

The background of the cover is a photograph of a large stadium filled with a crowd. A large, semi-transparent blue hexagon is centered over the image. The text is overlaid on this hexagon and the background.

EDITED BY SIMON DARCY
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MANAGING THE PARALYMPICS



Managing the Paralympics

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Managing the Paralympics

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ISBN 978-1-137-43520-0 ISBN 978-1-137-43522-4 (eBook)
DOI 10.1057/978-1-137-43522-4

Library of Congress Control Number: 2016961609

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Cover illustration: Dmytro Aksyonov

Printed on acid-free paper

This Palgrave Macmillan imprint is published by Springer Nature
The registered company is Macmillan Publishers Ltd.

The registered company address is: The Campus, 4 Crinan Street, London, N1 9XW, United Kingdom

Foreword

It is both an honor and privilege to compose the foreword for **Managing the Paralympics**. It is a major contribution to the academic understanding and industry practice of the Paralympic Games.

As a former coach and leader of Paralympic sport in Canada since the 1960s, being elected as the founding president of the International Paralympic Committee, a role I held from 1989 until 2001, and as a passionate fan and observer of sport for athletes with disability, I have had a unique perspective on the Games' growth and evolution. I have attended every Summer and Winter Paralympic Games since 1968.

Since 1964, I have been working as Professor of Adapted Physical Activity at the University of Alberta and thus have appreciated and seen firsthand the importance and benefits of sport, physical activity, and recreation for persons with disability. This understanding is also reflected in important international declarations such as the United Nations' Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. Unfortunately, we also know that there are still many inequities for people with disability impacting their ability to participate.

One of the best ways to address these inequities and barriers is the hosting of well-managed Paralympic Games. As the pinnacle mega-sport event of the International Paralympic Committee, the Paralympic Games are crucial for the global exposure and changing the realities of the various challenges facing the community with disability. I have seen firsthand

how the exposure from a Paralympic Games can result in social change in both developing and developed nations so that all the people with disability have the opportunity to play.

While past Games have provided tremendous support and growth in the future, I would suggest that for the Paralympic Games to offer further opportunities for social change; more is needed. This book is a significant start to this process.

The chapters in this book provide valuable insights for academics and practitioners regarding the stakeholders, legacy, classification, sport delivery, accessibility, doping, National Paralympic Committees, volunteer management, media representation, marketing, and social media that make up the Paralympic Games. **Managing the Paralympics** thus explores the crucial considerations in managing a Paralympic Games and moves forward our knowledge and understanding of a much overlooked area of sporting excellence.

It is my hope that this book provides the necessary guidance and leadership for future administrators, coaches, athletes, and leaders of Paralympic sport.

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Acknowledgements

Managing the Paralympics follows on from previous publications by Palgrave into the management of mega-events in sport: *Managing the Olympics* (2012), edited by Frawley and Adair, and *Managing the World Cup* (2014), edited by Frawley and Adair. With the addition of Simon Darcy—an expert on para-sport—to the editorial team, *Managing the Paralympics* provides the first study of planning, logistics, policy and practice at one of the world's largest and most important sport events. This book is overdue recognition of the scale and reach of high performance para-sport: since 1988, the Paralympics have been staged shortly after the Olympics and used the same facilities. Cities bidding for the 'Games' have therefore been expected to incorporate both events in their host bid submission. The Paralympics are substantial by way of participant numbers—with approximately half the volume of athletes at the Olympics, and similar contributions by support personnel and volunteers. However, the event is arguably more complex due to the ten eligible impairment types, classification groupings for competition and extra sports specific to the Paralympic programme. The Paralympics are now also much more visible: crowds at the Games have grown substantially, while media coverage—whether on television or digital media—has improved both in quantity and quality. In short, high performance para-sport is now firmly on the public radar, whereas it was once little known, while the athletic status of Paralympians has been elevated to the point that their on-field

athletic achievements are of more significance to sport reporters than narratives of ‘inspiration’ and ‘courage despite adversity’. Much has changed; but much still needs to change.

