during each match of CWC2015 held at the Melbourne Cricket Ground (MCG). The authors worked with Cricket Victoria to conduct research into the project. This article concentrates mainly on the aspect of the project that examines participation legacy from participation in the Trophy Tour, Community Cup, and the Fanzone.

The activities conducted within these events can be classified into the factors that Ramchandani et al. (2015) identified could influence sport participation, such as:

- Trying the sports out (opportunities to participate in games or skills sessions)
- Providing information on how to participate (such as handing out leaflets)
- Meeting athletes (typically this involved attendance by elite female cricketers and even team mascots at some events).

Conduct of the Project

The project involved a multiple case study approach, with each event (Trophy Tour, Community Cup, and MCG Fanzone) comprising a particular “case.” The Trophy Tour and Community Cup events were held at different locations over several dates. The MCG Fanzone was held near the MCG in the City of Melbourne on World Cup match days. A selection of these dates (based mainly around the availability of the researchers and the level of involvement of Cricket Victoria) were used for data collection. The case study approach was appropriate as it can be used to understand complex social phenomena (Yin, 2003). The unit of analysis for the case study was each individual (interviewee).

Due to the need to investigate the responses of participants (Williamson & Johanson, 2013), brief semi-structured interviews were used to collect the data at each event. To allow for the collection of participants’ stories over time, they were firstly interviewed at the time of event participation. Then, if they met certain qualification criteria (described below), they were interviewed again at the commencement of the next cricket season to determine the level of grassroots participation legacy that resulted from being involved in the major sporting event.

The interview protocol for the initial set of interviews was brief and most responses that were received by participants were also brief. However, most of the questions that were asked were open ended—providing participants the chance to offer a range of responses that could be explored by the interviewers. The initial interviews with participants were conducted from late December 2014 until the final of CWC2015, held on March 29, 2015. Participants were asked questions to collect basic demographics and then a series of questions related to their cricket background (if any), their motivations for attending the event, how they heard about the event, what activities they participated in, and their evaluation of the event. They were also asked about their attitudes towards CWC2015.

As approval for the conduct of the project came from the Australian researchers’ university human research ethics committee, certain restrictions were placed upon who could be interviewed. The approval allowed for adults over the age of

18 years to be interviewed as well as teenagers aged between 12–17 years old (if they were accompanied by a parent or guardian who could provide written consent at the time). As such, most participants in the study were over the age of 18. However, the researchers could determine details about children who attended the events via interviews with parents or guardians.

It was virtually impossible to determine the “population” of attendees at each event as each location had many entry and exit points. Also, some people would wander by the event, briefly stop, and then continue along their way. An interview would be requested if potential participants were of consent age and had participated in some way in the event (such as having a photograph taken with the World Cup trophy) or they were adults supervising one or more children participating in the event.

Analysis of the results occurred via a combination of means due to the large number of interviews. Baseline answers to questions were entered in an MS Excel spreadsheet, which allowed for simple proportions and totals to be calculated. Each interview was also written up into MS Word files (one file for each participant) and each of these were imported as a source into the qualitative analysis software program Nvivo. Themes emerging from the interviews were set up as nodes in the software and used as the basis for qualitative analysis.

Table 1 provides some simple demographics for the initial phase of study. Overall, 220 interviews were conducted across the three events. This was a much larger number of interviews than was initially expected and, thus, provided the opportunity for some simple quantitative analysis in addition to the expected qualitative analysis of data. Around

two out of three participants in the study were male. Participants were asked if they were participating in the event themselves or had had brought along children to participate in the event. Overall, there was a slight majority of participants with a “self” focus.

