Inland Norway University of Applied Sciences


Inland School of Business and Social Sciences

**Roald Undlien**

PhD Dissertation

# "We just knew that we had to be a part of it"

– The Youth Olympic Games as a catalyst for social innovation

PhD in Innovation in Services – Public and Private (INSEPP)
2020

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**No. 11** **Roald Undlien:** "We just knew that we had to be a part of it" – The Youth Olympic Games as a catalyst for social innovation

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# “We just knew that we had to be a part of it”

## – The Youth Olympic Games as a catalyst for social innovation

PhD Thesis

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# SAMMENDRAG

Denne avhandlingen undersøker hvordan frivillig arbeid ved et olympisk arrangement kan fungere som en katalysator for sosial innovasjon for mennesker med utviklingshemming. Mennesker med utviklingshemming er vanligvis ikke en del av frivillighetskorpset ved idrettsarrangementer, og vi vet derfor lite om hva slags utbytte de kan ha av denne typen aktivitet. Avhandlingen bidrar til å fylle dette kunnskapshullet.

Avhandlingen bidrar empirisk til frivillighetsfeltet ved å studere en gruppe utviklingshemmede frivillige, i lys av teori om «social leverage» (sosial innflytelse), sosial innovasjon og sosialt entreprenørskap. Avhandlingen er en kvalitativ casestudie, med Ungdoms-OL på Lillehammer 2016 som case. Arrangørene av Ungdoms-OL 2016 viste vilje til å inkludere alle slags mennesker som frivillige under Ungdoms-OL. Blant disse var en gruppe elever med forskjellige typer utviklingshemming ved en lokal videregående skole. Avhandlingen følger spesielt denne gruppen, som fikk i oppgave å plukke og sortere søppel på to av arenaene under Ungdoms-OL, før, under, og to år etter arrangementet. Flere aktører som jobbet for sosial endring for marginaliserte grupper, oppfattet Ungdoms-OL som en mulighet for sosialt entreprenørskap, og fikk satt søkelys på sine prosjekter ved at personer fra disse målgruppene deltok som frivillige under arrangementet. I avhandlingen er fire slike prosjekter studert.

Avhandlingen inneholder totalt fire artikler. I første artikkel studeres sosiale entreprenørers erfaringer med å bruke Ungdoms-OL som arena for sitt arbeid. Artikkel to dreier seg om hvordan en kan tilrettelegge kvalitative intervjuer for mennesker med utviklingshemming. I artikkel tre og fire presenteres studien av gruppen med utviklingshemming som deltok som frivillige. Noen av hovedfunnene er at frivillighet ved olympiske arrangementer har et potensial for å skape vinn–vinn-effekter og samarbeid mellom personer eller organisasjoner som normalt ikke jobber sammen. Organisasjoner som setter søkelys på sosiale temaer på vegne av utsatte grupper, opplevde Ungdoms-OL som en egnet arena for sosialt entreprenørskap. Videre kan sosiale entreprenører dra nytte av markedsføringen og oppmerksomheten som følger i kjølvannet av et olympisk arrangement for å løfte frem (social leverage) sine prosjekter, og i sin tur skape sosial verdi for spesifikke grupper gjennom frivillig arbeid.

# ABSTRACT

This thesis explores how volunteering at an Olympic event can function as a catalyst for social innovation for people with intellectual disabilities (ID). People with ID are not usually a part of the sports-event volunteer context; thus, little is known about potential benefits they can access by doing so. This thesis contributes to filling this gap in the literature.

The thesis is a qualitative single-case study, using the 2016 Lillehammer Youth Olympic Games (LYOG) as its main case. The event organizers demonstrated social responsibility by displaying a willingness to include all kinds of people as volunteer participants in the LYOG, including a group of high school students with ID. This study follows, in particular, this group of volunteers with ID who were assigned to pick up garbage on two of the main venues of the LYOG. Furthermore, several other actors seeking to address social change for specific target groups perceived the event as an entrepreneurial opportunity and used it to highlight their projects through volunteer activities. Thus, four other projects that involved other marginalized groups are also partially studied.

Empirically, the thesis contributes to the field of sports event volunteering by studying a group of volunteers with intellectual disabilities through the theoretical framework of social leveraging, social innovation, and social entrepreneurship. Furthermore, through the empirical studies, appended in three articles, links to other theoretical concepts are made, including social capital and quality of life. In addition, one paper related to facilitating qualitative interviews with people with ID is included in the thesis. Some of the main findings are that volunteering at Olympic events holds a potential for cooperation between persons or organizations that do not normally cooperate, where a win–win effect can be created. Organizations addressing social issues on behalf of vulnerable groups experienced the LYOG as a suitable arena for entrepreneurial social projects, with a potential for creating social value for specific groups through volunteering. Furthermore, social entrepreneurs can take advantage of the marketing and attention that follow in the wake of an Olympic event in order to leverage their projects, in turn creating social value through volunteering.

# PREFACE

Back in 2015, through a series of coincidences, I discovered a group of people who were planning to participate as volunteers in the Youth Olympic Games in Lillehammer. Back then I could not possibly imagine this discovery to result in the very foundation of this thesis, but here I am. The thesis is completed, finished, done. I must confess I am proud of this work, the project itself, and proud of the fact that I am through to the other side.

I would also like to thank the Inland Norway University of Applied Sciences, and in particular INSEPP, and Martin Rønningen, for giving me the opportunity to work with my PhD. However, I could not have done this alone. I have received a lot of assistance, guidance and counseling. Two brilliant men have stood by my side throughout this whole process, and I could not have done this without you – Jon Helge Lesjø and Dag Vidar Hanstad. Jon Helge – your door is always open, and you were never too busy to see me, listen to my struggles, and hear my complaints, thoughts and worries. You have such grand knowledge, and a soothing, calm aura, that was much needed and appreciated throughout the last four years. Thank you, and thank you again. Dag Vidar – you woke me up on my first supervision, giving me direct and strict advice of how to write at a PhD-level. This prepared me for the years to come, and for that, I am grateful. You always told me the things I needed to hear, when I needed to hear them the most. In addition, you were always available. Whenever I sent you an e-mail, there was as reply shortly after, congratulating me, supporting me, or giving me advice. Jon Helge and Dag Vidar, you complete each other, and I have learned so much from you. Thank you so much.

I have been so fortunate to be a part of a group of fellow PhD students at INTOP, who have also played a very important role throughout this process. In random order: Line, Marit, Gunhild, Anne, Mette, Eva, Svein Erik, Odd Rune and Jonas – thank you for always cheering for me, and for being awesome colleagues. Lunch with you people is simply the best. In addition, I need to direct a special thanks to my room-mate, friend and partner-in crime – Erlend. You have listened to my whining, complaining and frustration, as well as my upsides, cheers and nonsense. Thank you for all your advice, humor, and for being a good friend in the time I have known you. May the force be with you – always.

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Lastly, and most importantly, I would like to thank my family. For several periods, you have endured me being moody, distant, and engrossed in my work. Still, you have been my anchor, my safe haven and my refuge. Ingemund and Ådne, my beautiful boys, thank you for being who you are, and for learning and reminding me of the life that exists outside of the PhD. Sigrid, I truly could not have done this without you. You`re my inspiration and guide, and I simply cannot thank you enough for always being there for me, giving me support – even when you were being busy with your own PhD. We did it!

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Undlien, R. (2019). Facilitating qualitative interviews with people with intellectual disabilities. Submitted to *Nordic Journal of Social Research*.

**Article 3**

Undlien, R. (2019). Being a Part of It – People with intellectual disabilities as volunteers in the Youth Olympic Games. *Journal of Sport for Development, 7*(12), 33-45.

**Article 4**

Undlien, R. (2019). Lasting social value or a one-off? People with intellectual disabilities' experiences with volunteering for the Youth Olympic Games. *Journal of Sport for Development, 7*(13), 33-45.

# 1 INTRODUCTION

Most stories about sporting events, and in particular major ones, are usually those that tell of success. Such stories are often about those who compete, succeed, win, or excel in sports on an expert level – the athletes. Yet, another side to the story can be found in the tales of those who contribute to making the events happen by building stages, carrying materials and supplies to wherever they are needed, and ensuring that everyone receives food and beverages and is where he or she should be at the right time – namely the volunteers. Even though the stories of the volunteers are also mainly about success, often connected to the benefits one can gain from volunteering, this group continues to receive less attention by the media and researchers. Adding intellectual disabilities to the picture, the story becomes even more obscure. However, this thesis tells the story of one such group, a small number of people with intellectual disabilities who volunteered at a major sporting event.

Looking at volunteers for major international sporting events conducted in Norway, they are usually males in their mid-thirties, married with children, and highly educated with above-average personal incomes (E. Skille, 2012). Furthermore, those who volunteer are known to extend their social resources and increase their networks of contacts, qualifications, and quality of life (Stebbins, 2004; Wollebæk & Sivesind, 2010). By contrast, there are those who find themselves excluded from this context, who are unable to access the same social arenas as others, and who are not given the same opportunities to contribute. Thus, they are unable to gain access to the benefits that can follow. One such group comprises people with intellectual disabilities (ID), who are often described as recipients of assistance and care from others, focusing mainly on the "problems" related to their disability (Roker, Player, & Coleman, 1998). In addition, people with ID are often seen in relation to negative categories within the society and remain a somewhat "hidden" group (Kittelsaa, 2008). Thus, it is important to examine stories about instances in which people with ID have resisted being labeled in the context of their limitations. In other words, we must look at contexts in which they can be seen as contributing to the society while gaining access to the same experiences, benefits, and possibilities as everyone else.

In 2016, a school class with students with ID volunteered at an Olympic event in Norway. In doing so, they had an opportunity to do what is described by Roker et al. (1998) as "challenging the image," to change how others perceived them, and to be seen as useful persons. This thesis tells the story about how this group could be "a part of it" and the personal and social outcomes of their participation as volunteers. In relating this story, we may learn more about the potential that volunteering has for people with ID. Furthermore, we can learn more about how volunteering can matter for other marginalized groups and why event organizers should strive for the inclusion of all people in their events.

### *Volunteering and people with intellectual disabilities*

There are several stereotypes concerning people with ID. For instance, they may be seen as particularly happy and affectionate (L. Gilmore, Campbell, & Cuskelly, 2003), as people with poor conversational skills (Hatton, 1998), or in relation to negative stereotypes about sexuality (Azzopardi-Lane & Callus, 2015). To some extent, these views are related to prejudices about how people with ID should appear and should act. Furthermore, people with disabilities, including those with ID, are continually marginalized through a series of social practices (Darcy, Dickson, & Benson, 2014). Despite the work of strong advocates for the human rights of people with ID, the majority of this group still experiences being placed in a dependent and devalued role within the society (Patterson & Pegg, 2009). There is very little focus on the positive contributions that many young people with disabilities can make to the society, for instance, through volunteering (Roker et al., 1998).

Only a small number of studies have examined the possibilities and potential benefits of volunteering for people with ID (Trembath, Balandin, Stancliffe, & Togher, 2010). Yet some attention has been given to people with other kinds of disabilities who have been found to participate less than others in voluntary organizations and as volunteers in general (Eimhjellen, 2011; Kappelides & Spoor, 2018). It is reasonable to assume that this applies to people with ID as well, as it is known that this group generally participates in the community less than others (including those with other types of disabilities) (Verdonschot, De Witte, Reichrath, Buntinx, & Curfs, 2009). It may be considered a social problem when groups of people, such as those with disabilities, are either willingly or coincidentally excluded from a social setting that is known to be beneficial for participants, such as volunteering at sports events (Stebbins, 2004). However, such events are not only capable of but also highly pertinent for contributing

to the solution and even the prevention of social problems (Schenker, Gerrevall, Linnér, & Peterson, 2014). One way in which sports events might accomplish this is by facilitating the occurrence of social innovations.

### *Social innovation*

Social innovation can be seen as finding answers to problems or identifying new strategies to address needs that have thus far, in some way, gone unmet (Dees, 2007). However, there is really no consensus within academia of how to clearly define social innovation (Pol & Ville, 2009; van der Have & Rubalcaba, 2016). According to the vast number of definitions that are currently to be found within the literature, social innovation can have quite different meanings. However, the main interest for this thesis is innovation as described by Murray, Caulier-Grice, and Mulgan (2010) that is social both in ends and means. Consequently, in this work, social innovation will be defined according to the definition by Murray et al. (2010, p. 3) as "new ideas (products, services, and models) that simultaneously meet social needs and create new social relationships or collaborations." A central notion within this definition is the need for something "new." There needs to be a *new* idea leading to *new* forms of relationships. This implies that a central notion of social innovation relates to some kind of change. According to Mulgan (2006), social change is something that can be achieved in several ways. One way is through the work of a small number of heroic, energetic, and impatient individuals coming up with a new idea for improving the situation for a certain social group and, in turn, implementing this new idea (Mulgan, Tucker, Ali, & Sanders, 2007). Furthermore, according to A. C. Smith and Westerbeek (2007), sports can be used by corporations or organizations working toward social change as a means to fulfill their social responsibilities in the society.

### *Social responsibility*

It is not unusual for major sporting events to demonstrate a sense of social responsibility, and this topic is currently gaining much attention in the scholarly literature of sports management (Breitbarth, Walzel, & van Eekeren, 2019). A central element of social responsibility is to return benefits resulting from successful initiatives to the society from which they are derived (A. C. Smith & Westerbeek, 2007).

The International Olympic Committee (IOC) has recognized the need for the Olympic movement to take responsibility by engaging in global ecological challenges and working toward

becoming a global, universalist, and ethically responsible institution (Loland, 2006). However, the IOC and the nature of Olympic events face criticism on several points. For instance, the Olympics can cause social dislocation. For the local people of the host community, it may be difficult to find meaning, feelings of identity, and a sense of connectedness in their own neighborhoods due to the transformation of physical spaces resulting from massive events such as the Olympics (Misener & Mason, 2006; A. Smith, 2009).

The most common rationale for hosting major international sporting events is the economic benefits that can be achieved (Misener & Mason, 2006), such as capital development in terms of new and upgraded athletic facilities, as well as upgrades to infrastructure that are known to follow in the wake of major sporting events (Doherty, 2009). However, research suggests that there are few – or even no – positive economic impacts to be gained by hosting Olympic events (Owen, 2005). In fact, there are massive cost overruns connected to hosting the Olympics. According to Flyvbjerg and Stewart (2012), the Olympic games overrun their costs with 100 percent consistency, and these overruns are significantly larger than for any other type of megaprojects (including projects related to infrastructure construction or the building of dams). Looking at the Olympic Games in Sochi, they were the second-most expensive games ever conducted, with very limited outcomes in return for the costs incurred. Extensive building projects led to overcapacities in hotels, defaults on state-backed loans by investors, and no plans for use of the facilities (both infrastructure and sporting facilities) after the event (Müller, 2014). Even the bidding process for the games involves substantial costs. In the bidding stage, potential benefits to socially excluded groups are often highlighted; however, research has suggested that the Olympic Games generally result in few benefits for these groups (Minnaert, 2012).

As is well known, “Citius, Altius, Fortius” is the Olympic motto. The Olympic Games, as an elite sporting event, aim to showcase the best athletes in the world. In addition, the Olympic movement aims to include all people from all nations, including those with few opportunities to produce the best athletes or even to send teams to the Olympics (Collins & Buller, 2003). Furthermore, the Olympic movement aims to provide rights and access to sports to all, with a particular focus on youth (IOC, 2000). Still, the “sport for all” campaigns have been successful mostly in wealthy Scandinavian countries and have had considerably less impact in other Eu-

ropean countries. Furthermore, as pointed out by Donnelly (2008), one can claim that competitive sports promoted through events like the Olympics are built upon principles of social exclusion, where sports can be used to foster ideological conformity, nationalism, militarism, and discriminatory attitudes relating to gender, race, and disability.

On the other hand, sports also offer the potential for working toward inclusion by bringing individuals together, in spite of ideological, social, and economic differences, through a shared interest in activities that are fundamentally valuable. Furthermore, sports can offer a sense of belonging, either to a team, a club, or a program, while providing opportunities for developing valued capabilities and competencies, increasing social capital through the extension of social networks, and building community cohesion and civic pride (Bailey, 2005). Still, looking in greater detail at the ways that modern sports are organized, the issue of social exclusion emerges, where social inclusion is not adequately promoted. Several groups of people, based on their ages, skill levels, gender, social class, or a number of other factors, are excluded from participating in sports (Tjønndal, 2017b).

In order to address social problems such as the exclusion of people with ID from contexts relating to volunteering in sports events, it is not unusual to take new approaches or adopt new ideas. Innovation is often a necessity for sports organizations in order for them to evolve and remain relevant or competitive (Ratten, 2011c). Still, the sports movement has problems with the inclusion of all children and youth, such as children from socioeconomically underprivileged groups (Peterson & Schenker, 2017b) or people with ID (Elnan, 2015). When it comes to addressing specific groups with social needs that are not currently being met, social entrepreneurs are known to apply the element of social innovation (Hulgård & Lundgaard Andersen, 2014). Social entrepreneurship is a young field of research and, in particular, lacks empirical studies (Short, Moss, & Lumpkin, 2009). However, studies on this topic have increased, and it has received considerable attention from different streams of research (Mair & Marti, 2006). This also applies to the field of sports management, where social entrepreneurship is gaining interest (Bjärsholm, 2017; Ratten, 2011a).