In framing this volume, the editors were conscious of the need to make the material research-driven. Each of the contributing authors has honoured the intent of the editors and we thank them for their collegiality and enthusiasm. As editors we also wanted to ensure the overall quality of the manuscript and subjected the chapters to review in addition to our own editorial processes. All of this has been important to ensure that the book has coherence and continuity in the development of the concepts and issues.

The editors are very grateful to the contributors in this book. As noted in the introduction to this, Paralympic scholarship has been dominated by sports science and this book has benefited from the recent introduction by the International Paralympic Committee’s introduction of an IPC Sport Science Committee’s Social Impact Working Group of which many of the authors to this volume are members. Further, the last two International Paralympic Committee VISTA conferences have had substantial social science programmes that included keynote addresses and plenary sessions contributed to by authors of this volume. For the academics who gave up their time and energy, this was a labour of love. All the authors are passionate about the Paralympic Games and Parathletes. The editors are also very appreciative of the support of Palgrave for their support of developing global understandings of managerial aspects of major sport events. The previous volumes together provide a rich collection for sport and event researchers, students and practitioners. The present book, *Managing the Paralympics*, certainly benefited from the keen eye and feedback of Maddie Holder, Liz Barlow and their team at Palgrave. We hope that all readers, but especially those from within the disability, disability sport and broader sport management communities will find value in this collection.

Contents

1	The Paralympic Games: Managerial and Strategic Directions	1
	<i>Simon Darcy, Stephen Frawley, and Daryl Adair</i>	
2	Stakeholders and the Paralympic Games	21
	<i>Mathew Dowling and David Legg</i>	
3	Accessibility as a Key Management Component of the Paralympics	49
	<i>Simon Darcy</i>	
4	Managing Legacy and the Paralympic Games	93
	<i>Laura Misener</i>	
5	Managing Paralympic Bodies: The Technology of Classification and Its Impact on (Dis)abled Athletes	113
	<i>P. David Howe and Paul J. Kitchen</i>	

6	Anti-doping for Paralympians	133
	<i>Daryl Adair</i>	
7	Managing Paralympic Sport Organisations—The STEEPLE Framework	155
	<i>Mary Hums and Eli A. Wolff</i>	
8	Leading the Team: The Role of the Chef de Mission at the Paralympic Games	175
	<i>Darren Peters, Stephen Frawley, and Daniel Favaloro</i>	
9	Volunteer Management at the Paralympic Games	193
	<i>Tracey J Dickson, F. Anne Terwiel, and Fiona Buick</i>	
10	Media and the Paralympics: Progress, Visibility, and Paradox	217
	<i>Gerard Goggin and Brett Hutchins</i>	
11	Communicating and Managing the Message: Media and Media Representation of Disability and Paralympic Sport	241
	<i>Ian Brittain</i>	
12	Marketing and Sponsorship at the Paralympic Games	263
	<i>David Legg and Mark Dottori</i>	
13	Paralympic Paradigm: A Research Agenda	289
	<i>Daryl Adair, Simon Darcy, and Stephen Frawley</i>	
	Index	295

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List of Tables

Table 1.1	The number and gender of athletes at the Paralympic Games from 1972 to 2012	8
Table 1.2	Eligible impairments	9
Table 2.1	Mitchell et al.'s (1997) types of stakeholder	26
Table 2.2	International Federations (IFs)	37
Table 2.3	International co-federations	37
Table 3.1	IPC accessibility guide overview	55
Table 3.2	Key technical requirements for accessible vehicles	73
Table 4.1	Delivering Paralympic legacy	99
Table 8.1	Leadership theories	178
Table 9.1	Estimate of volunteers for the Olympic and Paralympics Games	197
Table 9.2	Examples of strategic human resource management solutions for a volunteer legacy from mega sport events	211
Table 11.1	Number of photographs used from Paralympic Games by country	247
Table 11.2	Number of accredited media at the summer and winter Paralympic Games	251
Table 11.3	Largest audience by nation of the last five Paralympic Games on ParalympicSport TV	254