Participants who were not playing club cricket themselves (or whose children were not playing club cricket) were asked if they would participate in another brief “interview” that would occur at the commencement of the following cricket season. These interviews were conducted via telephone or via e-mail, depending upon the preference of the participant. They were conducted some 7 to 8 months after CWC2015 was held. This in some way addresses Ramchandani et al.’s (2015) observations that participation legacy is something that should be measured over time. However, it is difficult to determine if any change in behavior had reached Ramchandani et al.’s (2015) suggested *maintenance* stage of sport and physical activity and De Bosscher et al.’s (2013) *retention* level of participation—that is, was being maintained over a *sustained* period. Given the lag from the initial events to the follow up interview, this approach probably goes beyond assessing the short-term impact of events but perhaps is short of assessing any long-term participation legacy (as per Ramchandani et al., 2015). Table 2 shows the breakdown of participants for the follow-up study.

Over two thirds of the participants were not considered for follow up interviews as they were either already playing cricket (44%) or were not intending to play cricket (29%). Weed et al. (2015) found that major sporting events could lead to an increase in participation among those who were already competing, but we were not interested in

Table 1
Participant Demographics: Initial Study Phase

Event	No. of Interviews	Gender (Female/Male)	Cricket Focus of Participants		
			Adults	Teens 12–17 Years	Children <12 Years
Trophy Tour	100	35%/65%	55%	4%	41%
Community Cup	68	43%/57%	53%	1%	46%
MCG Fanzone	52	23%/77%	48%	–	52%
Totals	220	35%/65%	53%	2%	45%

Table 2
 “Follow-up” Interview Category of Participants

Participant Category	Adults (n)	Children (n)	Overall (n)
Already played club cricket	35	61	96 (44%)
Did not intend to play cricket	48	8	56 (25%)
Not interested in interview	13	7	20 (9%)
Agreed to follow up interview	20	28	48 (22%)
Totals	116	104	220 (100%)

this group and so did not follow up with participants who were already playing club cricket.

That left 68 participants who could be targeted for a follow up interview. Of these, 48 (71% of the potential group) agreed to a follow up interview. Four of these could not be contacted due to incorrect or invalid contact details, leaving 44 potential interviews. In the end, interviews were conducted with 25 participants (57%), with a higher proportion (69%) answering on behalf of children than adults responding on their own behalf (39%). Details are provided in Table 3. These interviews were held in November/December 2015, some 7 to 8 months after CWC2015 was completed. Although this was enough respondents for the authors to test the operation and use of the grassroots participation ladder, a larger number of participants would be required in future events to provide evidence that supplemental events had a definite effect on participation legacy.

Results and Discussion

An important part of the process was determining the *current* level of participation in cricket of study participants in the first set of interviews. Early on in discussions with Cricket Victoria it was obvious that, like the authors, they were interested in a more sophisticated measure than just whether people were regular club members or not. Initial

attempts at developing a pathway that represented the possible types of cricket that people could play as opposed to (or on the way to) playing club cricket is shown in Table 4.

This was the authors’ first attempt to produce a more detailed grassroots participation ladder for the *foundation* (grassroots) level of cricket than that provided by the Australian Cricket Pathway. The categories in the table are based upon the TTM phases related to level of participation in physical activity (Prochaska et al., 1992; Ramchandani et al., 2015).

After attendance at only a few events it became obvious that there were two quite different pathways taken by *children* [who tended to play MILO™ cricket (as described in Table 4) or school cricket] and *adults* (who played indoor or community cricket as part of community groups). This is discussed in the following sections.

Results of Initial Study Phase

For the remainder of this article, the results will be split between adults and children, beginning with adults. Just over half (55%) of adult participants did not play cricket, with just over a quarter playing club cricket. The remainder played less formal forms of cricket (friends/backyard 7%; community cricket 6%; indoor or similar cricket 5%).