There is also a long, although modest, tradition for studying sports and social change. Throughout history, individuals have used the playing field to highlight social and political issues (Kaufman & Wolff, 2010). Several important human-rights causes have been addressed in this

manner, including issues related to gender, race, and anti-apartheid (Kaufman & Wolff, 2010; Kidd & Donnelly, 2000). Furthermore, sports can function as a vehicle for social change (Kaufman & Wolff, 2010), for instance, as a tool for social inclusion or by assisting in building socially healthy communities (Sherry, Schulenkorf, & Chalip, 2015).

A growing body of literature is being dedicated to the growth of sports as a channel for continuing international development initiatives, as sports have significant potential as a means to achieve social, political, and economic change (Levermore, 2010). Another stream of research is dedicated to the study of sporting events in developing and developed contexts in order to foster change, enforce social cohesion and healthy lifestyles, and highlight locations as tourist destinations (Bob & Swart, 2010). However, this thesis does not align with streams of research attempting to add knowledge about how sports can lead to massive changes on a grand scale. Rather, it aims to demonstrate how a small-scale volunteer project, transpiring over a brief time span during an Olympic event, may affect a relatively small group on both a short- and long-term basis.

When the Youth Olympic Games were to be organized in the city of Lillehammer, Norway, the event organizers highlighted their social responsibility, stating that this was a sporting event aiming to include all segments of the society, especially in terms of offering opportunities for all kinds of people to work as volunteers for the event (Lillehammer2016, 2012). Thus, the organizing committee for the Youth Olympic Games displayed an open-minded strategy toward including all parts of the society to participate in their event. Consequently, a school class for students with intellectual disabilities volunteered to participate. In doing so, a new group within the volunteer context was identified in an event that stands out as something extraordinary within the Norwegian sports context. Olympic events are unlike other sporting events as they encompass numerous noteworthy and extraordinary qualities. These special circumstances can be illustrated by what Chalip (2014) described as a liminoid feeling, i.e., a sense of taking part in – and being part of – something greater than oneself, a sense of celebration, and a sense of the social barriers and conditions of everyday life being transcended, in this case, during the days of a sporting event. In some cases, this experience can be used as a means of social leveraging to highlight social issues (Chalip, 2006).

Sporting events are dependent upon volunteers in numerous areas. Volunteers are often those who are responsible for planning, organization, marketing, and production, and are often the ones who, ultimately, make the difference between a financial deficit or surplus for local event organizers (Solberg, 2003). In fact, in Norway, sports represent the largest volunteer sector, with a volunteer-effort equivalent of 23,000 FTEs (hours' worth of work) (St. Meld. nr. 39 (2006-2007)). Still, people with disabilities are known to participate less in volunteering for sports organizations than the rest of the population (Eimhjellen, 2011), in spite of the fact that this group has a large potential for achieving several benefits through engagement in volunteer activities (Patterson & Pegg, 2009). Through volunteering, people with disabilities can gain an increased level of self-confidence, an emerging sense of agency, increased social networks, and the development of practical work skills (Roker et al., 1998).

At the present time, there is little to no research addressing volunteering for people with ID in a Norwegian sporting-event context. Sports-event volunteering represents a substantial and extensive field of research within sports management (Wicker, 2017). Still, there is a gap in the literature in regard to the engagement of people with ID in this kind of activity, and this thesis aims to contribute to narrowing this gap. With it, the field of sports-event volunteering is explored through the theoretical concepts of social innovation and social entrepreneurship applied to a case study of the 2016 Lillehammer Youth Olympic Games (LYOG). This thesis also aims to address the need for additional empirical contributions to social innovation and social entrepreneurship in a sports-management context.

## 1.1 Aims and research question

The aims of this study are to explore how an Olympic event can inspire social entrepreneurs and motivate them to be part of it. Furthermore, the present work investigates how such an event can be used as an advantage in social entrepreneurs' efforts toward social change for a specific group. In addition, it aims to explore the role a major sporting event can play in a process of social innovation as well as whether and how this new idea or service can contribute to adding social value for a specific group of people.

The notion of social value is particularly in need of further conceptualization. Moreover, the process of social innovation and, in particular, how it is initiated, remains under-studied (Mulgan, 2006). This study aims to address these matters by strenghtening the link between

social value and social innovation. In addition, this thesis seeks to further explore the possibilities that people who are usually excluded as volunteers at sporting events have to achieve social value by participating as volunteers at an Olympic event. The volunteering of people with ID will be analyzed as a social innovation and an idea that addresses a social need (in this case, inclusion in new contexts) while establishing new relationships or collaborations (Murray et al., 2010). Therefore, the research question for the thesis is: *How can volunteering at an Olympic event function as a catalyst for social innovation?*

A central concept within the main research question of the thesis, and thus a subject for elaboration, is how Olympic events can *function* as catalysts for social innovation, particularly regarding social change for people with ID. In this thesis, "function" is considered in relation to leveraging based on sports events. An extensive body of literature exists on the subject of leveraging related to megasports events for economic development (Chalip, 2006, 2014; Chalip & Leyns, 2002). However, the subject of social leverage (Chalip, 2006) and how it relates to major sports events has received less focus.

In addition, an important element in the process of social leverage, as described by Chalip (2006), is the liminality that is sensed and experienced at Olympic events, i.e., a feeling of fellowship and community. However, the 2016 Lillehammer Youth Olympic Games (LYOG) was on a much smaller scale than the Summer and Winter Olympic Games. Thus, whether the notion of liminality is applicable to smaller events will also be explored to a certain extent in this study.

In the research question for the thesis, social innovation also stands out as an important concept. The goal of social innovation is to add or create social value for specific groups with social needs that are not currently being met (Dees, 2011). Thus, in this thesis, social leveraging and liminality based on an Olympic event will be explored in relation to sports-event volunteering as a process of social innovation.

In order to answer the research question, a qualitative case study was employed using interviews and participatory observation as methods. The Lillehammer Youth Olympic Games 2016 (LYOG) was treated and analyzed as the main case in this single-case study, and four articles were written based on this work. Overall, these articles serve somewhat different purposes.

Article one, “The Youth Olympic Games as an opportunity for sports entrepreneurship,” functions as a mapping of the event, showing how and why several social entrepreneurs wanted to be a part of the LYOG by participating as volunteers, what they hoped to achieve by doing so, and to some extent, what they actually achieved. From these projects, one was selected for further inquiry, the Lillehammer High School Volunteer Project (the LHSV project). This project included a high school class of students with intellectual disabilities who enrolled as volunteers for the LYOG.

Article 2, “Facilitating qualitative interviews with people with intellectual disabilities,” aims to discover how to most effectively study the selected group from article 1 and is used mainly as an important part of the methods section, in particular, regarding the methodological challenges related to working with respondents with intellectual disabilities. Article 3, “Being a part of it – People with intellectual disabilities as volunteers in the Youth Olympic Games,” further explores the LHSV project selected from the first article. More specifically, the article investigates how a teacher can function as a social entrepreneur to engage in a project targeting a specific group, i.e., people with intellectual disabilities. The aim was to create social value by volunteering at an Olympic event. Article 4, “Lasting social value or a one-off? People with intellectual disabilities’ experiences with volunteering for the Youth Olympic Games,” follows the same group of people with ID from article 3 two years after the event. It aims to explore whether the social value achieved at the event was a one-off or if there was something more lasting to the effects. Except for article 2, all the articles are interconnected by the same theoretical framework and an overlapping empirical foundation. A summary of how they are related is presented in Figure 1 (below).

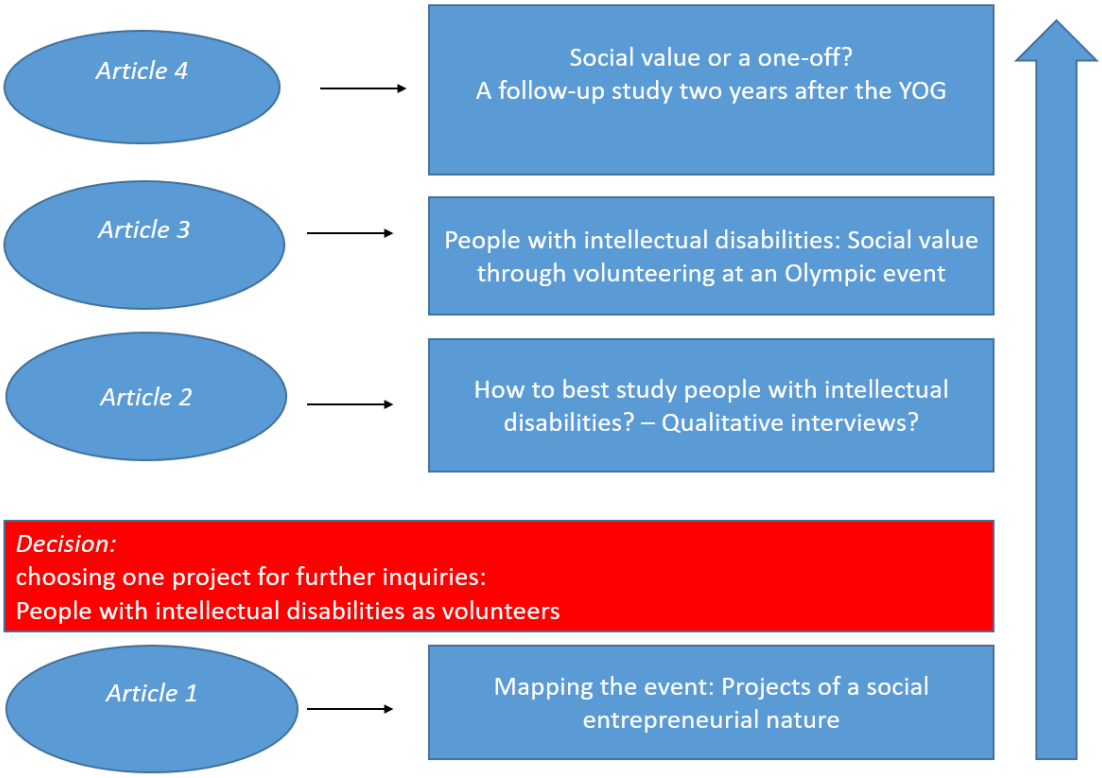


*Figure 1: Overview and interconnection of the articles*

# 2 BACKGROUND

Before addressing the details of how the LYOG as a case was studied, some background about the event is needed. First, a short overview of the YOG in general is provided, followed by more specifics on the event in Lillehammer. Finally, in this chapter, some background information is presented in regard to how the study was initiated and how it developed from its original starting point.

## 2.1 THE YOUTH OLYMPIC GAMES

The Youth Olympic Games (YOG) was approved as a new event at an IOC session in 2007; thus, it is the newcomer in the "Olympic family" (IOC, 2007). The YOG is an elite sports event targeting youth ages 15–18 years. Its goals are (among others) to bring together and celebrate the world's best young athletes, offering them an introduction to Olympism. Moreover, the YOG aims to keep such events intriguing for a new generation of participants, spectators, and volunteers (Hanstad & Lesjø, 2017). It is also designed to act as a platform for initiatives within the Olympic movement and to raise awareness among young people of the value of practicing a sport (Houlihan, Hanstad, & Parent, 2014). The YOG is on a much smaller scale than the Olympic Games in regard to the number of events and athletes (Houlihan et al., 2014). Furthermore, it is an event that aims to create sports opportunities for young people while embedding more-playful activities and alternative sports in order to reach out to a younger crowd (Nordhagen & Lesjø, 2019; Wong, 2011). It also introduces new event formats, such as mixing genders on teams, mixing nations in relay/team events, and introducing new events not previously represented in the Olympics (Schnitzer, Brandstetter, Lang, & Kopp, 2014).

Like the Olympic Games, the YOG has both summer and winter versions, conducted every two years (four-year intervals between each summer and winter edition). They are also similar in that legacy is an important topic for the hosts of the YOG as well, who strive to uphold tradition in several areas, including increasing youth participation in sports and volunteering (Houlihan et al., 2014). Having said that, research has found that organizing and conducting large-scale or major sports events has little to no effect on increased participation in sports (Girginov & Hills, 2008; Misener, Taks, Chalip, & Green, 2015).

The YOG differs from other major and Olympic sports events in a number of ways but perhaps most distinctively through two extensive cultural and educational programs (CEPs) that aim to "recapture the original Olympic values." These programs aim to cover five categorical themes: 1) Olympism, 2) Skills Development, 3) Well-Being and a Healthy Lifestyle, 4) Social Responsibility Awareness, and 5) Expression. These themes served as a foundation for numerous activities that were developed and implemented, targeting young athletes and local youth (Doll-Tepper, 2014). More specifically, the CEP comprises a wide range of activities that are designed to provide an arena for learning in a fun-filled environment. The target groups are athletes participating in the games as well as other young people from all around the world (IOC, 2012).

## 2.2 2016 Winter Youth Olympic Games in Lillehammer

In 2014, the bid for the Olympic Winter Games 2022 in Oslo was abandoned due to increasing critical and skeptical views based on opinion polls among the Norwegian population. In addition, there was growing skepticism from politicians within some of the largest parties in the government. The main reasons were connected to a perception of high demand for expensive amenities from the IOC and an expectation of a growing "pampered culture" (MacAloon, 2016). Hence, the popularity of the IOC and the Olympic Games was at an all-time low in Norway.

Despite Norway's withdrawal of its Oslo 2022 bid, the Youth Olympic Winter Games (YOG) were still set to be organized in Lillehammer in 2016, with the possibility of restoring some positivity toward the IOC and the Olympics. Notably, there was little negativism toward the IOC in the YOG context as the games were associated with international friendship and understanding, culture, education, youth development, and a festive atmosphere (MacAloon, 2016). Thus, 22 years after hosting the Winter Olympics, the city of Lillehammer hosted its second Olympic event, the Youth Olympic Games. This event was a winter edition, with 15 different disciplines in 7 Olympic sports. Altogether, 71 nations took part in the event, with a total of 1072 participants. In addition, an extensive cultural and educational program was conducted. The educational program comprised 33 different activities, while the cultural program, called "Sjoggfest," offered 375 free cultural activities such as concerts, lectures, films, and art exhibitions (Hanstad & Lesjø, 2017).

A selection of the various programs that were part of the CEP of the Youth Olympic Games in Lillehammer is presented below in table 1.

*Table 1: Programs within the CEP of the Youth Olympic Games*

| Program | Aim | Target group |
|---|---|---|
| **Hello World – School twinning program** | To learn about other countries and cultures through exchanges between school classes | Young people/school pupils |
| **Try the sport** | A sport-initiation program in all the competition arenas, aiming to promote a healthy and physically active lifestyle and Olympic sports | Young people, local youth, spectators at the event |
| **Dream day** | A one-day experience of the YOG, watching sports competitions, trying Olympic sports, and attending a cultural program (concert) | All high school pupils in the host municipalities |
| **Sjoggfest** | A cultural festival promoting young talent within music, films, talks, and sports | People of all ages in the local community, visitors, spectators, athletes, and event participants |

*(IOC, 2016; Nordhagen & Fauske, 2018)*

Overall, the event had 3230 volunteers. Half were 29 years old or younger, and one of every four had no previous experience volunteering. More females than males served as volunteers, and the majority of volunteers were from Norway's central inland region (Hanstad, Kristiansen, Sand, Skirstad, & Strittmatter, 2016).

As previously described, the LYOG was a major international event conducted in Norway. However, it is necessary to position the event within the Norwegian sports context. Norwegian sports are characterized as an extensive sector. The nation's level of participation in sports and physical activities is high compared to other countries. Another notable feature of Norwegian sports is that there is also a high proportion of sports activities that are organized by voluntary sports associations. Lastly, there is a high level of interdependence and interaction between voluntary sports organizations and public authorities, ranging from national all the way to local levels (Ibsen & Seippel, 2010).

## 2.3 The LYOG - a major sporting event?

Within the literature, some make a distinction between major events and mega-events, while others use these terms interchangeably (Müller, 2015). Mega-events have been described as "short-term events with long-term consequences" (Roche, 1994, p. 1). Moreover, mega-

events are large-scale cultural events, often with dramatic character, wide popular and public appeal, and significance on an international level. In addition, these kinds of events are frequently organized and conducted by different combinations of national governmental and international non-governmental organizations (Roche, 2000). According to Roberts (2004, p. 108), some events are defined as "mega" as they are infrequent, out of the ordinary, international, and grand in scale. They also possess the ability to transmit promotional messages to billions of people via mainstream media communication, thereby reaching an international audience (Horne, 2007).

Major events, by contrast, refer to one-time or annual sports competitions, characterized by a shorter duration and a higher profile than a sports league. They are also characterized by wide variations regarding size, focus, and profile (Doherty, 2009). Applying the four dimensions of Müller (2015), by which events can be measured, it becomes easier to separate mega-events from major ones. According to Müller (2015), mega-events should be large on each of the following four measurable aspects: 1) number of visitors, 2) mediated reach, 3) costs, and 4) impacts on the built environment and the population. Furthermore, according to Müller (2015), each of these variables can be graded using a point system ranging from 1 to 3; thus, the maximum score that can be achieved is 11–12 points on all variables. In this system, major events are those scoring 1–6 points, while mega-events reach 11–12 points. Although not a foolproof classification system, it can provide a useful way to differentiate between the various events. Consequently, this also aids in classifying the LYOG as a major event. In addition, the Olympics, Commonwealth Games, or the Super Bowl often serve as examples of mega-events; see, for instance, Matheson (2006) or Roche (2000). It then becomes obvious that the LYOG, with its present level of media impact, number of participants (nations, athletes, coaches, and officials), volunteers, and visitors (Hanstad & Lesjø, 2017) was a major event.