List of Figures

Fig. 1.1	Proportion of publications by discipline area	11
Fig. 2.1	Stakeholders of the Paralympic Games	28
Fig. 3.1	Games constituents' activities and experiences	60
Fig. 3.2	Access widths	62
Fig. 3.3	Limits of protruding objects for people with vision impairment	63
Fig. 3.4	Stadium seating diagram	65
Fig. 3.5	Unisex left-hand transfer accessible toilet and shower	68
Fig. 3.6	Accessible service counter	68
Fig. 3.7	Accessible guest room floorplan	80
Fig. 4.1	Legacy Definitions Cube adapted from Preuss (2007)	96
Fig. 9.1	Volunteer Canada's volunteer management cycle	198
Fig. 9.2	A strategic approach to Paralympic volunteer management	203
Fig. 9.3	VANOC online orientation and service training: Accessibility and Disability training	209

List of Images

Image 3.1	Integrated wheelchair seating and tactile ground surface indicators at Stadium Australia, the main stadium for the Sydney 2000 Olympic Stadium	66
Image 3.2	Integrated seating at Sydney Olympic and Paralympic games	67
Image 3.3 & 3.4	Signage at Sydney 2000 Olympic and Paralympic Games	71

1

The Paralympic Games: Managerial and Strategic Directions

Simon Darcy, Stephen Frawley, and Daryl Adair

Introduction

In 2020 it will be 60 years since the first Paralympic Games in Rome (International Paralympic Committee [2015a](#), [b](#)). Over that time the Paralympics have grown into the world's third largest sporting event behind the Olympic Games and Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) World Cup. Each successive Paralympic Games has made contribution to this growth: introducing new sports, encouraging more countries to attend, increased scope of broadcasting, record ticket sales, and alternative media channels to promote the event and its athletes. From 1960 to 2020 this has led to 11-fold increase in athlete participation, “from less than 400 in 1964 to over 4,250 at London 2012 and a projected 4,350 for Rio 2016” (International Paralympic Committee [2015b](#)). Geographically, those countries represented at the Games have grown from 21 to 164 competing for some 500 medal events

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S. Darcy et al. (eds.), *Managing the Paralympics*,
DOI 10.1057/978-1-137-43522-4_1

up from 144. The number of sports has increased $2\frac{1}{2}$ times from 9 to 23, evolving from an event for wheelchair athletes to numerous activities involving nine different impairment types (International Paralympic Committee 2015b). The summer Paralympics now has a cumulative TV audience of 3.8 billion people and has an increasing presence on social media: at London 2012, for example, some 1.3 million tweets mentioned “Paralympic” (International Paralympic Committee 2015b). Like the Olympics, the focus of these statistics has often been on the summer Paralympics, but there has also been important growth in the winter Paralympic Games (Legg and Gilbert 2011).

As with the Olympics, the Paralympics is a significant mega-event that takes place every 2 years, with both summer and winter games. The planning to stage the Paralympics has much in common with the Olympics. Effectively, since Barcelona 1992, there has been an operational partnership whereby the Olympic and Paralympic Games are held in the same host city with increasing levels of operational partnership. This changed at Beijing 2008, where the organisation of both the Olympic and Paralympic Games became the official responsibility of the host city organising committee. The staging of the Olympics and Paralympics now requires more detailed understanding of key managerial aspects of the Paralympics that had not been required previously when bidding to host the Olympics. These considerations are not just about logistics alone; they also incorporate attitudinal and cultural engagement with a need to understand the nature of disability, disability sport and community attitudes. However, the Paralympics are arguably more complex due to the inherent nature of the event being for athletes with a disability from nine different impairment groups. Within those impairment groups are different classifications based on the individual’s ability. Impairment and its classification are at the core of what makes the Paralympics different and arguably more intriguing than the Olympics. This chapter therefore provides an overview to the classification system as a core element of the differentiation with the Olympics, and to provide a foundation for understanding Howe and Kitchin (2016) critique of the system.