Table 3
 “Follow-up” Interview Details

Participant Category	Adults (n)	Children (n)	Overall (n)
Participated in follow-up interview	7	18	25
No response	11	8	19
Incorrect/invalid contact details	2	2	4
Agreed to follow-up interview	20	28	48

Table 4
Initial Grassroots Participation Ladder

Level of “Grassroots” Participation/Type	TTM Level ^a	Description
Maximum participation		
Club cricket	Maintenance; Action	Member of a club and plays club cricket. Clubs typically have adult and junior competitions (the latter often catering for 7–17 years of age). Longer-term members will be at the TTM maintenance level, whereas new members are in the TTM action level until a long-term commitment is made.
Community cricket	Action	Usually played “semiformally” within communities, such as ethnic communities. Matches are organized, but not under a competition structure.
Indoor cricket	Action	Indoor cricket is played on a rectangular, artificial grass court with tight netting ^b . Games are short, lasting between 1–2 hr.
MILO™ cricket	Action	MILO™ in2CRICKET is for children aged 5–8 years to learn cricket skills. The MILO™ T20 Blast is for children aged 8–12 years and allows for more organized games, with an aim to progressing to more formal cricket ^c .
School cricket	Action	Organized school competitions (typically played up until 15 years of age).
Backyard/friends	Preparation	Playing cricket in the backyard, on a beach or in a park with family or friends. This matches the TTM preparation level, the first steps to becoming active.
No participation		
Not playing	Contemplation	Considering playing cricket
Not playing	Precontemplation	Does not play cricket and is not interested

^aProchaska et al. (1992), Ramchandani et al. (2015).

^bSource: <https://playcricket.com.au/senior/indoor-cricket/the-game>

^cSource: <http://playcricket.com.au/learn>

As indicated, the pathway to club cricket in junior ranks was much more specific, with children playing formal cricket with their school and/or progressing through the ranks of MILO™ cricket. Some children were playing both school cricket and MILO™ cricket. Several parents spoke of a progression from MILO™ cricket to club cricket.

There was a high level of participation in either club cricket (58%) or levels of cricket that provide a natural path to playing club cricket (that is MILO™ or school cricket—24%). Only 9% of children played no cricket at all (compared with 55% of adults).

Follow-up Interviews

This section reports on the follow-up interviews, investigating changes in the level of participation for individual participants and the possible grassroots participation legacy of the CWC2015 activity that they were involved in.

Changes in Cricket Participation. The first aspect to be examined is the change in participation levels. In this analysis we will examine changes in

stages of participation as suggested by Prochaska et al. (1992).

Adults. Figure 1 shows the change in the level of participation for each of the seven adults who participated in the follow up interviews. Each participant is represented by an arrow in the diagram. A horizontal arrow indicates that the level of participation is identical to that of the earlier interview at the time of CWC2015. A downward pointing arrow means that the level of participation was less [in this instance, the participant had changed from playing more organized (indoor) cricket during CWC2015, to just playing informally with friends]. There were no examples of increased participation among adults.

The participants shown in Figure 1 are divided into three categories. The first category represents those affected by family and time commitments. The sole participant in the category whose participation in playing cricket was less formal was interesting. Although playing at a less formal level he had taken up cricket umpiring but indicated a love for the sport and probably still had the same or even an increased level of overall involvement in the

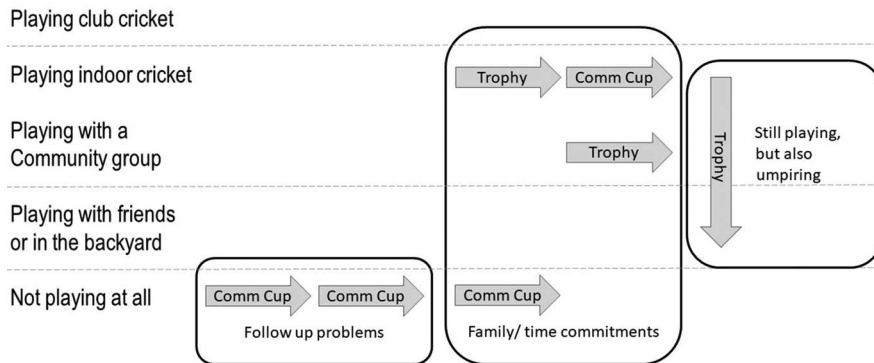


Figure 1. Change in level of participation for adults.

sport, although playing less. In a sense this could be an important facilitator of increased participation for others, with organizers and administrators also playing this role.