## 2.4 The study

Originally, in early 2015, the thesis set out in another direction: to see how the LYOG could work in a social entrepreneurial way to recruit more youth as volunteers and by including unemployed people in the event. The Lillehammer Youth Olympic Games organizing committee (LYOGOC) frequently communicated that the main goal of the LYOG was to recruit a new generation of volunteers in response to an increasing number of young people turning their

backs on traditional organizational volunteer activity. Moreover, the majority of volunteers in Norway is aging (Wollebæk, Selle, & Strømsnes, 2008); thus, the recruitment of young volunteers was originally the main topic of this thesis.

However, the direction of the thesis began to change when a project involving the Norwegian Labor and Welfare Administration (NAV) was discovered by coincidence. The NAV project aimed to use the LYOG as a means to reach people who were unemployed, providing them with relevant experience for potential future employment while also enabling these individuals to extend their networks (Bleken, 2015). With this discovery serving as a backdrop, data collection was initiated, and a representative of NAV was interviewed. However, this interview, in addition to the initial fieldwork, showed that it would be difficult to study the NAV project according to the original plan, where my intention was to talk with the project's end users, due mainly to strict regulations regarding their privacy.

Nevertheless, during the interview with the NAV representative, another volunteer project came to light that included students with intellectual disabilities from a local high school. As sports and disability are important elements of my scholarly background, this lead was followed more extensively. Consequently, this doctoral project shifted direction toward the current outline. The next step was to use legacy mapping conducted by the LYOGOC to see if there were other projects similar to the one with students with ID. This mapping marked out all intentional and unintentional social legacies, and through this overview, several other projects of a social entrepreneurial nature were discovered. These projects ended up being studied in the first article of the thesis. Moreover, during the fieldwork for this article, it soon became apparent that the YOG merely provided an arena for social entrepreneurs to use for their work; the YOG organizers themselves were not working in a social entrepreneurial manner (as shown in article 1). Consequently, the main research question of the thesis shifted to focusing on how volunteer work at the LYOG could function as a catalyst for social innovation rather than analyzing the LYOG as a social innovation or innovator itself.

## 2.5 The Lillehammer High School Volunteer project

As shown in the previous chapter, within the LYOG as a main case, a high school class of students with intellectual disabilities who volunteered at the event became the focus of the thesis. Some of the students had Down syndrome; others were on the autism spectrum. Several

students had intellectual disabilities of unknown etiology, and some had learning difficulties in reading, writing, or math.

Initially, it was the mother of one of the students who first approached the main teacher of the class to ask if the students could volunteer for the LYOG. An important goal of this particular high school's educational policy is for students to be present and visible in relevant arenas as one aspect of preparing for adult life when formal education ends. Thus, the teacher of this class approached the head of volunteers at the LYOGOC and was met with open arms. From that point on, the teacher and head of volunteers collaborated to identify appropriate tasks for the students that would allow them to experience their volunteer work as meaningful while providing them with a sense of mastering skills and a reasonable level of challenge. In cooperation with the LYOGOC, the teacher identified the task of picking up and recycling garbage at two of the main venues as a task that would align with these goals.

Of the 18 students in this class, 12 wanted to participate and enrolled as regular volunteers. The main teacher registered all 12 as volunteers electronically and gathered their personal information, photos, and other required data. This teacher also served as the primary main link between the volunteer group and the LYOGOC, thereby being the principal source of information.

Some of the students needed more challenging work than others, and these students were chosen to vounteer for the event for a more extensive period. Three worked in a storehouse for a week prior to the start of the event, assisting in a variety of tasks related to the delivery of different equipment to the venues. Some of the other students helped with practical tasks related to the production and delivery of accreditations. All of the students were divided into smaller groups and worked during the five days of the event between the hours of 9 a.m. and 3 p.m. In addition, one was approached and chosen to assist in clean-up following the event.

# 3 LITERATURE OVERVIEW

This part of the thesis aims to position this study in a wider context by looking more closely at research relating to the following three topics: 1) social innovation and sports, 2) social entrepreneurship and sports, and 3) sports events and volunteerism. This overview is necessary in order to understand how the theoretical and empirical contributions of this thesis relate to the existing literature. To some extent, this can be seen as identifying the "gaps" in the literature where this thesis aims to add the missing pieces. The literature that was reviewed was both empirical and conceptual. Although the thesis's empirical context is Norwegian, this overview also considers the broader international body of literature in order to situate the study in the larger picture. Therefore, the following section begins from a Norwegian perspective in all its subsections and expands to the international literature from there.

Looking in depth at sports innovation as a research field, it becomes apparent that the research is scattered across a wide array of academic fields, including research from the perspectives of sports management, medicine, technology, psychology, history, and sociology (Tjønndal, 2018b). However, the literature relating to sports management and sociology will be the focus for this study as this research stream provided the most important and relevant sources.

## 3.1 SOCIAL INNOVATION AND SPORTS

In Norway, social entrepreneurship and social innovation are known to be initiated and driven mainly by individuals, enterprises, or investors. Other actors, such as public authorities, seem to contribute little to the fostering of social entrepreneurship and social innovation (Hulgård & Lundgaard Andersen, 2014). The role that sports events might play, either as an arena for entrepreneurial activities or as a vehicle for social entrepreneurship and social innovation, remains an under-studied subject. However, some effort has been made to bring forth knowledge on this matter.

In her doctoral thesis, Tjønndal (2018b) explored social innovation in sports through a social inclusion/exclusion perspective. The thesis argued that innovation in sports can increase social

inclusion and examined the effects these changes might have for the sports sector. Furthermore, identifying potential drivers and barriers for innovative processes is a central element of the thesis (Tjønndal, 2018b).

Innovation can be studied as a process, as demonstrated by Svensson and Hambrick (2018) and Tjønndal (2017a). For instance, in one of her studies, Tjønndal (2017a) found that the inclusion of women in boxing as an Olympic event was the first step of an innovative process. However, there is still a long way to go before the process can be characterized as resulting in a social innovation aiming to promote equality and social inclusion in an elite sport. Tjønndal (2018a) also studied social innovation as a process by looking specifically at whether the appearance of mixed martial arts (MMA) could be interpreted as a social innovation. Findings from this study show that, although the emergence of MMA in Norway can be described as an innovation process, the degree to which it can be interpreted as a social innovation remains unclear.

As seen in Tjønndal (2017b), innovation as a term and its potential to contribute to sports studies can also be discussed. According to this study, social innovation has the potential to promote inclusion in sports, although future studies are needed to further enlighten this subject. Innovation in sports can also have a collaborative nature, as described by Tjønndal (In process), where the focus is on collaborative innovation as a means to reduce social exclusion in the public sector. The same study also suggests that it might be advantageous if the public sector cooperated more with the voluntary sector to develop the content of leisure activities, going beyond providing just financial support.

Looking at the literature situated in an international context, several studies were found, mainly by Vanessa Ratten. In a recent study, Ratten (2019a) found that nature-based sports that incorporate the natural environment can provide an innovative way to encourage progress on social issues. In this study, surfing was used as a case to demonstrate how this sport can incorporate social innovation by bringing people into closer contact with the environment while promoting an important social issue. Social innovation is, indirectly, the focus of several other articles by Ratten. For instance, in Ratten (2011a), social innovation is discussed as the means by which social entrepreneurs find solutions to social problems, although this is not elucidated. Several studies examine how social innovations are the results of the non-profit

and amateur aspects of sports (Ratten, 2018b), while social innovation is also explored as something that has been achieved through the actions of star athletes and sports organizations while addressing social issues (Ratten, 2011c).

As shown in this review, there is some research dedicated to social innovation and sports in a Norwegian context but not an extensive body of literature related to this subject. However, looking to the international literature concerning social innovation and sports in other parts of the world, more was found, particularly in the works, again, of Vanessa Ratten (Ratten, 2011a, 2019a, 2019b). However, sports are usually studied as a means of promoting social innovation through the actions of star athletes or sports organizations (Ratten, 2011c) or as the result of entrepreneurial activities in a sports setting (Ratten, 2011a). While Tjønndal's work mainly explores social innovation in relation to social inclusion in sports, there is no research dedicated to the role that major sporting events may play in the process of initiating and implementing social innovations. In other words, the subject of this thesis – ways in which a major sports event might function as a potential driver or catalyst for social innovation – has not been addressed in the existing literature. In most articles related to social innovation, the focus is on social entrepreneurship. Thus, research related to social entrepreneurship in a sports context is the subject of the next section of the thesis.

## 3.2 Social entrepreneurship and sports

Social entrepreneurship as a concept lacks a clear definition (Mair & Marti, 2006). Furthermore, there is currently little to no research on social entrepreneurship in sports situated in a Norwegian context. Looking at sports and social entrepreneurship from a Scandinavian perspective, Peterson and Schenker made several contributions to this subject (Peterson & Schenker, 2017a; Schenker et al., 2014). One is the study of the YMCA project called KIOSK. KIOSK is a new way of teaching sports and physical activity. It targets children in middle school and aims to prevent drug and alcohol use and to promote a more physically active way of living. A cooperative effort between the sports and school sectors, the project is transboundary and has repercussions on other sectors as well. Since the project encompasses several social dimensions, it was analyzed as a social entrepreneurial project (Peterson & Schenker, 2015).

Examining the Scandinavian stream of research further, Daniel Bjärsholm has made several contributions to the subject. Bjärsholm (2017) conducted a literature review and revealed that the scope of research in the field of sports and social entrepreneurship is limited and that in the articles related to this subject, sports usually play a minor role. In addition, Bjärsholm has written an article related to understanding how networking, distinguished as social entrepreneurship, can be established in a sports organization. This study showed that the networks of several sports organizations have a common desire to achieve a win–win relationship while relying on mutual dependency. Furthermore, the article illustrates how networks can be used to ease the work of social entrepreneurial organizations, enabling them to improve their work to create social value by encouraging people to participate in a wide range of sports and outdoor activities (Bjärsholm, 2019).

Peterson and Schenker (2018b) also made a contribution in the form of the anthology *Sport and Social Entrepreneurship in Sweden*. Overall, this anthology revealed that there is a general lack of knowledge regarding social entrepreneurship in relation to sports. Moreover, little is known about policies for social entrepreneurship in a sports context. The book's various contributions aim to help narrow these gaps in the literature. Moreover, in the book, edited by Peterson and Schenker (2018a), several principles are put forth that focus on how to define and conceive social entrepreneurship in a sports context. More specifically, Peterson and Schenker (2018a) proposed several theses concerned with sports and profit as means for social entrepreneurship. However, they stated that the social dimension is normatively defined within the public sector. Entrepreneurial activities are to be understood as deeds that cross the boundaries of different sectors in a society, consequently leading to conflict. In the following section, the anthology is further reviewed.

The first essay of the anthology, "Sweden: The Societal setting" by Norberg (2018), addresses how to understand social entrepreneurship in a Swedish sports context. The focus is on organized projects and activities that use sports as a means of addressing social issues. This essay argued in favor of understanding sports and social entrepreneurship in relation to their specific societal context. It also investigated how sports can be a tool for addressing social matters and a way to gain social benefits. In doing so, the essay showed that the tradition of working toward social good is well-established within the Swedish sports movement. However, in order for the concept of social entrepreneurship to be valid, it can apply only to those clubs and

activities that are putting social goals before a sport‘s own core logic, thereby separating themselves from the rest (Norberg, 2018).

The next essay in the anthology is a summary and analysis of the international research on social entrepreneurship and sports written by Daniel Bjärsholm (2018). Drawing upon several sources, a status of the field of sports and social entrepreneurship through a literature review concludes that there has been a sharp increase in studies in the field. The studies addressing this subject are exclusively qualitative, often based on case studies, and mostly conducted within disciplines other than sports science. Thus, in the majority of the articles, the role played by sports is limited (Bjärsholm, 2018). The various sources that this essay draws upon will be treated individually later in this section of the thesis.

Some claim that the link between sports and social entrepreneurship needs to be strengthened, as sports are often treated as a contextual frame, like many other social contexts. The next essay, “A Definition of Sport and Social Entrepreneurship”, written by editors Peterson and Schenker, explores definitions of sports and social entrepreneurship. In order to frame the concept of social entrepreneurship and to make it fruitful as a point of departure in a sports-policy context, this essay aims to further define social entrepreneurship in sports. In addition, the theoretical notions of entrepreneurship, sports, and their social connection are particularly explored, forming the departure for the analysis. Lastly, five theses are presented to assist in developing the theoretical concept of social entrepreneurship in a sports-policy context. A case study was also conducted in order to contextualize social entrepreneurship in a Swedish sports-policy context. This essay concludes that, within the field of entrepreneurship, consensus is not the normal state. Entrepreneurs must cope with the appearance of conflicts when boundaries are crossed while navigating different social orders (Peterson & Schenker, 2018a).

Several empirical studies have also been conducted on the subject of social entrepreneurship and sports in Sweden. The “social” aspect of social entrepreneurship was explored by Gerrevall, Bjärsholm, and Linnér (2018), who examined the extent to which sports and sporting activities with a social-entrepreneurial nature can promote citizens’ democratic influence and competence, thus developing democracy. More specifically, this essay draws upon a study of two cases exploring how participation in sports activities encourages membership within

the local community. One of the cases concerned a young woman and her project targeting refugee girls newly arrived in Sweden. The other case was about a sports club aiming to become a gathering point for all kinds of people from different strata of society, independent of social class or stature. In turn, the aim of both projects was to contribute to the development of skills important for participating in a democratic society. By increasing their sense of belonging in their community while enjoying a sense of recognition, the target groups of both projects could experience and learn the value of being included in decision-making on an everyday basis.

Researching sports and social entrepreneurship results in several ethical dilemmas. A study by Bjärsholm, Gerrevall, Linnér, Peterson, and Schenker (2018) examined four sports-related cases from an ethical perspective. Findings from this study showed that some entrepreneurs may not want to remain anonymous in order to draw attention to their projects and branding; thus, the researchers need to navigate different sectors of society, risking accusations of being associates in the venture. A methodological tool for conducting research on sports and social entrepreneurship is then presented by Bjärsholm, Gerrevall, Linnér, Norberg, et al. (2018). According to these authors, this tool is particularly constructive for communicating the analysis while also aiding in the research process. Seven case studies were compared, and similarities and differences were identified and analyzed.

Social entrepreneurship has also been studied in a sports context in several articles by Vanessa Ratten (for instance, see Ratten, 2011a; Ratten, 2011c, 2012, 2018a; Ratten & Ferreira, 2016). In these articles, all entrepreneurial activities conducted in a sports setting, thereby also encompassing social entrepreneurship, are referred to as sports entrepreneurship. Sports entrepreneurs are defined as "individual entrepreneurs who leverage opportunities that arise from their network and optimize resources by identifying where they are most effective" (Ratten, 2011a, p. 43). Furthermore, Vanessa Ratten has made several contributions to the conceptualization of social entrepreneurship in a sports context and developed her own theory of sports-based entrepreneurship (Ratten, 2011a, 2011b, 2011c). Through these articles, sports entrepreneurship as a theoretical concept emerges, and its potential in the study of sports is elaborated. According to Ratten (2011c), sports-based entrepreneurship encompasses all entrepreneurial activities carried out in a sports context. The social aspect of this, thus relating to social entrepreneurship in a sports context, is added to the framework in a later article

(Ratten, 2011b). In addition, the role that athletes may play in an entrepreneurial process is explored by Ratten (2015).

The concept of sports-based entrepreneurship has also been explored through the lens of leveraging through sports mega-events by Hayduk (2019). In his article, he established a link between these two theoretical constructs while finding that sports mega-events may, indeed, contribute to the leveraging of entrepreneurial activities with social outcomes (however, not when the host country is in a developmental state).

An overall analysis of the literature covering social entrepreneurship in sports can be found in Ratten (2019b). In this literature study, Ratten found that social entrepreneurship is particularly evident within sports (for instance, seen in leading football teams demonstrating a sense of social responsibility or highlighting social issues) and can clearly be perceived in leisure activities as well, for example, when small sports clubs make an effort to include all members of the local society in their activities. Furthermore, there may be greater willingness to enter into non-profit or social activities in sports, which can be seen as an implication of the high presence of social entrepreneurs within sports. According to Ratten (2019b), social entrepreneurship in sports is now the norm. However, there is still an urgent need for more research on this subject, as sports and social entrepreneurship remains an overlooked field of study (Ratten, 2019b).

There are several other studies, mostly within the sports-management literature, dedicated to exploring social-entrepreneurial projects in a sports context. In these, sports can be a means or an opportunity to work toward the social inclusion of various target groups (such as people suffering from mental illness) or toward social capital for people confined within the margins of society for various reasons (Gawell, 2013; Hassanien & Dale, 2012; Kiernan & Porter, 2014; Pringle & Sayers, 2004). As highlighted in the aforementioned literature review by Bjärsholm (2018), several studies focus on work related to social change in a football context or, at least, in activities relating to football. These are mainly concerned with the lower division/grass-roots levels of the sport (Adcroft, Walters, & Chadwick, 2009; Kennedy & Kennedy, 2015; Pringle & Sayers, 2004).

Another tradition in the field of sports management relates to the sports for development (SFD) tradition. Works concerning social entrepreneurship can also be found in this research

stream, such as the works of Hayhurst (2009, 2014) exploring sports as a vessel for social change from a gender perspective. Another example of an article aligned with this tradition is one by Cohen and Peachey (2015) examining factors of an SFD initiative that led to social entrepreneurship. Other articles in the sports for development tradition further investigate sports-related aspects of working toward peace, explored in a social-entrepreneurial context (G. Smith, Cahn, & Ford, 2009). Somewhat related to the SFD tradition are studies relating to sporting events functioning as catalysts for social change. For instance, an article by McNamara, Pazzaglia, and Sonpar (2018) looked more closely at how large-scale events can be used as a means to work toward a change of attitudes for people with intellectual disabilities, using the Special Olympics as a case, which was also studied by G. Smith et al. (2009).