There have been some significant books and edited collections that have contributed to the field of Paralympic studies from social science, arts and humanities and business perspectives. These include anthropology

(D. Howe 2007), history (Bailey 2008; Brittain 2012; Scruton 1998), general social science (Brittain 2010), event management case study (Cashman and Darcy 2008), legacy (Legg and Gilbert 2011) and the media (Jackson et al. 2014). However, there has not been an examination of Para sport from the perspective of managing the Paralympic Games; the present book is designed to fill that gap and, in doing so, develop knowledge about how the core elements of the Paralympic Games are addressed from a management perspective. While it is not possible to cover all the nuances of Paralympic event management in this first attempt to examine the field, we hope that the book makes a worthy contribution to our understanding of planning for and staging the Paralympic Games, and that it catalyses further research. We recognise that the topics covered in this book will be a starting point for more detailed logistical and operational aspects as the Paralympics becomes a focus of scholarship in the same way that Olympic and other mega-event research has been.

This opening chapter provides background discussion about the core elements of the Paralympic Games. It does so by providing a synopsis of the history of Paralympic development and the growth of the Games over the past 50 years. It then looks at one of the key elements that makes managing the Paralympic Games fundamentally unique—the challenge of athlete classification. The chapter concludes by examining the balance of Paralympic scholarship as it stands today.

Historical Context of the Paralympic Games

The International Paralympic Committee's (IPC) purpose is to organise the summer and winter Paralympic Games as the global governing body of the Paralympic movement. It acts as the International Federation for nine sports, as well as to supervise and co-ordinate relevant World Championships and other Para sport competitions. The vision of the IPC is “to enable Para athletes to achieve sporting excellence and inspire and excite the world” (IPC 2015a, b, np). However, there has long been tension between what the IPC claims by way of impact compared with wider perceptions and evaluations of such claims and their impact. There is, for example, robust debate about how effective the Games are in terms of

conveying a coherent message: are the Paralympics about “inspiration”—a narrative of pity, or are they now accepted as a showcase of “brilliance”—a narrative of performance. Tensions like this continue to exercise the minds of those who are Paralympic boosters, as well as those critical about the limitations and problems of the Movement (Darcy 2001, 2003; Goggin and Newell 2001; D. Howe 2007; P.D. Howe 2008a, 2011; Purdue and Howe 2012).

The Paralympics is the most prominent and recognised sporting event for athletes with a disability. Originally beginning as the 1948 Stoke Mandeville Games for Paraplegics, its origins are first said to have begun in 1960 at Rome, with the first use of the term Paralympics at the 1964 Tokyo Games. The Paralympics only really achieved significant global notice after being linked directly with the Olympic Games from 1988 onwards (Brittain 2010). Since then, the Paralympics have been held only a few weeks after the Olympics in the same city making use of the same venues. As Cashman and Richmond (2011) notes, “An Olympic endorsement proved a huge boost for the Paralympics, adding status and legitimacy. The timing of the Paralympics, two to three weeks after the Olympics, is also auspicious. By then, people have recovered from the surfeit of Olympic sport and are ready for another”, this time a very different idea sporting festival.

As history shows, Rome became the first city outside of Stoke Mandeville to host the Games, but the first official use of the term Paralympics did not occur until the Tokyo 1964 Paralympic Games (Brittain 2008; International Paralympic Committee 2015b) (Brittain 2010). Olympic and Paralympic Villages and precincts quickly became the focus of international attention from the moment the bidding cities express their interest (Scherer 2011). Prospective host cities and nation states have in recent times competed vigorously for the right to stage the Olympic and Paralympic Games, with each bid city expending tens of millions of dollars¹ in that process. Being selected by the International Olympic Committee (IOC) to host an Olympic Games involves the expenditure of billions of dollars of public funds, whether for new or upgraded facilities, associated infrastructure and athlete accommodation (Darcy and Taylor 2013; Gold and Gold 2010).

¹ US Dollars is used generically for all currencies around the world, including Euros.

From a Para athlete perspective it is frustrating that in the midst of the bidding frenzy, it is rare that serious attention is given to issues of accessibility, disability or inclusion as they apply to the Paralympics. This was until London 2012: inclusion became one of the foundation platforms for the bid, with an unprecedented volume of academic and policy papers dedicated to the importance of not simply planning for a great Paralympic Games, but preparing for a post-event legacy that better included disability, accessibility and inclusion in the community (Hayes and Horne 2011; Office of Disability Issues 2011; Weed et al. 2012; Weed and Dowse 2009).