Two participants in the Community Cup indicated that they were interested in playing club cricket but faced barriers to doing this. One female participant was interested in playing cricket with a club: “I emailed and texted one the coordinators about trying out with a women’s team. I never heard back and to be honest I also have been quite busy so left it at that.” The other participant in the group was also female. She enjoyed watching her son play cricket, but this did not allow her the time to play herself. She felt that if there was women’s team at the club that she would likely play in it. The possible lesson here is that it is important to

not only hold events, but also provide participants with the knowledge and means to engage with the sport afterwards.

This finding highlights the importance of ensuring that adequate information is in place for newcomers to participate in a sport and that the capacity and willingness to accept new participants is available (Ramchandani et al., 2015; Weimar et al., 2015).

Children. Figure 2 shows the change in participation levels of children across the study period. Note the upward facing arrows representing participation in more organized forms of the sport. These participants are separated into six different categories.

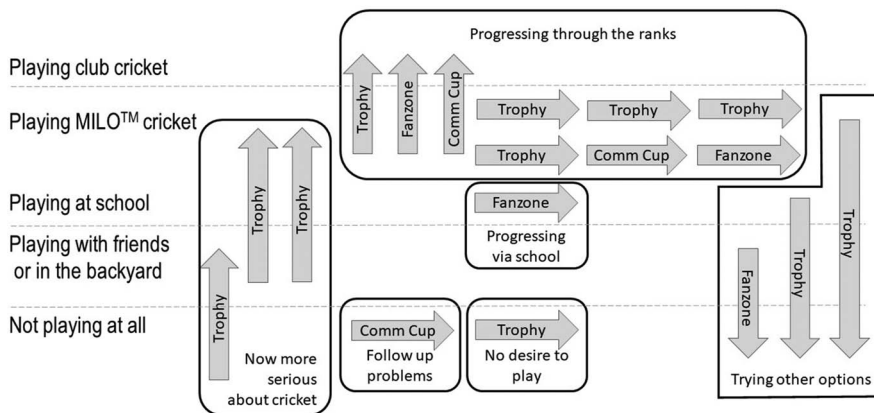


Figure 2. Change in level of participation for children.

The first category involves three children who became more “serious” about cricket over the study period. One of the children moved from not playing cricket at all to playing with friends, while the other two “graduated” from playing with friends to the more formal environment of MILO™ cricket. The next two categories encompassed those children who were “progressing through the ranks,” either through MILO™ cricket (nine children) or through the school system (one child). Once children have completed their junior pathway, they will typically make a choice as to whether they progress to club cricket. During the period, three children progressed from MILO™ cricket to playing club cricket, while seven others continued to play either MILO™ or school cricket. As they complete their MILO™ or school commitments, children can either progress to club cricket or choose another pathway. In this study, three children were “trying other options” and had stopped playing cricket. Two of these had chosen to play other sports—volleyball and football (soccer)—with the other pursuing nonsport activities.

It is important to note that although MILO™ cricket is a good pathway for very young cricketers, the pathway for young teens is not as clear, as evidenced in the following example. One young teen was interested in playing club cricket after participating in the Community Cup, but as the event was held at the end of the season there was no club competition that she could progress to immediately. A potential opportunity was perhaps lost there.

The final child had no desire to play cricket. He was walking by the tour bus during the Trophy tour and had a picture taken with the trophy. In the follow-up interview he indicated that he enjoyed seeing the trophy but had little interest in the sport.