Kiernan and Porter (2014) looked indirectly at volunteering in a sports-club context, applying the framework of social entrepreneurship where the aim is to promote the inclusion of specific groups or volunteering as a way to participate in the society. The focus of Kiernan and Porter (2014) was mainly on sports as a vehicle for social inclusion for people on the margins of society. However, the perspectives were not exclusive to those of the volunteers but also included viewpoints from staff within a football club, in addition to the thoughts and reflections of representatives of several partner organizations.

The role that people who are sports coaches on a volunteer basis can play in the social development of young people was studied in an article by Griffiths and Armour (2014), who looked at community-based sports as a social enterprise. Small sports clubs, analyzed as social enterprises, were also, to some extent, the subject of an article by Coates, Wicker, Feiler, and Breuer (2014). Here, the financial and volunteer problems of non-profit sports clubs were investigated. Small, volunteer-driven clubs were also studied in an article by A. Gilmore, Gallagher, and O'Dwyer (2011), who examined social entrepreneurship as a marketing tool for small sports clubs. The same topic was explored in an article by Gallagher, Gilmore, and Stolz (2012), who studied how small sports clubs can cooperate with social entrepreneurs to maximize their fundraising efforts. The economic strengthening or even survival of small sports clubs functioning as social enterprises has been the subject of several studies (Coates et al., 2014; Gallagher et al., 2012; Wicker, Feiler, & Breuer, 2013). In addition, using sports as an example, Chew (2010) studied ways in which new organizational forms can engage in formalized social-enterprise activities.

The third and equally important topic of this thesis relates to sports events and volunteerism. In the following section, a short review of these topics is presented in order to discuss the characterization of the current research on sports-event volunteerism.

## 3.3 SPORTS-EVENT VOLUNTEERISM

Volunteering is currently gaining much attention in sports-management research (Wicker, 2017). To delineate this broad subject, the focus of this overview will be on volunteerism in sports events. Furthermore, this section of the thesis does not aim to provide an extensive review of this body of literature but rather to give the reader an overview of the field and to position this thesis in relation to the mainstream of research on this topic.

Sports-event volunteerism has been studied from a multitude of perspectives. For instance, a lot of research has been directed toward sports events and motives for volunteering to further explore what drives people to spend their leisure time working for free for sporting events (Güntert, Neufeind, & Wehner, 2015; Twynam, Farrell, & Johnston, 2002; Wollebæk, Skirstad, & Hanstad, 2014). Other studies have directed their attention to the demographics of volunteering, to exploring who volunteers, and to the kinds of events they volunteer for (Ratten, Pauline, & Pauline, 2009; E. Å. Skille & Hanstad, 2013; Strigas & Jackson Jr, 2003). Some attention has also been given to sports-event volunteering from a gender perspective (see for instance Downward, Lumsdon, & Ralston, 2005; Skirstad & Hanstad, 2013).

Moreover, recent research has looked more closely at volunteering in different Norwegian sports events, including the LYOG. Sand, Strittmatter, and Hanstad (2017) studied how the 2016 LYOG planned for a volunteer legacy and the willingness of the young volunteers to engage in future volunteer activities. They found that the volunteers were positive about their overall experiences as volunteers and that volunteering at the LYOG led to a willingness to engage in similar activities in the future. Another study by Schnitzer, Kristiansen, and Hanstad (2018) explored how cultural settings and the location of the same type of event (Nordic WSC) affect expectations, experiences, and legacies, as seen by volunteers at the events. A somewhat similar topic can be found in Kristiansen, Skille, and Hanstad (2014), where the aim was to explore and identify different types of volunteers at three major sporting events.

In addition, there have been several studies in the sports-management literature devoted to the subject of people with disabilities and sports-event volunteering (Darcy et al., 2014; Nichols & Ralston, 2011). However, this research does not distinguish between people with physical disabilities (such as difficulties related to mobility, hearing, or seeing) and those with intellectual disabilities. Although several such studies have been conducted (such as studies by Trembath, Balandin, Stancliffe, et al., 2010; Trembath, Balandin, Togher, & Stancliffe, 2010), there is not a vast body of literature relating to people with ID and sports-event volunteering.

Looking at this overview of literature related to social innovation, social entrepreneurship, and volunteering in a sports context, several gaps become apparent. Social innovation and social entrepreneurship in sports require more empirical contributions. This applies, particularly, to research using these theoretical notions within the study of sports. As pointed out by Bjärsholm (2017), sports often play a minor role in the study of social entrepreneurship, and social entrepreneurship in a sports setting is, perhaps, even more diffuse than in its usual context. He further stated that there is a need for more qualitative empirical studies in order to better understand the association between sports and social entrepreneurship (Bjärsholm, 2017). In addition, sports-event volunteering for people with ID remains a highly under-studied subject. This thesis aims to address these matters by studying a group of sports-event volunteers with ID through the application of social innovation and social entrepreneurship as theoretical concepts. In turn, the thesis can aid in providing more consensus to the somewhat-fuzzy concepts of social innovation and social entrepreneurship.

# 4 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In order to answer the main research question of this thesis, several analytical and theoretical terms were applied. These terms and their overall concepts are presented in the following section. Generally, the theoretical framework is founded on sociological studies and sports-management literature.

First, important terms such as social innovation will be presented. Social innovation is closely connected to the framework of social entrepreneurship; thus, this concept will also be touched upon. In particular, one type of social entrepreneur, the social bricoleur, is explored and elaborated. As innovation is connected to doing something new, the next part of the thesis will relate to change – in particular, social change in relation to non-profit organizations. Then, social leveraging from major sporting events is presented before the interconnection of all these theoretical terms and concepts is summarized in the form of a model at the end of this chapter.

## 4.1 SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND SOCIAL INNOVATION

Used in many different contexts, the term social entrepreneurship has become somewhat of a buzzword (Martin & Osberg, 2007). According to Dees and Anderson (2006), two schools of thought have emerged through the practice of social entrepreneurship: the social enterprise and the social innovation schools of thought. In this thesis, the focus is on the latter. In line with the social innovation school of thought, a social entrepreneur is an innovator pursuing social change rather than framing social entrepreneurship in terms of profitability or income (Dees & Anderson, 2006). Thus, the economic aspect plays a minor role, while the new idea with a potential to lead to social change is, instead, the focus. In this thesis, social entrepreneurship is considered as new ideas that address and meet social needs while forming new collaborations and social relationships. Within the entrepreneurship literature, much attention has been given to identifying, taking advantage of, and acting upon opportunities (Ardichvili, Cardozo, & Ray, 2003; Baron, 2006). However, it is the social innovation – the idea itself put forth by the entrepreneur (Hulgård, 2007) – that will be emphasized in this thesis.

As well-established, social innovation lacks clarity in concept and definition as a result of its overly simplistic use in a wide range of settings and contexts (Moulaert, MacCallum, & Hillier,

2013). It is also well-established that an important aspect of social innovation is its connection to finding solutions to social problems through new ways of cooperating and new ideas, services, or activities (Mulgan et al., 2007). In this thesis, the main topic is how sports events can function as catalysts for social innovation and social entrepreneurship. Therefore, in order to clarify the distinction of the social innovation driven by a sports event, it is necessary to examine how social innovations generally begin. According to Kanter (2000), innovation is prompted when an individual recognizes a new opportunity; often, such opportunities are closely connected to a social need. Sometimes, the need that should be addressed is obvious, such as homelessness or hunger, while in other cases, a need may be less noticeable (Mulgan, 2006). One example is the need for specific social groups to be included in certain settings, such as those with ID having a need to be included on equal terms with other people in society, and one way this need can be met is for them to volunteer at a major sports event.

In studying social innovation and, in particular, exploring how innovations are often initiated, it is common to make a distinction between two different approaches. One is an individualistic/behaviorist approach focusing on strong, heroic persons; this is also called an "agentic-centered perspective." Within this view, social innovation is created through the actions of specific individuals who demonstrate certain characteristics and skills. In contrast is the "structuralist perspective," where social innovation is seen as something determined by the external structural context or much broader movements of change (Cajaiba-Santana, 2014; Mulgan et al., 2007). However, a third approach may be used as well, where not only individual actions but also collective ones interactively co-evolve with structural contexts in the creation of social innovations. This is called the structuration perspective (Cajaiba-Santana, 2014). The latter approach is the one that stands as most central to this thesis. From a structuration perspective, social innovation is socially constructed as individuals engage in meaningful activities together while monitoring the outcome of their actions in a reflexive way (Cajaiba-Santana, 2014). The structuration perspective of social innovation relies on the classic theory of structuration by Anthony Giddens (1984). According to Giddens (1984), all social actions and practices that are similar are produced and reproduced over varying spans of time and space. This is achieved through structuring properties that, in turn, provide actions and practices in a systemic form. In other words, according to structuration theory, there are underlying or trans-

cending structures that influence and affect the actions of individual actors. However, the actors and the social systems they are a part of are mutually dependent. Through various social institutions, structures affect agents, in turn constraining and enabling their actions (Giddens, 1984). Structuration theory, as applied to the social innovation perspective, can be exemplified as follows: social innovation often begins with an individual (or actor) striving to work toward social change for a particular group. Often, this group has needs that are unmet by society. However, the actor cannot address these needs in a social vacuum. This can be applied to people with ID volunteering at an Olympic event. One can say that they are constricted by the elements or structures that, in total, characterize volunteering. If they do not meet these assumptions and criteria for how volunteering is meant to appear (for instance, by refusing to work), they are no longer considered volunteers. In order to be part of volunteering as a social system, there are structures within that system that limit the choices of its participants. However, when people conform to this system and perform their jobs, they are reproducing the structures of volunteering. In turn, social systems such as volunteering can be used as a starting point for a process of social innovation. As pointed out by Cajaiba-Santana (2014), agents and the social context (or systems, according to Giddens, 1984) cannot be understood as separate or distinct from each other, which is an important aspect of the structuration perspective of social innovation.

A central notion within the perspective of social innovation is that it advances social change that cannot emerge through the already-established social practices. The aim is for the new practice to become institutionalized (Cajaiba-Santana, 2014). However, this is not achieved overnight but is rather the result of a process. According to Mulgan (2006), three phases characterize the process of social innovation. The first phase is the coupling of an idea with meeting a need that is currently not being met. The second phase is the testing of a promising idea by putting it into practice. The third, and last phase, is where an idea proves itself in practice, thus making it subject to replication, growth, adoption, or franchising. However, this study does not seek to analyze or explore the process in itself in depth. It aims, rather, to understand how a sports event might be the "spark" that ignites the social-innovation fuse, thus *leading* to a more or less streamlined process. Thus, the focus will be on the role that the sports event played in the startup of a social innovation rather than the actual change that emerged as a result of the innovation. In other words, phase 1 of the three phases of Mulgan (2006) will be

most emphasized, while the other two phases are also, to some extent, discussed, especially since people with ID as volunteers are analyzed in article 3, and changes in the lives of this particular target group are addressed in article 4. This can be seen in relation to phases 2 and 3 in Mulgan (2006).

Social innovation may not always follow a linear process. Arguably, some of the most important innovations have followed a zigzag line. Sometimes, the actual doing of things catalyzes one or several ideas, and in some cases, action precedes understanding (Mulgan et al., 2007). Considering sports events and social innovations, the sports event provides an opportunity, while the social innovator needs to recognize that option and adapt an idea according to the possibilities and constraints conveyed by the event. Usually, the event lasts for a short amount of time; therefore, social change may not happen at all during that particular period. However, it should be noted, as pointed out by Mulgan (2006), that few ideas emerge fully formed. A significant part of any innovation process is to try things and then make adjustments according to the experiences that result.

As the aim of this thesis is to explore how volunteering at a major sports event might function as a catalyst for social innovation, it is natural to focus mainly on the drivers of innovation. Common drivers of innovation can be described as "top-down innovations" (Hartley, 2005) or "bottom-up innovations," which can also be seen as bricolage (Fuglsang, 2010), where innovations often take place on a day-to-day basis. From a sports perspective, these could be innovations initiated by coaches or athletes, for instance, seeking to improve certain aspects of a sport (Tjønndal, 2017b). However, it should be noted that, according to Mulgan (2012), social innovations often depend on several actors with different approaches, motives, capacities, and ways of working.

As important as it is to explore potential drivers of innovation, it is equally important to further explore the actual concept of social innovation. After all, in the study of how sports events may function as a catalyst for social innovation, having a clear notion of how social innovation may appear is crucial. Arguably, all innovations, including technical ones, can be seen as social or at least as including a social dimension. New products or services will always possess a potential to affect the lives of people, one way or another (Nicholls & Murdock, 2012). However, social innovation relates to finding adequate solutions to a wide range of problems, such as

social exclusion or lack of well-being. Social innovation fosters inclusion by working toward the improvement of social relations and processes of empowerment, in other words, picturing – and working toward – a more socially inclusive community. It can also translate to improving social relations on micro and macro levels. In this matter, micro relations are between individuals, while macro relations are between classes and other social groups (Moulaert et al., 2013).

According to Kanter (2000), innovation starts when someone senses or seizes an opportunity much as entrepreneurs do. However, several major tasks are critical for the innovation process. Among these are idea generation and the activation of drivers for innovation; Kanter describes these as the entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurs also play an important role in recognizing and seizing opportunities as they appear (Baron, 2006), which is also applicable to social entrepreneurs. From a historical perspective, two independent streams of practice have heavily influenced the way we see and define social entrepreneurship, also contributing to the development of two schools of thought about the essential nature of social entrepreneurship: the social enterprise and the social innovation schools of thought (Dees & Anderson, 2006). When exploring the literature on social entrepreneurship and social innovation in a sports context, it is with an understanding of social entrepreneurship from the social innovation school of thought. From this tradition, social entrepreneurship is seen as a practice aiming to establish new and better ways to address social problems or meet social needs (Dees & Anderson, 2006). As previously stated, in this thesis, the main focus is on the new elements that the social entrepreneurs promote – the social innovation. Still, important elements of the process of social innovation are those responsible for initiating the innovation. Therefore, the social bricoleur receives some emphasis.

### 4.1.1 Social bricolage

Social entrepreneurs often represent large enterprises with huge impacts. An example is Muhammad Yunus's project, the Grameen Bank, which touches millions of people worldwide by providing micro credit loans (Martin & Osberg, 2007). The LYOG volunteer project for the students with ID was not a large project. The impact was limited to a rather small group of individuals, and few people were involved in bringing the project to fruition. With this information serving as a backdrop, it becomes clear that focusing on what is described by Zahra, Gedajlovic, Neubaum, and Shulman (2009) as social bricolage is fruitful.

Building on the works of Hayek (1945) and Zahra et al. (2009, p. 519), we can define social bricoleurs as "individuals discovering and addressing small-scale local social needs." Private, local, or contextual knowledge may play a crucial part in an entrepreneurial process (Hayek, 1945; Zahra et al., 2009). According to Zahra et al. (2009), social bricoleurs perform important tasks, recognizing small-scale and limited social needs that are not currently being met. These needs can be addressed through the application of wide local and tacit knowledge. Social bricoleurs have an ability to act on opportunities by being in the right place at the right time. They are also particularly adept at acting in a productive manner as these individuals often possess the skills needed to address social needs that are not on the radar of larger and more-distant parties. Furthermore, social bricoleurs rely heavily on readily available resources and improvisation as opposed to formal planning. However, this limits the scale of their projects and, thus, their ability to expand (Zahra et al., 2009).

Nicholls and Murdock (2012) identified several dimensions of social innovation ranging from the individual to the system level. However, as shown above, the volunteer project for students with ID was a small-scale project. One way of viewing the aims of the project's leader was in terms of improving social relations between the students in the group while facilitating the formation of new social relationships with other volunteers. Consequently, this thesis focuses on social innovations on an individual dimension and, specifically, on innovation in social relations. Mumford (2002, p. 253) described innovation in social relations as a tradition within social-innovation research that focuses on "the creation of new kinds of social institutions, the formation of new ideas about government, or the development of new social movements."

Social innovation is often used as a label to indicate important changes in the way that society evolves, structures are modified, or ethical norms are revised (Moulaert et al., 2013). However, to fully address the element of change that social innovation aims to achieve, it is important to dig deeper into the notion of social change and the role that non-profit social service organizations can have in this work.

## 4.2 Social change and non-profit organizations

Non-profit organizations such as sports clubs or federations are known to play an important role in the process of initiating and implementing social innovation (Mulgan, 2006) that, in turn, leads to social change for specific target groups. Broadly speaking, social change efforts

by direct service non-profits may be defined as “the actions undertaken by organizations to improve the social situation of individuals accessing services and members within the wider community” (Shier & Handy, 2015, p. 2583). To relate the notion of social change to the literature of innovation, it is through social innovations that organizations can work toward change for specific groups (Nicholls, 2006; Shier & Handy, 2015). The ultimate goal of social entrepreneurs is a social change for the better for groups with needs that are currently not being met (Mair & Marti, 2006; Martin & Osberg, 2007). For instance, some non-profit organizations seek to focus on problems related to social inequality, oppression, negative public perceptions, and stereotypes. One way of doing this is through transformative programs or initiatives that strive to create social change within social service providers or within society in general (Netting, O'connor, & Fauri, 2007; Shier & Handy, 2015).

### 4.2.1 Social change through sports

The hosting of mega-events such as the Olympic Games, the Super Bowl, and the Soccer World Cup has been studied in regard to creating numerous benefits, especially from an economic perspective (Matheson, 2006). It is also known that major sports events may bring vitality to communities (Doherty, 2009) in addition to other benefits such as job creation, community development through increased tourism, and the generation of additional positive social outcomes such as an increase in social capital (Misener & Mason, 2006). Hosting sports events is also known to directly affect the quality of life of those living in the host communities (Taks, Chalip, & Green, 2015). These kinds of events are temporal but can still trigger different short- or long-term impacts, both positive and negative. These impacts may lead to positive outcomes, which, if continued, can be called “legacies.”