From 1948 to 1984, the history of the Paralympic Games was one of doing “as best as one could under the circumstances” rather than accomplishing best practice. The bidding frenzy to win the right to host the Games is, indeed, a relatively modern phenomenon. In the case of the Los Angeles 1984 Olympic Games there was an absence of any competition for a host owing to the tit-for-tat boycotting of the Olympic Games by some Eastern bloc countries in response to the boycotting of the 1980 Moscow Olympic Games by some Western countries. With a lack of local interest in the Paralympics being held in association with Los Angeles, a decision was made to split the hosting of the Paralympic Games between Stoke Mandeville and New York (Brittain 2012; Gold and Gold 2010). The subsequent Seoul 1988 Olympics proved to be a watershed for the Paralympics: for the first time a host welcomed both Games, with the Paralympics following on shortly after the Olympics. In Seoul the same venues and transport were used, the only major difference being a separate, purpose-built village for Para athletes (Brittain 2010, 2012; Gold and Gold 2007). This Olympic–Paralympic co-relationship became even better in Barcelona, which provided a model for others to follow (Domínguez et al. 2014; Legg and Steadward 2011). Disappointingly, though, the 1996 Atlanta Olympic and Paralympic Games revealed that new relationship to be ad hoc and vulnerable to the priorities of the local organising committee. As Darcy and Taylor (2013) note there were a series of well-documented problems in Atlanta, including the Athlete’s Village and the venues being left in a state of operational chaos, pointed to the need for greater formal integration between the organisers of the two Games (Appleby 2007; Gold and Gold 2007; Heath 1996).

Venues and villages become the focus of the building programme and the major capital costs. These capital costs occur over a relatively short time frame of 7–9 years and effectively accelerate infrastructure provision within the host cities. However, until recently many host cities did not plan beyond the Games' time period. For example, in the case of the Sydney 2000 Olympic and Paralympic Games, it was some 10 years after the event was held that the Sydney Olympic precinct had its first master plan (Cashman and Richmond 2011). In addition to venues and villages, host cities face major infrastructure investment across the Olympic precincts, athletes' village, transport and security that reflect the IPC's legacy vision. To empower the Paralympics, disability and accessibility, transforming it from an ad hoc consideration to one of strategic opportunity to contribute towards the material improvement of people with a disability within the host city and country of the Paralympic Games, the IPC developed the Accessibility Guide (International Paralympic Committee 2009, 2013). While a main motivation of the Accessibility Guide was that there were no globally accepted guidelines on accessibility, the document also identified broader aspirations of the Paralympic movement. In particular, the Accessibility Guide explicitly linked the Paralympic Games to the United Nations *Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities* (United Nations 2006), with which it sought to integrate the principles within the guidelines. In doing so, the IPC broadened the applicability of the guidelines to a "whole of journey experience" and sought to influence the accessibility of the host city as a destination. While this aspiration is to be applauded, the IPC also needs to resource legacy research at each Paralympic Games and have this embedded in planning documents.

Paralympic Games as a Mega-Event

Are the Paralympic Games a mega-event? Sport mega-events such as the Olympic Games and the Football World Cup display two central characteristics. The first relates to the external organisational factors that shape how they are managed and include: extensive global media coverage; the number of international tourists attracted to visit the host city/nation and attend the event; and the kind of impacts that emerge from hosting such events (Frawley and Adair 2013). Secondly, sport mega-events are shaped

by the extensive and complex internal organisational features that include the scale and scope of the event; the duration of the event and the time needed to prepare the necessary infrastructure; and the number of athletes, officials, fans and media that attend the event (Malfas et al. 2004). It can be argued then that while the Paralympic Games are not shaped to the same extent by external organisational factors as the Olympic Games or Football World Cup are, the internal organisational factors today are very similar, especially in terms of scale, scope and event duration. As the Paralympic Games continues to grow from a media and communications perspective, tourism demands (and the impacts that arise) are likely to become more significant.