Grassroots Participation Legacy. This section examines the notion of grassroots participation legacy for the ancillary events conducted in conjunction with CWC2015, as indicated by participants in the study. Each participant, or his or her parent or guardian, was asked a single question to establish this: “Did the [event] influence you or your child’s current levels of cricket involvement?” Most importantly, participants were also asked to expand on their responses to this question so that the reasons behind

their behavior could be investigated. As mentioned earlier in the article, the nature of many studies that have previously examined grassroots participation legacy of major sporting events have been hindered by the many factors that can influence legacy and the difficulty of establishing causality between the event and changes in participation levels (Veal et al., 2012). This interview question assists in alleviating these concerns in this study by directly linking attendance at the event with involvement in the sport. Figure 3 classifies each study participant according to their response to the question for themselves or their children. The figure also indicates whether there had been a move to more organized or less organized forms of the sport or no change in the level of involvement in cricket over the study period. There were some unexpected results.

Firstly, six parents indicated that their children “already loved,” “were into,” “were keen on,” or “were mad about” cricket. This was mostly due to a family involvement [this is an external factor identified by Shank & Lyberger (2014) as a factor that can affect participation in sport]. For these parents, this passion for cricket seemed to make the legacy question redundant for their children. These participants’ children are the junior equivalent of the *loyalists*, *socially engaged*, or *sports driven* types of the club member segments. Although only one of this group had progressed to club cricket during the study the suggestion was that the others would as well, given time.

Given the *lack* of previous studies supporting the notion that a grassroots participation legacy emanating from major sporting events exists, it was interesting that five participants indicated that the event had *influenced* their (or their children’s) involvement in the sport. It is not surprising to find that this section had the most upwards facing arrows (three). Although two of these were MILO™ cricket children “graduating” into club cricket, the other child went from playing with friends to playing MILO™ cricket. This is where the subtleties of the detailed participation ladder come into their own. These effects would not register in studies that only examine changes in club membership.

One of the parents suggested that even though her son continued to play MILO™ T20 blast, the fact that he could see, interact with, and relate the World Cup trophy to the game had a definite effect

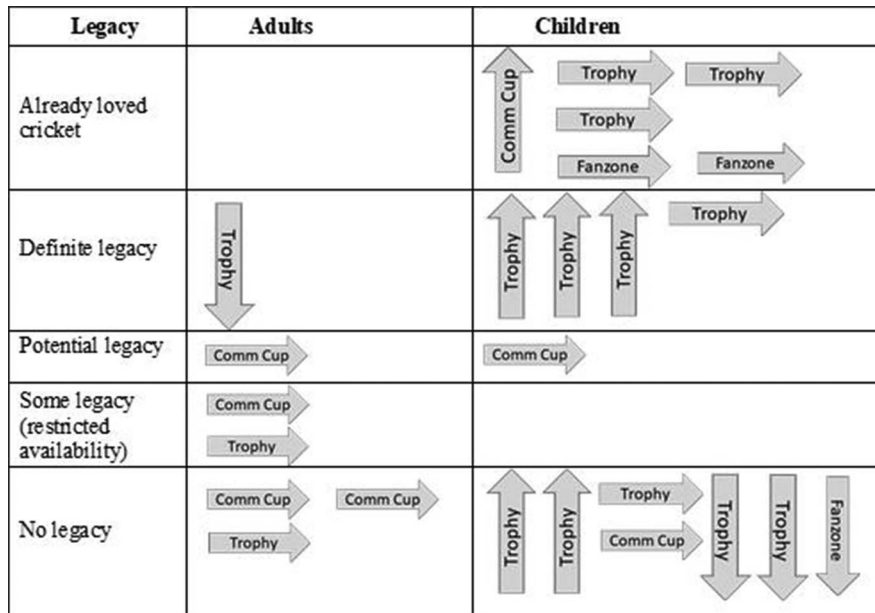


Figure 3. “Legacy” effect of event on participants and change in participation.

on his level of interest in the game [this could probably also be classified as one of Shank & Lyberger’s (2014) factors that influence participation].

One interesting finding was the adult who had decreased his level of participation from playing indoor cricket to playing with friends. As suggested earlier, it is perhaps arguable as to whether this participant should be classified with a “downward” arrow as he had taken up cricket umpiring during the period. He indicated quite clearly that the trophy tour influenced his level of participation in the sport (albeit as an umpire).