Legacies are often connected to sustainability, stressing the fact that the outcomes from mega-events should be long term. However, the actual sustainability of these legacies has faced heavy criticism. For instance, Gaffney (2013) stated that, in some cases, the candidacy and selection processes of mega-events can be detrimental to their hosts. While Hayes and Horne (2011) claimed that there is a disconnection between the nature of mega-events such as the Olympics and the sustainable development agendas staked out by the IOC, from the IOC’s perspective, positive legacies from Olympic events are crucial. Positive legacies are those that avoid the public’s blaming the IOC for negative experiences and serve as evidence for why the event was beneficial for the host city. Legacies can also justify the use of public resources

for permanent or temporary event infrastructure. Lastly, positive legacies can motivate others to bid for future events (Gratton & Preuss, 2008). Research shows that some legacies arise from strategic and precise planning. However, there is a growing tradition of little strategic planning for event outcomes, meaning that impacts can be desired but remain unplanned (Taks et al., 2015). Consequently, there is increasing interest in how to use events strategically for social purposes (Chalip, 2014).

### 4.3 Social leveraging from major sports events

Although it is common to distinguish between models of economic and social leverage, it is the latter model that will be the focus of this study (Chalip, 2006, 2014). As strategies and tactics to achieve positive benefits from the hosting of major sports events are being honed, there has also been a shift from looking at the impacts of the events toward, instead, talking about event leverage (Chalip, 2014). According to Chalip (2004), there are two broad categories of outcomes that host regions of sports events may achieve through leveraging: (1) those related to event visitors and the money they spend in the host region and (2) using the media attention the event generates to reinforce brand messaging (Chalip, 2004; Hayduk, 2019).

Similar to major events such as the YOG, mega-events are characterized by a short duration but as having meaning for and an impact on the host city far beyond the event itself (Hiller, 2000). These impacts are usually described in terms of legacies. The legacy framework forwards the notion that events should be administered and planned in a way that heightens the possibilities that positive outcomes will last beyond the event itself. While legacies often play an important role in the bidding process of host communities (Minnaert, 2012), as a framework, they can be somewhat more problematic. According to Chalip (2014), legacies involve additional expenses and impediments for event organizers and can be unsustainable as the organizing committee is disbanded shortly after the event. Instead, Chalip (2014) proposed to focus on leverage, as this is naturally and strategically organized into the product and service mix of the host nation of an event. Consequently, the responsibility for leveraging should be with those whose duties include social and economic development, including government agencies and service organizations (Chalip, 2014).

Although the notion of social leverage is mainly explored in a mega-event context, some attention has been given to sports events of a smaller scale. According to Taks et al. (2015), non-

megasports events may seem to have more opportunities to create more social impacts and outcomes for host communities compared to megasports events. One of the reasons for this is that smaller-scale sports events allow for greater reciprocity in the host community, thereby, enhancing opportunities to create outcomes that will best serve that particular community.

### 4.3.1 Liminality

The study of event leverage is useful in order to identify and investigate event implementations that can increase the likelihood of desired outcomes (Chalip, 2006). Furthermore, according to Chalip (2006), sports events can be liminal (as briefly described in section 1), offering a sense of being a part of something greater than oneself, something that transcends sports, and a feeling of energy in the communal atmosphere – a liminoid feeling that can be shared by all. Social leveraging utilizes these liminoid feelings that events might promote to enable targeted social outcomes. The celebratory aspect of events is particularly significant in creating a liminal space in the host community. Furthermore, this liminality can then create two opportunities for social leverage: through communities engendered by the event and through the framework of economic leverage, as the event attracts media and sponsor attention (O'Brien & Chalip, 2007).

However, liminality is not something that event organizers can decide to create. Nor is it a given that liminality is achieved, even though event participants may enjoy themselves, experience positive feelings toward the event, or feel engaged in it on a personal level. In order to experience liminality, there needs to be a feeling of celebration that overcomes social barriers, thus enabling social interaction and behaviors that, otherwise, would have been difficult to access in everyday life (Chalip, 2014).

The creation of liminoid feelings increases the chances for success in leveraging social issues. However, events can provide leverage in a social manner in several other ways. Media coverage related to the event can be used to highlight social issues through advertising and reporting. In addition, event-related publicity can be used to address important social matters (Chalip, 2006, 2014). Nevertheless, it should be noted that social leverage requires an immense effort if an individual or group is to meet the targeted end goals (Taks et al., 2015).

## 4.4 SUMMARY

In order to summarize how the theories are applied and interconnected, a display model has been developed. It should be noted that this model does not display the strength of the nature of the relationship between its components or how they influence each other. The model merely illustrates that the concepts connect in a specific way without indicating the preconditions or necessities for doing so. The main purpose of this model is to provide an overview of the concepts, how they connect, and how they are applied in this thesis.

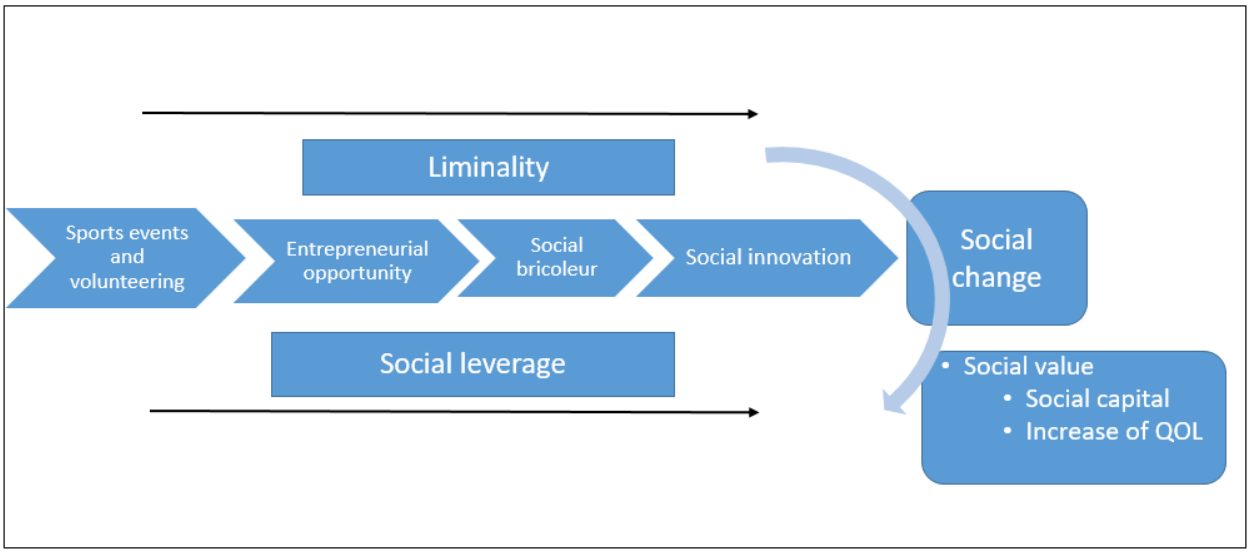


*Figure 2: Model 1, theoretical framework.*

As the model shows, it starts with a sports event and volunteering, such as the LYOG and its need for a large number of volunteers. Moving right, as indicated by the arrow shape of the boxes, the model demonstrates that a major sports event can be seen as an entrepreneurial opportunity (further discussed in article 1 of this thesis), meaning that there is a possibility to achieve a desirable outcome by participating in the event. This opportunity can be acted upon by individuals with entrepreneurial characteristics or mindsets, such as social entrepreneurs (Baron, 2006). The opportunity need not be aimed at addressing large-scale needs; its aim can be local change for a small group. Thus, the concept of social bricolage can be applicable.

Social bricoleurs work to address small-scale needs through the application of tacit knowledge and by having an extensive local network (Zahra et al., 2009) and knowing how to use it to their advantage. Moreover, social bricoleurs, being willing to take a risk, may identify and act

on an entrepreneurial opportunity while displaying optimism that things will turn out favorably (Baron, 2006). One way to act on an opportunity is by engaging in projects of social entrepreneurship with an aim of meeting unmet social needs for a specific target group. This can be achieved by implementing a social innovation – a new idea that meets social needs – while creating new kinds of collaborations or social relationships (Moulaert et al., 2013), as indicated in the last box in the model moving right. This collaboration can be between a sports event and different actors working toward social change for a specific group. Social change can also be seen as the main goal of social innovation (Mair & Marti, 2006) (uppermost square, far right in the model). Examples of this involve inclusion in various settings that can prove beneficial for the target group, for instance through volunteering. Favorable results can be achieved by inclusion in new settings such as the volunteer context, including new friendships and networks, a sense of belonging, and a special identity (Stebbins, 2005). This can also be seen in relation to the concept of social value through an increase in social capital and quality of life (QOL). These specific notions and how they relate to the concept of social value are further discussed in article 4 of this thesis.

As indicated by the arrow at the bottom of the model, sports-events' organizers can leverage social issues as part of a strategy for social legacy, such as promoting the inclusion of all parts of the local community. By demonstrating a sense of social responsibility, this can be part of a strategy to legitimize the event. Furthermore, it can also be one way of responding to criticism about the costs and resources that are spent on a major sports event. Another way of applying social leverage is to open up the event for others to be part of it while cooperating with different organizations and actors in the local community by facilitating the participation of groups that need extra attention or assistance from others.

As shown previously in this section, sports events may apply social leverage through the aid of liminality – a sense of community and belonging – or a sense of being part of something greater than oneself. This is often experienced particularly by those who participate in a focal sports event (Chalip, 2006, 2014). In addition, as indicated by the top arrow of the model, liminality can affect the creation of social value by being a source of positive feelings and a sense of being a part of something that transcends oneself. These feelings can, in turn, be a part of the process of social change for specific target groups by suddenly being included in a sense of communitas with others. From an event-management perspective, they can apply

social leverage by showing that volunteering at their event can affect the lives of people with unmet social needs, in turn, working toward social change.

In its current state, the model displays a potential link between the different theoretical concepts that were applied in this study. In other words, the model shows how the concepts connect to each other on a theoretical level and how they will be further explored throughout this thesis. However, in order for the theoretical concepts of the model to function in this matter, there are several highly specific circumstances that need to be present. In section 7 of the thesis (Discussion), the connections, preconditions, limitations, and possibilities will be further explored and discussed. Before that, however, section 5 will describe how the LYOG was studied by presenting the methods and methodology used.

# 5 METHODS AND METHODOLOGY

The platform for the study in terms of the philosophy of science is discussed first in this section. Next, the research design for the thesis is presented. As each article has a separate method section, this section will focus mainly on the single case that is the common denominator of the four articles. Moreover, the reflexive approach and its impact on the methodology and analysis of the data are discussed herein.

## 5.1 PHILOSOPHY OF SCIENCE – SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIONISM

In their book *Ways of Knowing,* Moses and Knutsen (2012) introduce an analogy for viewing methods as tools and methodologies as well-equipped toolboxes. With this analogy in mind, I will present the tools (methods) that I used for solving my "problem." Continuing the analogy of Moses and Knutsen (2012), a carpenter will have one set of tools in his or her toolbox necessary for the particular job that needs to be done, while an electrician will have a very different set in his or her toolbox as the specific job will be different. Yet both sets of tools are equally important for building a home.

In this part of the thesis, I will describe the tools I used for solving my problem, but to do so, I must explain the "profession" I have, thus showing which "toolbox" I brought with me and why the particular tools in it were suitable for the task I set out to do. According to Moses and Knutsen (2012, p. 4), methodology can be described as "how do we know." Thus, in this part of the thesis, I describe and discuss the ontological implications of this study or the general theory about the reality as we know it and all the things that exist in this world (Benton & Craib, 2001) – or as Moses and Knutsen (2012) put it, what the world is really made of. Establishing how reality can be perceived comes first, and then a discussion on how to best study the "problem" at hand within this reality follows.

This thesis is heavily inspired by a social-constructivist perspective. Social constructionism derives from a constructionist philosophy of science, recognizing a need to get an overview of patterns in the world while also trying to explain these patterns. From a constructionist perspective, these patterns can be traced back to the mind that observes them (Moses & Knutsen, 2012). Furthermore, within this view, reality is not seen as something naturally given but rather as something that is socially constructed (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2009).

Moreover, from this perspective, a human being can be a part of several realities, among others, the reality of dreams. However, the reality of the usual everyday world is the most dominant one and, thus, the focus of one's attention. Still, all realities are equally real. Furthermore, the everyday reality is an intersubjective world and, thus, a world shared with others. The most important experiences of other people are found through face-to-face situations, the prototypes of social interaction (Berger & Luckmann, 2000). Ontologically, from a constructionist perspective, the world can be seen as one that emerges to people who find themselves situated in different contexts. Thus, the world will appear differently to different people. Consequently, the appearance of the world will be influenced by these different contextual settings, such as geography, gender, ideology, and culture (Moses & Knutsen, 2012). We can also state that there is no objectively shaped reality as the reality is socially constructed. Objectivity is seen as impossible because there will always be a certain perspective from which the reality is experienced and described (Kjørup, 2001).

In this study, I have worked with different people or what Berger and Luckmann (2000) described as different typologies. These typologies can be seen as categories that are created in situations of social interaction in order to understand and "deal" with face-to-face meetings. For instance, a person with Down syndrome may not always be aware of how to behave and act in various social situations. In this case, the diagnosis of Down syndrome is one way for other people to explain deviant behavior (although there can be several other reasons for not conforming to social expectations). In addition, looking further at this thesis, there are numerous typologies included among the interviewees, such as project leaders, people with intellectual disabilities, and parents of people with intellectual disabilities. These typologies, or categories, do not exist within a vacuum but are instead constructed through a context. This context is negotiable; it can change according to what is learned about these typologies (Berger & Luckmann, 2000). For instance, I might have some assumptions about people with ID, having worked with this group in the past. However, when I learn something new from one person in this category, my picture of this typology is altered. For instance, when I learned that a person with Down syndrome had completed a university degree, thereby qualifying to work as a teacher (Pineda, 2015), this changed my assumptions about the possibilities and limitations of individuals with this diagnosis, thereby altering this typology for me.

We know much about things that we deal with often in our everyday life; we know far less about those things that are more distant to us. From a social-constructionist perspective, as humans we have a social stock of knowledge. For example, my social stock of knowledge helps me identify typologies (such as people working at a cash register, bus drivers, police officers, or medical staff), making it easier for me to live my everyday life (Berger & Luckmann, 2000). The main case of this study, the LYOG, is a sports event that appears as something new in a Norwegian sports context. Thus, it is something we do not know much about, and so it was interesting to learn more about this event because it did not fit the existing typologies of sports events. Consequently, interaction with people within the context of this event was needed in order to learn more about it, expand the social stock of knowledge, and develop the typology of how such an event might look and function.

In order to learn about the people I studied and their reality as something socially constructed, I engaged in face-to-face social interactions. Through conversations and interactions with people that I did not know in advance, I could gain access to and create new knowledge as a researcher. However, in the end, I am the one responsible for the construction of what I claim are research contributions (Alvesson & Karreman, 2011). Consequently, interpretation is important since the researcher's interpretation plays a critical role in the construction of data. The data do not simply exist independent of the researcher, like fruit ready to be picked. They must be constructed by analyzing and applying theoretical concepts and, subsequently, expressed to others through writings or lectures (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2009).

As a researcher, I wished to access and understand the reality of the participants in the study. People with ID have a reality I am not a part of, constructed through labels or diagnoses that are exclusive to them. Most people with ID receive a diagnosis at some point in their lives that, to some extent, shapes or at least influences their possibilities and/or limitations. I can learn about these but never fully access the realities of those affected, which are shaped by their experiences and their personal perceptions, opinions, and reflections. Through their descriptions, narratives, and perceptions, my aim was to learn something new and express it by writing this thesis. As conversations and social interaction were crucial components of this learning process, this study is placed within the qualitative tradition, which will be further explained in the following section.

## 5.2 Research design – The LYOG as a qualitative case

This thesis is based upon a single-case study and uses qualitative interviews, participant observation, and a literature study. According to Yin (2018), single-case studies can be appropriate under several circumstances, for instance, when the researcher encounters an *unusual case*. The Youth Olympic Games in Lillehammer was unusual in that the event deviated from theoretical norms or perceptions of how sports events in Norway should typically appear. This was the case, especially, when it came to the motives and backgrounds of the LYOG volunteers, which, in this case, included several actors who normally do not participate as volunteers in such events. These included people with intellectual disabilities, refugees, and those in treatment for drug addiction. In addition, their participation as volunteers was aided by the facilitation of project leaders who initiated the volunteer projects, as well as those who conducted the event (as shown in articles 1, 3, and 4).

The LYOG is the case that encompasses all the articles included in the dissertation; thus, the thesis as a whole is a single-case study. However, as there are several subunits within the case, such as parents of former volunteers with ID, representatives from the LYOGOC, five different social-entrepreneurial projects, and volunteers with ID, the single-case study has a more complex design. Consequently, this thesis builds upon what Yin (2018) refers to as an embedded single-case design.