Growth

As identified in the opening paragraph of this chapter, since the 1948 Stoke Mandeville Games the Paralympics have undergone phenomenal growth. That growth has also included increasing representations of impairment types, the volume and percentage of female athletes, the quality of sport event offerings and geographic representation across participant nations (Brittain 2009; Sherrill 1993). Table 1.1 presents the overall number and gender breakdown of participants at summer Paralympic Games to 2012. As the percentage of women column shows, there is a significant disparity between the overall numbers of men and women participating in the Games, albeit with a high of 35 % at London 2012. As identified in Table 1.2, the Paralympics has evolved from a single disability group of people with spinal cord injury who were wheelchair users to include amputee, les autres, cerebral palsy, intellectual disability and vision-impaired. These athletes are able to compete in some 25 summer and six winter sports.

Classification

Classification is the key area of differentiation between the Olympics and the Paralympics. The classification system of the International Paralympic Committee (IPC) requires the use of an evidence-based system (S. Tweedy

Table 1.1 The number and gender of athletes at the Paralympic Games from 1972 to 2012

Games	Number of athletes	Men	Women	% of Women
Heidelberg 1972	1004	798	210	20.9 ^a
Toronto 1976	1657	1404	253	15.2 ^a
Arnhem 1980	1973	1614	359	18.2 ^a
New York/Stoke Mandeville 1984	2102	1561	535	25.5
Seoul 1988	3059	2379	680	22.2
Barcelona 1992	3001	2301	700	23.3
Atlanta 1996	3259	2470	791	24.3
Sydney 2000	3881	2891	991	25.5
Athens 2004	3810	2645	1165	30.6
Beijing 2008	4011	2628	1383	34.5
London 2012	4302	2776	1510	35.1

Adapted and added from Cashman and Darcy (2008)

^aNote: Data are based on information contained/sourced by the IPC in the original hardcopy final results publications. Some information from earlier Paralympic Games (i.e. prior to 1984) such as relay and team members is not presented in these sources and therefore, these participation figures may not be complete.

and Vanlandewijck 2011). This system aims to reduce the likelihood of inequitable or one-sided competition where the “least disabled athlete always wins” (International Paralympic Committee 2016a). The classification system has two key roles: to determine an athlete’s eligibility to compete, and to group athletes for competition. Yet, the objectivity of the classification system and its philosophical foundation has been heavily critiqued by numerous authors (Buckley 2008; P. D. Howe 2008b; Jones and Howe 2005; Klenck and Gebke 2007; Peers 2009; Sean Tweedy and Howe 2011). Indeed, there have been several significant classification controversies that have embarrassed the Paralympic movement and led to the exclusion of impairment groups at different times during Paralympic history (Burkett 2010; Cashman and Darcy 2008; Jobling et al. 2008; Richter et al. 1992).

Paralympic athletes are grouped by the degree of activity limitation resulting from their impairment. Disabled athletes compete together in the same categories on the dual premise of fair competition and equal

Table 1.2 Eligible impairments

Impairment	Explanation
Impaired muscle power	Reduced force generated by muscles or muscle groups, may occur in one limb or the lower half of the body, as caused, for example, by spinal cord injuries, spina bifida or poliomyelitis.
Impaired passive range of movement	Range of movement in one or more joints is reduced permanently, for example due to arthrogryposis. Hypermobility of joints, joint instability, and acute conditions, such as arthritis, are not considered eligible impairments.
Limb deficiency	Total or partial absence of bones or joints as a consequence of trauma (e.g. car accident), illness (e.g. bone cancer) or congenital limb deficiency (e.g. dysmelia).
Leg length difference	Bone shortening in one leg due to congenital deficiency or trauma.
Short stature	Reduced standing height due to abnormal dimensions of bones of upper and lower limbs or trunk, for example due to achondroplasia or growth hormone dysfunction.
Hypertonia	Abnormal increase in muscle tension and a reduced ability of a muscle to stretch, due to a neurological condition, such as cerebral palsy, brain injury or multiple sclerosis.
Ataxia	Lack of co-ordination of muscle movements due to a neurological condition, such as cerebral palsy, brain injury or multiple sclerosis.
Athetosis	Generally characterised by unbalanced, involuntary movements and a difficulty in maintaining a symmetrical posture, due to a neurological condition, such as cerebral palsy, brain injury or multiple sclerosis.
Visual impairment	Vision is impacted by either an impairment of the eye structure, optical nerves or optical pathways, or the visual cortex.
Intellectual impairment	A limitation in intellectual functioning and adaptive behaviour as expressed in conceptual, social and practical adaptive skills, which originates before the age of 18".