The *potential legacy* row relates to two of the three participants described earlier who were interested in playing club cricket but were not able to because there was no competition to play in or no team available. They indicated that the event influenced their desire to play cricket. Thus, grassroots participation legacy requires both the *willingness* and the *means* to play to be evident. Strategies need to be in place to deal with potential trickle-down effects (Weimar et al., 2015) to ensure that opportunities to participate are advertised and available.

The next group (*some legacy*) indicated that they enjoyed the event (“positive event memories” as described by Preuss, 2006), but were prevented

from becoming further involved due to time or family restrictions (described as situational factors by Shank & Lyberger, 2014). One participant indicated that CWC2015 “played a more motivating effect on looking for a club,” but that unfortunately he was busy with work commitments and only able to play community cricket. The other participant was also keen to play after the event, but after having a baby his priorities had changed. As Veal et al. (2012) noted, major sporting events are one of many influences on sporting participation.

The final category was those participants who clearly indicated that there was no legacy from the event. Interestingly, two of these were children who had changed to playing more organized forms of the sport. One of these involved a family who had started to play in the backyard—but this had not been inspired by the event. The other involved a girl who had begun to play MILO™ cricket as she was “happy to try any sport.” One of the participants whose level of involvement had not changed was the other adult who had wanted to play in a club but was unable to. Her interest in cricket did not come from CWC2015, but from her being previously involved in the game. Other participants who kept the same level of involvement indicated that

the event had not influenced them, although some indicated that they really enjoyed being involved. It is not a surprise that three of the participants whose level of involvement was not at the same level as it had been indicated no legacy from the event.

Implications

The results from this study suggest that the measurement of grassroots participation legacy needs a greater level of sophistication than just determining if people become new members of clubs on the basis of a major sporting event. For CWC2015 there is some consistency with the results of this study and that of Swart et al. (2011), who found modest, positive impacts from the 2010 FIFA World Cup, although it is important to be wary of the relatively small sample size. The results are encouraging from the point of view of Weed et al.’s (2009) suggestion of mixed legacies emerging out of activities that are supplemental to a main event. With the gradual shift from organized to nonorganized sport it is necessary to consider less formal and organized pathways that may lead to playing regularly with a club. These strategies can assist with transition between the stages, providing alternatives for those whose situational factors (time and family commitments) prevent a major commitment. Table 5 shows the final version of the “Australian” cricket grassroots participation ladders for adults and children. Note the differentiation made between participants not interested in cricket at all with those who have an interest in the sport but are not playing. This better reflects the stages of TTM and provides more detailed stages than the foundation level of the Australian Cricket Pathway.

The findings suggest the possibility that having an interest in cricket is a factor in deciding to play it. A shift from no interest to having some interest in a sport represents an important step on the pathway to playing. Murphy and Bauman (2007) discussed event *reach*, which includes examining the influence of an event on awareness, interest, or engagement in physical activity. The final column of Table 5 applies this to team sports in general. The ladder shifts from participants having no interest in a sport to having some interest and then onto various forms of the game that are initially informal, but then organized and varying in terms of the flexibility of the offering. The *ultimate* grassroots participation stage (for this study) is club membership. Perhaps in the longer term a further stage could be ongoing active involvement in the club, such as membership on club committees.

Defining Grassroots Participation Legacy

As indicated already, the authors contend that the assessment of grassroots participation legacy of major sporting events should involve more than simple counts of membership. Consideration that many factors other than major sporting events can influence participation in grassroots sport (Veal et al., 2012) and that participation legacy may be measured in different ways (Murphy & Bauman, 2007) can mean that modest, positive legacies as discovered by Swart et al. (2011) in their FIFA 2010 World Cup study might be realized.