The case was chosen strategically (as opposed to randomly) as I learned that the students with ID were to volunteer for the sports event and as they stood out from the other volunteers. They were "special" because of the circumstances of their participation (external partners, actors, or leaders played a critical role in this). Furthermore, people with disabilities (including those with ID) volunteer less than others and are considered a marginalized social group (Eimhjellen, 2011). They often have unmet social needs that can be met through social change (Hulgård & Lundgaard Andersen, 2014). Hence, they represent a suitable group to study in a social-entrepreneurial context. Case studies may be conducted using a variety of data sources such as interviews, archival data, survey data, and observations (Eisenhardt, 1989; Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007). According to Yin (2018), the application of mixed methods, while relying on different data sources, strengthens a case study data collection. In this thesis, the single case was studied through qualitative interviews, document analysis, and participant observations. Together, three empirical studies were conducted (articles 1, 3, and 4), in addition to a

study about facilitating qualitative interviews with people with ID (article 2). While article 1 uses a multiple-case study, articles 3 and 4 are both single-case studies. To some extent, the articles were all theory-driven, as they set out to add knowledge to a theoretical framework that was an important starting point for the studies. This can also be seen in relation to what Eisenhardt and Graebner (2007) would describe as using theory-building from a case. The research question of the thesis begin with "how" and aim to narrow a gap in an under-researched area. According to Edmondson and McManus (2007), theory-building research is particularly suited to answer this kind of question.

Within the social sciences, case-study research remains one of the most challenging methods, yet it can be highly suitable for understanding complex social phenomena (Yin, 2018). Choosing a small number of cases to study may be fruitful as atypical cases often reveal more information because they include more actors and several basic mechanisms in the situation being studied (Flyvbjerg, 2006). Looking more closely at the LYOG as a main case of this study, there are numerous elements, actors, and circumstances embedded within the single case that influence how volunteering at the LYOG can function as a catalyst for social innovation. Furthermore, case studies are appropriate for providing an in-depth understanding and analysis of one case (Creswell, 2007). This implies that the findings from this study are not automatically applicable to other events. However, in studying – and drawing upon – the findings of the LYOG as a single case, it is also easier to identify a starting point for future studies of other sports events. Furthermore, as Flyvbjerg (2006) argued, some might claim that the case study is non-generalizable, that it is not suitable for in-depth study (as seen in a doctoral thesis), and that it might be subjective with too great a scope on the researcher's interpretation. He did, however, refute these claims, suggesting that the case study is both necessary and sufficient as a research method within the social sciences.

## 5.3 Literature study

Several methods were applied in order to answer the research question of the thesis. First, a literature study was conducted to position this study in a wider context while also zooming in on where this study can contribute both theoretically and empirically within the literature. The literature review conducted and presented in this thesis aims to show the broad lines of the literature to examine how social entrepreneurship, social innovation, and volunteerism

are usually studied in a sports context. In my review, the search terms “social entrepreneurship” AND (sport* “Olympic event*” OR “Olympic*” OR “major event*”) were entered in several databases (e.g., SPORTDiscus, ScienceDirect, Business Premiere). However, it was soon discovered that Google Scholar provided the same hits. In addition, the snowball method has been applied, looking at the references of the most-relevant hits from the literature search. Most of the relevant sources were found within sports management and sports sociology literature, while some sources were discovered in other branches of the social sciences (e.g., economics or organization theory).

The results included sources that were relevant for the main research question of the thesis, thus, concerning volunteerism, social innovation, or social entrepreneurship in a sports context. Sources that were written as conceptual had to be applicable to a sports context. In addition to the literature review, I have conducted qualitative interviews, leading to the writing of three empirical articles. In the following section, more is written about the fieldwork for the thesis, describing the methods applied to the four articles. First, there is a description of the process of interviewing as this method was applied in all four articles.

## 5.4 Interviews

For this thesis, a total of 36 unique interviews were conducted, and several were used in more than one article. The interviews varied in length from 15–90 minutes as many of the interviewees had various abilities related to talking, reflecting, and finding the necessary words. All the interviews were transcribed verbatim, and passages were marked to signify where an interviewee laughed, seemed frustrated, or gesticulated in order to emphasize a statement.

According to Kvale and Brinkmann (2009), interviews provide a fruitful method for studies where the aim is to understand someone’s experiences and perceptions of the world. Every method, whether qualitative or quantitative, comes with its challenges. This is also the case in conducting research with people with ID. According to Aldridge (2007), those with ID are less likely to be included in conventional research because researchers who are not familiar with disability research may be unable or unwilling to include these respondents due to ideas or preconceptions about what a respondent should be able to do or how he/she should respond. This could also be the result of prejudices about how people with ID act and talk. What

is certain is that many individuals with ID may experience difficulty answering complex questions or grasping the reach of questions in relation to their specific cognitive challenges (Ellingsen, 2010). As Sigstad and Garrels (2018) pointed out, it is the researcher's responsibility to facilitate interviews, skillfully applying specific techniques known to enable people with ID to participate in qualitative interviews. This view is supported by Ellingsen (2010), who argued that the focus of the preparations for any interview should be on the challenges of the interviewer and not those of the interviewee. This implies that, in the preparations for my interviews, I needed to have questions that were open and easily adaptable to ensure that I could understand the answers I received while also allowing the interviewees to actually share their opinions and experiences. Furthermore, how interviews with people with ID can be facilitated for increased understanding and better communication is addressed in article 2 of this thesis.

As this was a theory-driven study, the questions in the interview guide were developed with theoretical concepts as starting points. As Alvesson and Karreman (2011) advised, I attempted to maintain a certain level of "openness" in the interview process. For instance, it became obvious that the concept of social value was too vague to explain what was "really going on." Thus, new perspectives had to be added in order to enrichen the data from a social-value perspective. This aligns with the ideal of Alvesson and Karreman (2011), where one uses a variety of vocabularies to actively and creatively develop several possible meanings of the empirical material. The interviewees were informed about the theoretical framework of the study prior to the interviews, as the concept played a crucial role in the research questions. However, these theoretical terms were not applied in the implementation of the interviews.

In the formation of the interview guide, the theoretical concepts for each article were applied as an overall structure, giving headings to the different interviews. However, these topics had to be reduced to more-tangible terms for the interviewees in order for them to understand the questions. For example, social value through volunteering could be rephrased as mentioning three things that were fun about volunteering, aiming at identifying the sources of positive experiences related to volunteerism. Thus, when interviewees talked about positive experiences or valuable outcomes of volunteering, these descriptions could be reconstructed within the frames of social value. Such reconstructions of the narratives of the interviewees were designed to add data to the theoretical notions of the thesis, thus aiding to develop them further as theoretical concepts. From the perspective of the interviewees, their stories were

not about social innovation and social entrepreneurship but rather about doing something they considered useful and fun. Furthermore, the main teacher in charge of the volunteer project for students with ID did not consider herself a social entrepreneur, nor had she any acquaintance with this term. It was my reconstruction of her experiences and descriptions in this particular framework that defined her as such.

In the following section, the methods of the various articles will be briefly described (as each article has a detailed method section describing and discussing the technicalities). However, it should be noted that the articles are not numbered chronologically according to when they were written or when the empirical fieldwork was conducted. Presenting them, this allows the articles to build on each other and, thus, to more effectively answer the main issue and research questions of the thesis.

### 5.4.1 Article 1

The fieldwork for article 1 began with the discovery of several volunteer initiatives of a social-entrepreneurial nature through a legacy-mapping process conducted by the LYOGOC, which a representative of the organizing committee gave me. Through this mapping, several groups that would normally not be part of the volunteer crew for a sports event were identified. These projects are briefly presented in Table 2 (below).

*Table 2: Presentation of projects*

| Name of project | Background | Relation to the YOG 2016 |
|---|---|---|
| **Lillehammer Learning Center (LLC)** | A municipal driven school for refugees in need for qualification to stay in Norway, or for others who need special education.<br>Aiding refugees in becoming more independent economic (Lillehammer kommune, 2014). | Pupils from LLC were in charge of making and serving breakfast in the Olympic village.<br>The aims for the pupils were:<br>• To gain valuable work experience and to learn the Norwegian language by doing something practical rather than theoretical (Stensrud, 2016). |
| **The Tyrili Foundation** | A rehabilitation center for people (called pupils), who are addicted to drugs and intoxication. As a part of the rehabilitation process, the center uses their pupils as working staff at a climbing-center, where they function as instructors and shop assistants (amongst other things). | Part of the culture program where the climbing facilities of Tyrili were used as a stage for concerts.<br>Fifty (50) Tyrili pupils were involved as volunteers (Løkken, 2016). |
| **The NAV Project** | A municipal division of the national department, Norwegian Labour and Welfare Administration (Norwegian name, NAV), looking for new ways to provide jobs for the unemployed | Signed an agreement of cooperation with the YOG 2016.<br>The aims were:<br>• To provide practice for work and<br>• To provide jobs or temporary involvement for people who, for various reasons, are outside the labor market (Bleken, 2015). |
| **Lillehammer High School (LHS)** | Has a program for pupils in need of special education, primarily people with intellectual disabilities (ID) | Sixteen (16) students with intellectual disabilities (ID) from Lillehammer High School (LHS) worked as volunteers during the LYOG.<br>The aims for pupils were related to general learning and socializing with others. |
| **The Outside/Inside Foundation (OIF)** | To help children and youth struggling with their current life situation (neglected, bullied, or suffering from mental illness) using activation, involvement, education, and physical labor as preventive measures. | Part of the culture program with a dance performance called "The Invisible Hero" (Innafor utafor, 2016).<br>The aim was to prevent the participants' self-destructive activities. |

*(The full version of this table is found in article 1.)*

After identifying these projects, a project leader for each one was identified, approached, and asked to participate in qualitative interviews.

In addition, a colleague conducted an interview with the CEO of the organizing committee for another study, capturing the view of the LYOGOC on social sustainability. I received approval to access and use this interview for my study; thus, the views of the LYOGOC regarding the inclusion of the social-entrepreneurial projects were included. In addition, the interview that

was conducted with the head of volunteers for another study was relevant for this article. Thus, this conversation was used to add richer data in relation to the view of the LYOGOC on the inclusion of volunteers with ID. Their perspectives were included in order to learn more about the event's strategic approach, visions, and attitudes toward including projects not normally part of sports events in a Norwegian context. There was also little written information available about these subjects; thus, these interviews were necessities for proceeding with the study. Table 3 displays and summarizes all the interviews conducted for article 1.

*Table 3: Fieldwork for article 1*

| Interviewee(s) | Time | Method |
|---|---|---|
| *Project leaders from social-entrepreneurial projects (n=5)* | *2016, after the event* | *Interviews* |
| *Head of the LYOGOC (n=1)* | *2016, after the event* | *Interview* |
| *Head of volunteers (n=1)*[1] | *2016, after the event* | *Interview* |

The start of this study aligned with what Alvesson and Kärreman (2007) described as step 1 in their outline of "mysteries" as a methodology, namely familiarizing oneself with the setting. As a researcher in this phase, I had to keep an open mind to figure out "what is going on here." The interviews with the project leaders were specifically aimed to discover several things. First, I sought to discover how the projects were included in the event, i.e., whether they approached the LYOGOC or were approached by it. This connects to the starting notion that the LYOG organizers were functioning as social entrepreneurs, when, in fact, all they did was to provide an entrepreneurial opportunity or have an available arena for social-entrepreneurial projects. Moreover, the interviews were focused on discovering what the project leaders hoped to achieve by taking part in the event, while another important aspect of the study related to what was actually achieved as a result of volunteering, as the interviews took place after the event.

For the following work of the thesis, one of the projects included in article 1, the Lillehammer High School Volunteer Project (LHSV project), was chosen for further inquiry. Studying all the projects from article 1 would have been too extensive; thus, it was necessary to choose one for closer examination. Selecting this particular project resulted from a chain of thoughts

[1] The interview with the head of volunteers from the LYOGOC is the same one used in article 3.

about what would seem the most interesting to me as a researcher. In this context, "interesting" is related to the work of Davis (1971), who argued that research should aim for a "that's interesting" response, as opposed to a "that's absurd" or "that's obvious" response. All the cases explored in article 1 may have had the potential to invoke a "that's interesting" response; however, the volunteer project for students with ID was chosen for further qualitative study based on my scholarly background and previous work experience with this particular target group. Additionally, this was an entirely new group to study in a volunteer setting.

### 5.4.2 Article 2

Article 2 is about conducting qualitative interviews with respondents who have ID and discusses how interviews with this group can be facilitated in order to succeed in gathering rich data. It is a multiple-case study where four studies that I have either conducted myself or been part of with another researcher are treated and analyzed as four cases. In these four studies (cases A–D), four slightly different approaches were applied to facilitate qualitative interviews with people with ID.

Case A was a study conducted several years before the work for this doctoral thesis. In this study, 12 soccer players (with ID) were interviewed; their ages ranged from 17–45 years, and there was only one female in the group. They had all participated in a major international sports event representing Norway in a football tournament. In addition, two of their coaches were interviewed to gain a more-precise picture and add context to different situations described by the athletes. The interviews were conducted in public places (such as cafés or bars) or in the athletes' homes.

The key knowledge gained from this article was to interview someone close to the person with ID but more distant than close family members or relatives. In this case, the coaches were the best option as they knew their athletes in a different way from their parents. For instance, one of the athletes would frequently use a word that did not make sense. The athlete was not able to explain the meaning of this word, in spite of using it frequently in explanations or different settings; thus, this particular athlete's parent was contacted to find out what the athlete meant. However, the parent had not heard of this word either, so the coach was contacted. He knew what word was meant and revealed that the athlete used it to keep himself from stuttering. In addition, the coaches were able to elaborate several other stories unknown to

athletes' parents. It turned out that this particular word "belonged" in a soccer context; therefore, the parents had never heard it as they were not close enough to that particular context.

Case B was fieldwork conducted for a chapter of a book published in 2017. It was later developed as article 3 of this thesis (thus, more information about the methodological approach of that particular article is found in section 5.4.3). The main lesson learned from this fieldwork was the value of actually facilitating interviews by doing something related to the topic of the study alongside the interviewee. In addition, the value of participant observation in combination with interviews was discovered. Moreover, in this study, the same approach as in study A was used to interview teachers of the students (someone close but still more distant than family). In addition, several important lessons were learned in relation to choosing the location of the interview and how to act as a moderator in group interviews when the interviewees have ID (see article 2 of the thesis for more details regarding these experiences).

Case C of the article was fieldwork also conducted for a book chapter, and I worked on it alongside the doctoral thesis. For this study, 8 adolescents who were part of an organized sports activity were gathered for a group interview. Each interviewee was asked to bring along a photo of his or her favorite activity and asked to explain why it had been chosen. In addition, the parents of the group were gathered into a separate group interview. The lesson learned from this study was the value of using photos as a point of departure in group interviews and to create a fun and exciting atmosphere. The use of photos in interviews has a long tradition in qualitative work where respondents have ID (Aldridge, 2007, 2016; Schwartz, 1989). Still, this was the first time I used this approach, and this particular way of conducting interviews was applied to the fieldwork of article 4 of this thesis. Furthermore, there was value in conducting a group interview where several of the interviewees were familiar with the interviewer in advance, while some in the group were meeting the interviewer for the first time.

Case D of the article was the fieldwork conducted for article 4 of this thesis. In this case, 8 of the volunteers from case B were interviewed again two years after the event. In addition, 5 parents of the former volunteers were interviewed in order to include their perspectives and to gain some context for several of the interviews with those with ID. In this case, the former volunteers could choose to bring one or both parents to the interviews, allowing them to func-

tion as facilitators by aiding the interviewees with ID to find the right words, offer some context, or aid me as the interviewer by helping to explain the questions. The role that the parent was requested to play during the interview was clearly established at the start of the conversation, clarifying that the person with ID was the main interviewee, while the parent was present only to assist as needed at the request of the person with ID. This approach proved very valuable for collecting rich data as the parent could rephrase questions using words he or she knew the interviewee would understand. In addition, the parent could provide small prompts, thereby, aiding his or her son or daughter to recall things from the past.

### 5.4.3 Article 3

In article 3, one of the social-entrepreneurial projects from article 1 was chosen for closer study, the case of the Lillehammer High School Volunteer project (the LHSV project). The case of the LHSV project was studied using qualitative group interviews with the students with ID prior to the event during the autumn and winter of 2015. The aim of these interviews was to learn more about why they had volunteered, how they had experienced the initial process of registration, flow of information, and communication with the LYOGOC, and what they hoped to achieve by volunteering at the event. As it turned out, it was difficult for them to talk about most of these. It was also difficult to reflect on something that had not yet happened, and it was a challenge for most of them to talk in abstract terms, such as describing and reflecting on expectations and hopes for outcomes resulting from their volunteering. Thus, in order to learn more about these circumstances, it was necessary to conduct an additional interview with the main teacher of the class, who was also the leader for the volunteer project, and this interview took place prior to the event. The aim of this interview was to learn more about the goals of the project, how it was initiated, and how she experienced the cooperation with the LYOGOC.

It also became necessary to extend the fieldwork to participant observation and additional real-time interviews during the event in February 2016, when all of the students were interviewed again in the form of informal conversations as they were performing their designated tasks. These interviews were then complemented with participant observation (which is treated on its own below). Last, a group interview with the main teacher and three additional teachers who worked with the students with ID during the event was conducted soon after the event. The goals of interviews were to learn more about the actual outcomes and to allow

for the teachers to reflect on the social value of participating as volunteers in a major sports event. Table 4 provides an overview of all interviews and interviewees for article 3.