Source: IPC (International Paralympic Committee [2016a](#))

opportunity to compete (Jones and Howe [2005](#)). However, as different sports require different activities, the impact of the impairment on each sport also differs. As a result, for classification to minimise the impact of impairment on sport performance, classification for the Paralympic Games is sport-specific (International Paralympic Committee [2016a, b](#)).

As such, for each sporting event the eligible impairment will have classifications for that specific sport. When evaluating an athlete, the classification panels must consider three issues, which are answered through the process of evaluation:

1. Does the athlete have an eligible impairment for this sport?
2. Does the athlete's eligible impairment meet the minimum disability criteria of the sport?
3. Which sport class describes the athlete's activity limitation most accurately?

With regard to eligible impairment, the IPC recognises ten specific forms of impairment outlined in Table 1.2.

The presence of an eligible impairment has to be proven by means of medical diagnostic information that must be presented at the time of athlete evaluation (IPC 2016a, b). Each sport's Paralympic classification rules describe how "severe" an eligible impairment must be for an athlete to be considered eligible (IPC 2015a, b). These criteria are referred to as minimum disability criteria: they are defined on the basis of scientific research, which methodically assesses the impact of impairments on sport activities. Scientific criteria also allow for the impact of individual training to improve performance (Tweedy and Vanlandewijck 2011). Because different disabilities will influence different sporting activities, the minimum disability criteria varies from sport to sport (IPC 2015a, b). Tweedy and Vanlandewijck (2011) also note that the application of a classification system for Paralympic athletes may have a significant impact on the success of individual Paralympic athletes by controlling which competitions and sports they are able to compete in. They state that "unfortunately issues relating to the weighting and aggregation of measures used in classification pose significant threats to the validity of current systems of classification" (Tweedy and Vanlandewijck 2011, p. 259).

Third, if an athlete is eligible for a sport, the final step of classification will be an assessment of which sport class the athlete is eligible to compete in. A sport class groups athletes with a similar "activity limitations" together for competition, so that they can participate equitably. Once again sport classes are different by sport. Additionally, sport class does

not necessarily comprise athletes with the same impairment. If different impairments cause similar activity limitation, athletes with these impairments are allowed to compete together. Currently there are 25 summer Paralympic sports and six winter Paralympic sports. While many of these sports are shared with the Olympic Games (e.g. athletics and swimming), other sports are Paralympic-specific (e.g. Boccia, wheelchair rugby, wheelchair dance sport and Goalball). For a detailed understanding of sport-specific classification systems for summer and winter games please see the following guides (International Paralympic Committee 2015a, 2016b).

Paralympic Scholarship

An examination of the Scopus research database provides an understanding of the relative comparison between Olympic and Paralympic scholarship. Searching on the term “Olympic” and “Paralympic” results in some 10,180 Olympic documents and some 840 Paralympic documents. Using this crude measure suggests that there has been some 1200 % more Olympic than Paralympic scholarship. When examining the disciplin-

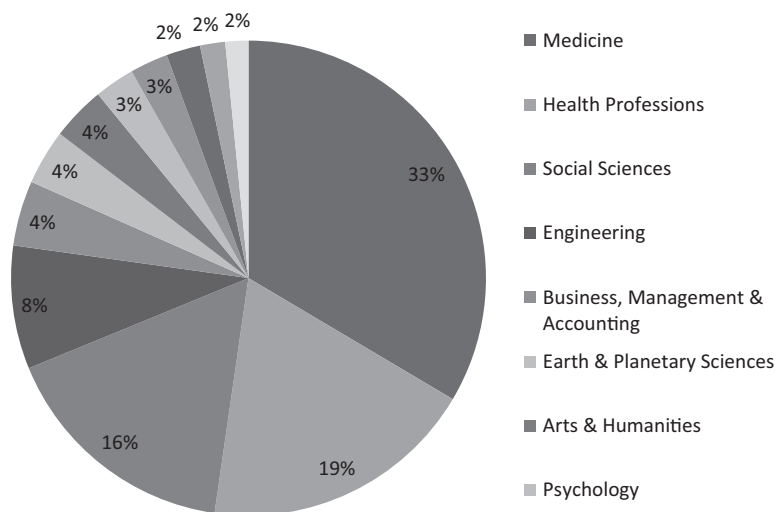


Fig. 1.1 Proportion of publications by discipline area (Source: Elsevier Scientific Publishing Company 2016)