The grassroots participation ladders proposed here do have some limitations. Although the authors have developed separate grassroots participation legacy ladders for children and adults, there has not been

Table 5
Final Australian Cricket Grassroots Participation Ladders

Level of “Grassroots” Participation	Adult Participation Ladder	Child Participation Ladder	Generic Ladder for Team Sports
Maximum participation	Club cricket	Club cricket	Maximum participation
	Indoor cricket or Community cricket	School cricket or MILO™ cricket	Organized, more flexible, participation
	Backyard/friends	Backyard/friends	Informal participation
No participation	Not playing, but interested in cricket	Not playing, but interested in cricket	Interest in the sport
	No interest in cricket	No interest in cricket	No interest in the sport

any discussion on the progression of junior club members to adult club members. Additionally, cricket has typically been a sport played predominantly by men, with female participation numbers now increasing. There has been no attempt to see if their pathways differ. Other groups, such as sportspeople with disabilities, may also have different pathways. Also, the ladder does not differentiate between the types of offerings at club membership level. For instance, it is common for clubs to now offer briefer, more flexible forms of games. In cricket this might involve matches that can be played in one afternoon or evening as opposed to the traditional format of cricket matches (played over two afternoons in Australia).

However, the authors do believe that the grassroots participation ladder can potentially be modified as needed for other team sports. When combined with innovative ways to measure grassroots participation legacy it may be possible to track such legacy of major sporting events in greater detail. It could also assist policy making, planning, and even bid preparation processes for major sporting events as more realistic targets for grassroots participation can be set.

Contribution, Limitations, and Future Research

This research has addressed gaps in the literature with regards to understanding grassroots participation and identifying how it may result from major sporting events. The implications of these findings suggest the need for a more nuanced approach to measuring increased interest and involvement by defining participation in broader terms. This may include a variety of “entry points” to sport, including perhaps those who may wish to “give something back” to the sport (for example in terms of coaching, umpiring, or administration), which can indirectly have a positive effect on participation rates. Implications for grassroots associations and clubs may include the facilitation of these entry points or their creation if they do not exist. For planners of major sporting events, this would also “close the loop” to ensure that activity participants who wish to engage in a sport can find out how to do so.

It should be remembered that although this study allowed the authors to test and refine the grassroots participation ladder, it was conducted in

conjunction with a particular event (CWC2015) in a particular country, with one single sport and with a limited sample size. Although the specific grassroots participation ladders for cricket would potentially apply well in Australia, they would need to be modified to suit other cricket playing nations. Similarly, the more general grassroots participation ladder would potentially need to be modified for other team sports and multiple ladders might need to be developed for major multisport events such as the Olympics. The example provided to illustrate the operation of the ladder, the supplementary events to CWC2015 may have some limitations with regards to its ability to measure legacy, but this does not affect the suitability of the ladder to be used alongside different data collection approaches.

However, once the ladder(s) have/has been established, the notion of tracking how individuals move “up” or “down” the ladder over time can be applied. Interviews may be conducted to establish the “stories” associated with such moves, but the moves may also be examined using a survey by researchers wishing to validate ladder movements empirically or as a means to investigate a larger sample of participants.

Conclusion

Previous research that has examined grassroots participation legacy emerging because of major sporting events has not provided strong evidence that such a legacy exists. Most of these studies have examined changes in club membership of individual sports to determine the legacy of an event. This article has considered a new approach to examining the grassroots participation legacy of major sporting events, including new approaches to the consideration of what the legacy involves and how it may be measured. The article used the ladder in a preliminary study that examined changes in the level of involvement in grassroots cricket through a case study of participants in supplemental events of the 2015 ICC Cricket World Cup. This occurred via the development of a grassroots participation ladders for cricket and a consideration of how participant involvement in World Cup activities influenced any changes in their level of involvement after the event (up or down the ladders). A grassroots participation ladder was proposed for team sports in general. This

ladder may potentially be used to track the grassroots participation legacy of major sporting events in a more nuanced fashion than has generally occurred in previous studies. It could also assist planners of major sporting events to set realistic, measurable targets for grassroots participation legacy.

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