*Table 4: Fieldwork for article 3*

| Participant(s) | Time | Method |
|---|---|---|
| High school students with Intellectual disabilities (n=12) | 2015, prior to the event | Group interviews, three in each group |
| Teacher of students with ID, responsible for the volunteer project (n=1)[2] | 2015, prior to the event | Interview |
| Head of[3] volunteers from the LYOGOC (n=1) | 2016, after the event | Interview |
| High school students with Intellectual disabilities (n=12) | 2016, during the YOG | Individual interviews as volunteers performed their duties |
| Teachers from LHC (n=4) | 2016, after the event | Interview |

The students with ID were all 16–19 years of age; and there were six boys and six girls. Several had Down syndrome, while others had other kinds of intellectual disabilities. While some of the interviewees had challenges related to verbal language, there were others with very good spoken and written language. In other words, there was great diversity within the group, especially when it came to their abilities to describe their thoughts, reflections, perceptions, and experiences. Several also had some challenges related to social interaction, understanding what was appropriate and expected, and knowing what to do and what not to do in different social settings. Overall, the main challenge for all of the students in the volunteer project was in regard to learning; compared to their peers, they all needed more time to learn new things. Yet they were all able to participate as volunteers – in one way or another – with the effective facilitation of teachers who knew them well.

### *Participant observation*

In addition to the interviews that were conducted before, during, and after the event, participant observation was conducted during the five days of the event in February 2016. In research with people with ID, participant observations to complement interviews are increasingly common (Taylor, Bogdan, & DeVault, 2015).

[2] Same interview as in article 1
[3] Same interview as in article 1

Their teacher divided the 12 students into smaller groups, with five or six working each day during the five days of the event. Some worked more than others, according to personal preferences and individual school schedules. Each working day was from 09:00–15:00, and their main task was to pick up and recycle litter from two of the main venues of the event. The observations focused, in particular, on situations that promoted joy or happiness, as social value (a key concept of the study's theoretical framework) was conceptualized in relation to highly subjective and positive experiences (Young, 2006). However, these experiences (whether positive or negative) had to be context-specific in relation to the LYOG, where the students interacted with the event or in relation to their tasks as volunteers. Situations where the volunteers with ID experienced a sense of mastering skills or displayed joy and positivism were of particular interest. Some of the students with ID had little to no verbal language and difficulties related to communicating with others. It was particularly valuable to observe how these volunteers could navigate within the event by relying on their teachers and fellow students.

### 5.4.4 Article 4

Article 4 of the thesis was a follow-up study of article 3, where qualitative interviews with eight of the 12 interviewees were conducted two years after the event. In this article, a new approach was tested; the interviewees could choose to bring one of their parents to the interview, where the parent could function as a facilitator or an interpreter to assist me as an interviewer to rephrase questions, find triggers for memories, and aid the interviewees in other ways during the interview. In addition, these parents were also briefly interviewed in order to gather richer data as they discussed how they perceived the effects of volunteering at the YOG.

Moreover, all of the interviewees were asked to bring photos related to their volunteering (if they had such pictures), and all were shown a video clip from a news broadcast of the event regarding their volunteer project. The video clip served as a memory trigger and assisted in setting the tone for the interviews. Several of the former volunteers also brought a memory book with photos from the event, which was made as a school project after the event.

The eight interviewees for this study were strategically chosen as experience working on article 3 showed that it would be difficult for all 12 volunteers to reflect upon and talk about events in the past.

*Table 5: Fieldwork for article 4*

| Interviewees | Time | Method |
|---|---|---|
| Former volunteers with ID (LHSV project) (n=8) | 2018 | Interviews, photo interviews, parent-assisted interviews |
| Parents of former volunteers with ID (LHSV project (n=5) | 2018 | Interviews |

The eight interviewees for this study were all 19–23 years of age; there were three females and five males. All the interviewees were capable of reflecting retrospectively and had good recollections of the days the event transpired. Two of the interviewees had Down syndrome, while the others had different types of intellectual disabilities. Several had some difficulties with verbal language, which could be overcome with the aid of their parents. Furthermore, all the parents who participated in the interviews were females. The duration of the interviews with the former volunteers varied according to each one's verbal communication skills, but generally, they lasted for about 30 minutes. The interviews with the parents, comprising only three questions, lasted only about 15 minutes each.

## 5.5 Analysis and quality assessment

As the thesis relied upon an embedded case-study design, there were units of analysis at more than one level (Yin, 2018). In my dissertation, the perspectives of several actors and groups involved with the LYOG were included. Consequently, the perspectives of representatives of the Youth Olympic Games Organizing Committee, volunteers, and project leaders in charge of various volunteer projects are subjects of analysis.

The analysis began along the lines described by Yin (2018) as "playing" with the data while searching for patterns, insights, or concepts to be further explored. Concepts and terms such as social innovation, social entrepreneurship, social change, and social leveraging led in shaping the topics of the interviews and, thus, also in the analysis of the data. In the analysis of the

interviews, the interviewees' understandings of the situation and their experiences were deconstructed, or broken down into segments, before they were reconstructed within the framework of this thesis (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). More specifically, the reconstruction was conducted by looking in depth at specific passages in the transcripts of the interviews, taking these out of their original contexts, and aligning these statements along with the theoretical concepts of the study in order to be able to see their narratives in a larger picture. The analysis of the thesis were mainly oriented toward reconstructing the narratives from the interviewees in the confines of the theoretical framework of the thesis. This approach aligns with what is described by Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) as a bricolage approach. In applying this approach, the interviews were not analyzed in one strict, systematic way (for instance, through conversation analysis or categorization). Instead, they were analyzed through different ad-hoc methods and conceptual approaches, reconstructing passages of the interviews in certain ways in order to apply meaning within the confines of the framework of the thesis. For example, in article 4, some of the interviews were rewritten as narratives after asking the interviewees simple "yes" and "no" questions. In other interviews, such as those conducted for article 1, a search for patterns across the various interviews was more important.

The aim of this single-case study is not to generalize based on the findings but rather to make what Stake (2005) described as an analytical generalization. According to Yin (2018), an analytical generalization may be based on advancing theoretical concepts serving as the basis for the design of the case study, but it might also be based on new concepts that arose during the completion of the case study. Furthermore, the generalization based on a case study is conceptually higher than that of the specific case. According to Guba and Lincoln (1982), generalizing is possible to some extent given certain circumstances. These circumstances rely on "thick descriptions" about what they refer to as both "sending" and "receiving" contexts, in turn, affecting the judgment of whether a transfer is possible or not.

In this study, analytical generalization was made in relation to two areas: first, by exploring the preconditions and characteristics of the event, focusing on the role it played in making social entrepreneurs come forward with their projects. In addition, as a starting point for social-entrepreneurial projects, the event was analyzed to determine how other events could function in a similar manner. More specifically, the role of the event organizers and the special characteristics of the event have been explored in order to see how these affected the process

of social innovation. By learning how this event came to be perceived as an entrepreneurial opportunity, more is known about how and why other events could or should work in a similar manner.

Secondly, an analytical generalization was made from the perspective of the target group, in this case, students with ID. More specifically, how volunteering at the event could be a source of social value for this particular group was explored before exploring if and how this could be applicable for other social groups in the society. Again, the preconditions for success were examined closely in an attempt to identify an overarching perspective to learn if and how this could be repeated in other events. As Yin (2018) pointed out, analytical generalization may be based on new concepts deriving from a completed case study. Upon the completion of this thesis, more is known about which possibilities a major sports event might have as a starting point for social entrepreneurs to work toward social change for a specific group. Specifically, if and how the findings from this thesis are applicable to future events needs to be explored further in future studies. However, several elements or implications for future studies can still be found by more closely examining this particular case. Consequently, exploring the LYOG as a single case can tell us something about other events and other projects that aim to create social value through volunteering.

Within qualitative research, there is always a possibility that the researcher may impose his or her perspectives and views on the respondents of a study. This aspect might pose an extra challenge when doing research in which the participants have language difficulties (Lloyd, Gatherer, & Kalsy, 2006), as was the case with several of the interviewees for this thesis. In participating in constructing the data from the interviews by applying the specific theoretical framework of this study, I am also open to the notion that there are other perspectives that could have been applied. In addition, data can be constructed in different ways as the world can appear different to different people (Moses & Knutsen, 2012). Hence, reflexivity may be useful in the interpretation process of a study involving this particular group of people.

### 5.5.1 Reflexivity

Reflexivity relates to being aware of the various aspects that influence how a researcher thinks, acts, sees, and interprets the world, without letting one particular view dominate (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2009). From a social-constructionist perspective, interpretation can be

seen in relation to how the individual constructs reality based upon how he or she sees the world (Moses & Knutsen, 2012). From this view, the researcher is taking a strong part in constructing the findings and data of a study since his or her interpretation plays a crucial role (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2009).

There are several ways to work toward a reflexive approach, such as discussing observations or findings with other persons who are also familiar with the study's participants. This particular approach was applied to several of the articles of the thesis. In article 3, it was done through discussions with teachers of the students with ID, while in article 4, the parents of the former volunteers were able to provide additional context and data. For example, there was a situation with one of the interviewees where I noticed a change of behavior; this was considered as gaining his trust and confidentiality. However, discussing this incident with his teachers, they could provide me with information that showed that my interpretation was quite unreasonable (see article 2 for more details regarding this example). Thus, it is important to look at certain patterns, observations, and findings from several angles and to attempt to let oneself be surprised by the data at hand. In other words, engage with the empirical material at hand as a critical dialogue partner, and while doing so, challenge the in-house assumptions from the field of research as well the assumptions of the researcher (Alvesson & Karreman, 2011). This becomes increasingly important when conducting research with persons whose vocabulary is limited, as is often the case with people with ID, since the interpretation will play a crucial role in the construction of data.

In the articles, I had to identify a point of departure that presented the data in a satisfactory way. After a brief discussion with scientists from academic fields different from my own, the "solution" was to apply a perspective rooted mainly in economics and marketing, social entrepreneurship, and social innovation. Initially, with a background as a sports scientist, I was reluctant to enter the field of entrepreneurship. However, some of the pieces of my puzzle suddenly started to fit, and the perspective had more to offer than assumed at first glance.

In applying social entrepreneurship, the data were reflected upon in a way that was entirely new to me, focusing on social value rather than motives and on societal and personal benefits, as is often the case in research on volunteerism (Wicker, 2017). Social entrepreneurship, en-

compassing social innovation, became the lens that aided the initial presentation or construction of data (cf. Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2009). However, being critical, which is the next level of the process, social entrepreneurship alone was not enough to provide a clear picture of what was going on; other perspectives had to be added and combined with this new one. By using my repertoire of interpretation as a means of construction, perspectives already familiar to me were combined with social entrepreneurship. By looking to theoretical fields other than my own, data were constructed, and volunteerism was studied reflexively.

In the process of completing this thesis, the content of the included articles was analyzed again in order to find transcending themes and subjects, more or less emerging from or covering all the articles. Thus, the main research question of the thesis was crafted according to the articles as opposed to the other way around. The analysis of the articles showed that there were three emerging themes (presented below in *Figure 3: Themes deriving from analysis of the* articles).

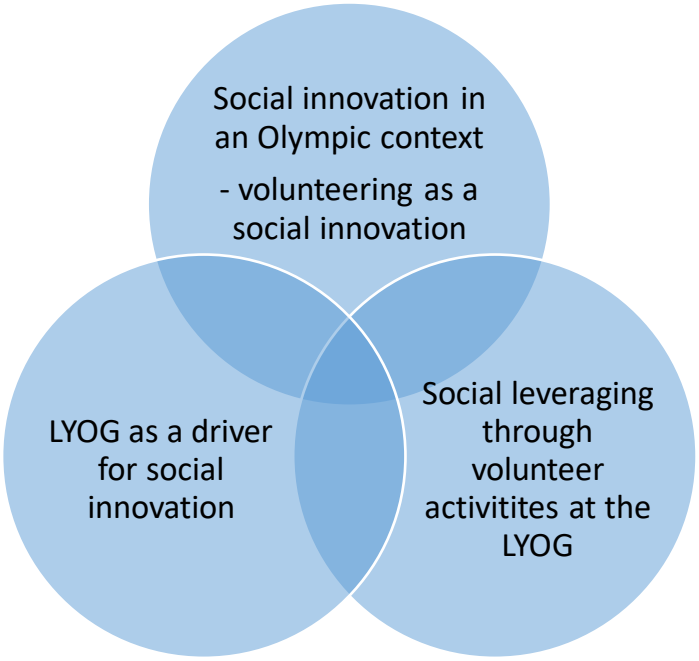


*Figure 3: Themes deriving from analysis of the articles*

The analysis of the articles showed that the Olympic aspect of the sports event played an important role in the wish to volunteer for it while also shaping the volunteer experience in a substantial way. Social innovation could be seen within the frame of volunteering, but the LYOG was an important driver within this process. Although volunteering could be seen as a

social innovation in itself, there was more to the picture. Volunteering at the event also made social leveraging possible, and (as the discussion will show) social leverage plays an important role in the initiation and implementation of a social innovation.

## 5.6 Ethical considerations

In this thesis, I have aimed at rendering all data, quotes, opinions, and statements in a respectful matter and attempted to avoid representing the interviewees in an unfavorable way. In addition, the Norwegian Centre for Research Data (NSD) approved the fieldwork for the thesis (including all its articles). The NSD ensures research-project participants that their personal data are stored in a satisfactory way to ensure that their privacy is protected. The subjects of the thesis – volunteering, social entrepreneurship, and social innovation – were not considered as sensitive or as related to topics that were personal on a deeper level (such as subjects relating to sexuality or personal beliefs) by the NSD. In all the articles, all persons were anonymized, and all identifying information including names was excluded.

All participants in the initial interviews received written information prior to the studies explaining the purpose of each study; this was relayed through the teacher for the students with ID. In addition, the written information stated explicitly that participation was voluntarily and that all participants had the option to withdraw from the study at any time without any consequences. The first article included interviewees below the age of 18, but permission for interviews and written consent of participation were ensured through the aid of teachers and parents. For article 4, the parent or guardian of each interviewee was contacted first, and I asked for permission to contact their respective son or daughter. For some of the interviewees, all practical concerns regarding the interviews were addressed through one or both parents. However, for article 4, all interviewees were above the legal age and had the power to decide for themselves in all matters. In addition, for those interviews where a parent was present, it was clarified to the person with ID that he or she was in charge of the situation. The parent was merely present to aid the person with ID, as she or he requested (this is discussed further in article 2).

# 6 EXTENDED ABSTRACTS OF THE ARTICLES

## 6.1 ARTICLE 1: THE YOUTH OLYMPIC GAMES AS AN OPPORTUNITY FOR SPORTS ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Undlien, R. (2017) The Youth Olympic Games as an opportunity for sports entrepreneurship, *International Journal of Sport Management and Marketing, 17*(4-6), 283-307.

The aim of this article is to examine the possibilities that social entrepreneurs have for using a major sports event as an arena for their work. A case study using five different project leaders of social-entrepreneurial projects was undertaken, and qualitative interviews were conducted to learn about their experiences and perceptions related to using the Youth Olympic Games in Lillehammer (LYOG) to advance their causes. The LYOG was considered a highly significant entrepreneurial opportunity by the project leaders, especially for networking and improving bonding social capital and for offering several possibilities to create social value for different groups, due, in particular, to the Culture and Education Programme (CEP). Furthermore, the project leaders experienced the LYOG as a flexible arena where they had a lot of freedom to focus on their main tasks and the jobs they set out to do. They also saw the opportunity to be a part of an Olympic context, especially in relation to the 1994 Winter Olympic Games, as important and beneficial for leveraging their work. It might be that the LYOG would not have been this attractive were it not for the Winter Olympics in Lillehammer. The LYOGOC was found to be an organization that emphasized the importance of social legacy and social responsibility, where the inclusion of all groups within the society stood out as important (such as the inclusion of people in treatment for drug addictions, refugees, and people with intellectual disabilities). In this context, social legacy was seen as having lasting impacts on the local community that aimed to be sustainable when the event was over. Theoretically, this article seeks to contribute to the field of sports entrepreneurship, social entrepreneurship, and social capital in a sports context.

## 6.2 ARTICLE 2: FACILITATING QUALITATIVE INTERVIEWS WITH PEOPLE WITH INTELLECTUAL DISABILITIES

Undlien, R. (in process). Facilitating qualitative interviews with people with intellectual disabilities. Submitted to *Nordic Journal of Social Research*.

Qualitative research with people with intellectual disabilities includes several different approaches. Arguably, some emphasis should still be on qualitative interviews, but in order to increase the chances of gathering rich data, interviews need to be facilitated. A multiple-case study was conducted using four different studies with qualitative interviews as the main method. The cases were analyzed according to systematic text condensation, as developed by Malterud (2012). The main findings of the article include several ways in which qualitative interviews may be facilitated to collect rich data. One way to facilitate interviews is to carefully choose the environment for the interview and to do something practical together related to the subject studied. For instance, when the aim is to learn about how people with ID experience being volunteers at a major sports event, it might be fruitful to go with them while they are volunteering, thereby adding observation to the interviews. Moreover, interviewing unrelated people who know the interviewees well, particularly in relation to the specific context to be studied, might be valuable. Another approach is to allow the person with ID to bring a parent to the interview who can assist in communication and prompting memories. However, it is important for the researcher to establish the parent's role early on in the conversation to ensure that the person with ID remains in charge of the situation. Lastly, communicating well with people with ID is important independent of methods, and thus, more knowledge about how to facilitate qualitative interviews may be helpful. These approaches are not exclusive to conducting research with people with ID; it can be valuable to learn about challenges that might occur and how to eventually cope with them.

## 6.3 Article 3: Being a part of it: People with intellectual disabilities as volunteers in the Youth Olympic Games

Undlien, R. (2019). Being a Part of It – People with intellectual disabilities as volunteers in the Youth Olympic Games. *Journal of Sport for Development, 7*(12), 33–45.