ary origins of Paralympic scholarship, Fig. 1.1 shows the domination of medical and health-related scholarship accounting for over 52 %, with the social sciences and business/management accounting for 24 %. Prior to 2006 there had been a relative trickle of articles with a steady growth since 2006 with 20 articles peaking in 2012, with some 130 articles leading up to the London 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games, followed by a slight decrease on average of 120 articles per year since. Of course, these figures need to be presented with the caveat that there is a bias towards English-language publications. This is supported by the publications by country: the UK with 36 % of all publications, followed by the USA (15 %), Canada (14 %), and Australia (11 %), before the first non-English speaking country of Brazil (6 %) and Germany (5 %), with China and Poland both contributing 4 % of publications.

Chapters

In Chapter 2 by Dowling and Legg, the management of Paralympic Games stakeholders is investigated. The complexity of the Paralympic Games is in part due to the various stakeholders who are responsible for key deliverables. Stakeholders such as the local organising committee, government, athletes, sponsors, media and broadcasters all play pivotal roles in Games management, and how they work together over time is important to the event quality.

Chapter 3 by Darcy focuses on disability access at the Paralympic Games, which is arguably the key logistical consideration of including the Paralympic Games within the bidding city documents and host city operational planning. Darcy examines the key components of accessibility required by host cities to successfully stage a Paralympic Games for athletes, spectators, employees, volunteers, contractors and other stakeholders. While the Paralympics and its origin event, the Stoke Mandeville Games, have been in existence since 1948, much of the early years of Paralympic sporting involvement were held in venues and villages that simply were not up to the standard required by athletes with disabilities. A very ad hoc approach was taken to accessibility where host cities “did what they could” and Paralympic organisers spent relatively little time

pressing accessibility as an issue due to their relative powerless position in finding cities willing to host the Paralympic Games as examined earlier in this chapter. The 1992 Barcelona Games and 2000 Sydney Games showed what could be done if a host city took on board International Best Practice and had the will to implement it within their Olympic and Paralympic planning. This was partly due to the lack of global accessibility standards. All this changed in 2009 with the development of the IPC Accessibility Guide (International Paralympic Committee 2009, 2013), which brought together the key accessibility components for host cities and set this within best practice for a “whole of journey” and “destination management approach” to access planning.

In Chap. 4 by Misener, the management of Paralympic Games legacy is explored. While much of the sport mega-event literature to date has been focused largely on the Olympic Games and Football World Cup, Misener emphasises that there is considerable scope for Paralympic Games legacy research (Frawley and Adair 2014). This chapter explores the potential for greater legacy management to maximise the benefits for people with disabilities—especially for cities and countries that host the Paralympic Games.

In Chap. 5 by Howe and Kitchin, the management of the athlete classification process is explored. The chapter starts by making it clear that the Paralympics should be a celebration of high performance sport, however, this view is often overshadowed by policymakers who are more interested in the (dis) in disability rather than athlete ability. The chapter therefore examines Paralympic classification from a critical perspective, drawing on a range of sociological and disability theorists. The chapter explores in particular how the classification process shapes the experience of athletes at the Games.

Chapter 6 by Adair, doping control at the Paralympic Games, explores the processes involved with drug testing, the rationale for anti-doping, and the policy apparatus underpinning the Paralympic Movement’s commitment to the World Anti-Doping Agency and its Prohibited List of Substances and Methods. Intriguingly, Paralympians are less likely to be tested than Olympians—particularly between Games, while adaptive athletes have more options in terms of pushing performance boundaries and seeking an “edge” over rivals than do their able-bodied peers.