During the Youth Olympic Winter Games in Lillehammer, Norway, a group of students with intellectual disabilities worked as volunteers. The teachers of the class functioned in a social-entrepreneurial manner, using the event to create social value for this particular group. Qualitative interviews were conducted with the group of students (n=12), and observations were made during the event. The students' teachers (n=3) and the head of volunteers (n=1) from

the organizing committee were also interviewed for triangulation, thus verifying the interpretation of the data. This study demonstrated that social value was created through the practical tasks the students with intellectual disabilities were assigned, especially in relation to the Olympic context of the event, and the job itself was more important than those for whom they were doing it or the reason they were doing it. An important aspect of this was related to the fact that this was an authentic event involving real people. It was also an event where marginalized groups could participate in the society alongside others and be part of discourses that focus on being useful rather than on their disabilities. Other important sources of social value were connected to the students being outside the classroom and cooperating and learning from each other in the group. The students had the opportunity to aid and assist, instead of being aided and assisted, and to give back to the local community. The task they set out to do (picking up garbage at two of the main venues) was experienced as important on its own and not influenced by those for whom they were doing it. Lastly, it allowed the students to cooperate on practical tasks that needed to be accomplished and enabled them to develop and demonstrate personal characteristics that were new to themselves and to their teachers.

## 6.4 Article 4: Lasting social value or a one-off? People with intellectual disabilities' experiences with volunteering for the Youth Olympic Games

Undlien, R. (2019). Lasting social value or a one-off? People with intellectual disabilities' experiences with volunteering for the Youth Olympic Games. *Journal of Sport for Development, 7*(13), 33–45.

This article serves as a follow-up to a previous study and looks at how volunteering at a major sports event has affected the lives of a group of volunteers with intellectual disabilities two years later. The aim is to examine how volunteering at an Olympic event may be a source of lasting social value operationalized as an increase in social capital and quality of life. Qualitative interviews were conducted with a selection of former volunteers with intellectual disabilities (n=8). In five of the interviews, parents of the interviewees functioned as facilitators. The same five parents were also interviewed in brief, semistructured interviews. This study shows that the event had a limited effect on bridging social capital while having a stronger impact on the group's bonding social capital. Moreover, the event has affected the quality of life for the participants to various degrees by being a source of positive memories reinforced by visual

reminders such as the volunteer uniform frequently worn by the former volunteers. The volunteer experience also serves as a bridging element, bringing together groups of people with little in common. In some cases, volunteering also led to employment in regular occupations. To some extent, the volunteer activities appear to have led to a change in how the group of former volunteers see themselves, giving them an option to resist being labeled as persons in need of aid and, instead, being seen as useful and important people who helped at an event. Volunteering at the LYOG gave the volunteers access to several benefits including learning new skills and a special identity (as a volunteer at an Olympic event, reinforced by the volunteer uniform). For two of the interviewees, volunteering at the LYOG played a major role in the process of becoming employed in regular positions. Thus, volunteering at the YOG has made and continues to make impacts on the quality of life for those who volunteered.

# 7 DISCUSSION

In this chapter, I go back to the overall research question of the study: How can volunteering at an Olympic event function as a catalyst for social innovation for people with intellectual disabilities?

In addition, the three main topics that were identified and presented in section 5.5 will be further explored: 1) volunteering as a social innovation; 2) the LYOG as a driver for social innovation in an Olympic context; and 3) social leveraging through volunteer activities at the LYOG. These themes also set the structure for the discussion.

## 7.1 VOLUNTEERING AS A SOCIAL INNOVATION

As shown in article 3, the fact that people with ID worked as volunteers at a sports event can be seen as a social innovation. It started with a new idea, i.e., that people with ID who are normally not a part of the volunteer context can be volunteers at an Olympic event. This idea met a social need for the students with ID to be included in the same settings as others in the society, in this case, the volunteer setting. This was made possible through a new cooperation (Murray et al., 2010) between the organizing committee of an Olympic event and a local high school. An increase in quality of life is often conceived as a key component in the aims of social innovations (Pol & Ville, 2009). Article 4 of the thesis showed that, two years after the event, an increase in quality of life was experienced by most of the former volunteers as a result of volunteering at the event. The increase in quality of life was closely connected to those with whom they were volunteering, i.e., friends and peers from their school class, allowing for the formation of stronger bonding capital (Putnam, 2001). The volunteer experience was something special to those who volunteered and distinguished them from others who were not part of the event. However, as shown in article 4, for this kind of volunteering to take place, someone had to take the initiative to volunteer on behalf of the group, and, in this case, this was the teacher who was acting as a social bricoleur (cf. Zahra et al., 2009).

The main teacher for the class of students with ID played an important role in initiating and implementing the social innovation. In order for volunteering at the LYOG to be seen as a social innovation, there had to be persons involved who saw the event as an entrepreneurial opportunity and were willing to take a risk (cf. Ratten, 2011a). It was not a given that the

volunteer project would turn out to be advantageous for those who participated (as seen in article 1). It also demanded a large amount of effort on behalf of the people who made the volunteering project happen. For instance, in article 3, the main teacher explained that, had she known in advance the amount of work that it was going to take to be part of the event, she might not have gone through with the project. Still, after the event, the work and its results were considered worth all the effort. All the projects discussed and analyzed in article 1 had a single person who was responsible for them. Had it not been for these persons, the projects may never have been initiated and conducted.

In the main case of the thesis, the teacher saw the potential for positive outcomes of participating as volunteers at the event, in spite of the potential risks involved, and put forth extra effort, beyond what was expected, for the project to succeed. In this case, the main teacher functioned as a social bricoleur by having the necessary local knowledge, knowing what needs should be addressed, and seeing ways to act as an opportunity became apparent (Zahra et al., 2009). It is also known that the process of social innovation is rarely a linear one (Mulgan, 2006), as was the case of the LYOG. When it became official that the YOG was to take place in Lillehammer, several actors "just knew" they had to be a part of it (cf. Article 1 and 3). The values to be gained by doing so were, in many cases, not identified until the event was over. This was especially true in article 1, where all the project leaders just knew they had to be a part of the event as soon as it was known that it would be held in Lillehammer. How to be a part of it and how to angle their projects in terms of beneficial outcomes for their respective target groups came at a later stage. The only certainty was that volunteering was the way to hop on board with the event and that the extensive CEP of the LYOG opened several angles for entry.

In several of the cases of article 1 and, in particular, for the main case of the thesis, the social need that had to be addressed was identified after the event started. For instance, in article 3 we met Sander, a student who became a sort of leader for the group of volunteers with ID. Sander had a need to find contexts in which he could see himself as someone useful, as this was something he benefited from. This was also the case for several other of the volunteers with ID. More specifically, as an increasing number of students from the group demonstrated their capabilities as a workforce, they stood out with several characteristics and skills that

were previously unknown to their teachers. Consequently, their need to be included in settings where they could be seen as someone useful became apparent. For instance, during the days of the event, as the students were picking up trash on the venues, a significant difference was made for several of the students when they were given a pick-up tool. This specific device could make all the difference between inactivity and absolute activeness (cf. article 3). However, in order to spot this need and, thereby, this change in behavior (from passive to active), a person who knew the members of the group well, such as their teacher, had to be present.

As Nicholls and Murdock (2012) pointed out, social innovation can be seen from an individual dimension through innovation in social relations. For instance, several of the students with ID showed new sides of themselves that were previously unknown to the main teacher. Again, Sander may be considered as an example as he was previously known as someone unable to make decisions. Surprisingly, he grew to become a sort of leader for the group, choosing where to go, when to go there, and selecting which bins to empty (cf. article 3). In turn, this changed his relationship with his teacher as well as the way he was perceived by his fellow students.

One of the aims of the volunteer project was to provide the students with an arena where there were possibilities to form new social relationships, for example, with other volunteers. However, it was equally important to bring the group closer together, allowing them to have a bonding experience. As seen in article 4, the project had limited impact on the bridging social capital of the group (there was little or no interaction with other volunteers), but it had a strong impact on the bonding social capital. Still, several new kinds of relationships were formed, both in terms of cooperation between actors having no previous affiliation and on a personal level between the volunteers in the school class and in terms of accessing a new kind of identity (a volunteer at an Olympic event).

Social value was created at the event as the volunteers sensed several subjective, positive feelings (cf. article 3, Young, 2006). This social value endured for two years after the event (cf. article 4). New work opportunities opened up as a result of volunteering at the event, in addition to the volunteers being able to develop and demonstrate useful skills (article 3). Two years after the event, their participation as volunteers led directly to regular employment in the workforce for two former volunteers. Another of the former volunteers became politically

active on a volunteer basis (cf. article 4). Had it not been for the social bricoleur showing several entrepreneurial abilities (cf. article 1), this may have turned out differently. From this, it is reasonable to claim that, in order for the LYOG to function as a catalyst for social innovation and social entrepreneurship, several people with the right set of characteristics, attitudes, and vision are needed to initiate and implement the projects.

Thus far, we have seen how volunteering could be seen as a social innovation for a group of students with ID. However, this could just as well be related to another group of people with needs currently not being met. Furthermore, there are several preconditions that are necessary for sports-event volunteering to be perceived as a social innovation. When exploring this subject, several themes emerge. The process begins with a group of people with a social need currently being unmet. This can be a need for social inclusion in the community, an increase in social capital to gain entry into the labor market, or just positive experiences for increased well-being. As an important notion of social innovation relates to doing something new (Dees, 2011), the target group needs to be one that is not usually found in the volunteer context. The persons who are to volunteer need to be defined, in some way, as a social group with similar challenges or some other attribute that forms them into a social category. In addition, they need to have one or more persons willing to speak on their behalf, either to coordinate them as a group or just to assist their communication with eventual event organizers. This person must possess knowledge of the local community and an overview of what is happening (Zahra et al., 2009), for instance, in terms of events in which to participate. He or she also needs to be able to spot an opportunity (Baron, 2006) while being aware of how participation in an event can correspond with the unmet needs of the group. He or she needs to know how best to approach the event's organizers in order to successfully implement the project. Furthermore, in order to facilitate volunteering to function as a social innovation for a specific group, the person in charge has to demonstrate several entrepreneurial characteristics such as proactiveness, willingness to take a risk, and being able to think innovatively (Ratten, 2011a).

From the group's perspective, its members need to be able to contribute in a meaningful way rather than just serving as a symbolic part of the event. In other words, the task they are to do as volunteers has to be something that actually needs to be done. In addition, the task must have a certain level of challenge, allowing the volunteers to experience mastering skills or a sense of achievement. As seen in articles 3 and 4 of this thesis, this relates closely to

personal development being an important source of social value (Young, 2006). If the task is too easy, it might be boring, and if it is too difficult, it might be frustrating. The balance here is not easy to manage. The larger the event, the more variety of tasks can be found. Thus, this kind of social innovation presupposes a certain size of the event or at least creativity on the part of the person who knows the capabilities of the group and close cooperation with the event's organizers. This implies that the organizers need to be on board and working together with the project leader. This is perhaps the most difficult part of this kind of social innovation. Volunteering does not always include exclusively exciting and intriguing tasks. Sometimes, the task that needs doing can be experienced as monotonous, boring, and even pointless. However, for people who have never done it before and are being part of a new context for the first time, less is required of the task for it to be considered exciting. Still, the tasks to be done by the volunteers are a factor that needs considerable attention, both from the project leader and the event organizers.

Another challenge of this kind of social innovation that relies heavily on volunteerism is that the group will need work to do that is experienced as meaningful to volunteer for, which may not always be easy to find. In addition, event organizers must possess and demonstrate open-mindedness in regard to the inclusion of new groups of people. This leaves event organizers with the power to accept or decline the initiation of this type of social innovation. Olympic events often have promised legacies (Chalip, 2014), making it easier to argue in favor of including new groups in their events. This may not be the case for smaller or local events. Thus, event organizers must demonstrate social responsibility in addition to open-mindedness. The person responsible for the initiation of the volunteer social innovation can influence this by working to get the event organizers to see the group's needs while showing them how the participation of this particular group can create positive reactions and good public relations for themselves and for the event. In other words, there is a real need to help event organizers realize that the participation of a group with unmet social needs may function as social leverage for the event and its organizers (Chalip, 2006) and promote positivity toward the event.

## 7.2 The LYOG as a driver for social innovation – the Olympic aspect of the event

According to Kanter (2000), social innovation is inspired when someone sees and acts upon an opportunity. As seen in article 1 of this thesis, the LYOG was considered a great entrepreneurial opportunity by several actors, motivating them to identify ways of participating in the event. For instance, the Outside/inside Foundation came up with a dance/act performance for their youth (individuals who have suffered from bullying or exclusion) in order to be part of the event. Some of the project leaders in the various cases of article 1 were actively searching for opportunities, such as the Lillehammer Learning Center, which, according to their project leader, was constantly looking for new places for their students (newly arrived refugees) to practice the language and engage in the society in order to become more attractive to potential employers. Others were more passively searching for opportunities (Ardichvili et al., 2003), such as the main teacher from Lillehammer High School. However, it is not a given that any of the "regular" events in the local community could have served as an entrepreneurial opportunity in the same way as the LYOG, although some events in the Lillehammer region are comparable in size (in terms of the number of participating athletes and large numbers of volunteers needed). The Olympic dimension of the event is seen as important in several aspects of this case. For all the project leaders except one, the Olympic dimension was the main reason they wanted to be part of it (cf. article 1). However, this dimension also stands out as important in the process of initiating and implementing volunteering as a social innovation.

Social innovation is closely connected to social change (Nicholls, 2006), and non-profit organizations can be important actors in the initiation and implementation of social innovations, in turn leading to change (Mulgan, 2006; Shier & Handy, 2015). As seen in article 1, the LYOG was experienced as an arena suitable for the building of social capital, as the various target groups of the social-entrepreneurial projects could work as volunteers alongside others with whom they originally had little in common. In addition, it was a good arena for visibility, where one's capabilities and potential to contribute could be seen by others, in spite of the individual being in a category of people not usually seen in the context of having useful skills. Furthermore, this allowed one to extend one's network, potentially improving one's CV to become more attractive to potential employers in the future. Still, the Olympic dimension played an important role in the process of social change for the various target groups. As seen in article 4, two years after the event, it was the uniforms, stands, booths, international crowd, media,

mascot, and all the other elements of an Olympic event that were most memorable for the majority of the former volunteers. For others, the task of picking up garbage was itself the most memorable aspect. All these aspects became part of memories of identities that were accessed during those five days in 2016 for the duration of the LYOG. These identities were as "volunteers at an Olympic event," reinforced by the volunteer uniforms mentioned as very important on a personal level by several of the interviewees in article 4. This identity distinguishes itself from the "normal" identity – this was an exclusive identity. There was a difference between those who were a part of it and those who were not. This can be seen in relation to a social change for the group of students with ID.

The social change for the group is connected mainly to bridging and bonding social capital. Bridging social capital was seen in regard to employment for two of the former volunteers, and bonding was seen in the stronger connections within the group, separating them from others who did not experience being volunteers at the event. In article 1 of the thesis, the Olympic frames of the event could also be seen as somewhat of a limitation for the project leaders of social-entrepreneurial projects. However, the Olympic aspect also developed several cooperative efforts that may have been seen as unlikely at first. An example is the cooperation between the LYOGOC, a part county, municipal, and governmental driven and owned organization, representing a sporting event, and other public and private actors such as the NAV, the Tyrili Foundation (working with people in treatment for drug addiction), and Lillehammer High School. The main component binding all these actors together and enabling their cooperation and collaboration was an Olympic sporting event. However, in most of the cases, as seen in articles 1, 3, and 4, a non-profit actor, usually in the form of a single individual with a vision and a passion related to a social issue, was the main actor responsible for initiating and implementing the social innovation within the Olympic context.

Olympic events stand out from other sports events due to their heavy symbolism, which Chalip (2006) also pointed out. Article 1 of this thesis found that the liminality achieved through the memories of the Olympic Winter Games in 1994 (OWG94) extended to the LYOG, aiding in the creation of liminality for that particular event as well. In other words, the LYOG could be seen as a continuation of the story of the Olympic Games in Lillehammer. Several people wanted to be part of this narrative, retelling the stories and reliving the experiences of the previous

games. Thus, the Olympic aspect of this particular event had an influence on the very nature of the social innovation that derived from the games.

Being situated in the same place as "the best Olympic Winter Games ever," the LYOG had an advantage over other events. Thus, to some extent, liminality was present before the LYOG even began. This liminality was important for making the event a memorable experience for those who participated as volunteers and was an important source of social value (as seen in article 3). However, even though liminality deriving from the Olympic aspect of the event was important, it was not the crucial element of the social innovation. For this particular group of people with ID, the cause for which they volunteered was not that important. Although most of the students with ID had difficulties explaining what the YOG was, almost everyone knew what the Olympics were, so that understanding was used as a vantage point for the YOG (cf. articles 3 and 4). Still, what was more important was with whom they were doing it and that they got to be part of a unique atmosphere. However, for other groups, the cause can be more important (Hanstad, 2014). Having a cause to work for that is considered important on a personal level can be a source of similar liminoid feelings, as described in relation to Olympic events (Chalip, 2006). In other words, finding the right type of event for the specific target group can be equally important in the process of social innovation through volunteering. Examining liminality more closely, it really is about being a part of something greater than oneself, and this can be experienced on several levels (Chalip, 2006), for instance, by being part of a team working toward the same goal and having a similar personal commitment to the task.

In this case, the event functioned as an opportunity that various actors wanted to be part of (article 1). Ways to do so and identifying the needs to be addressed were considered at a later stage. For the LYOG, the event had an Olympic connection that made it attractive. In addition, the event organizers communicated their sense of social responsibility, showing people that it was actually possible to be part of it (Lillehammer2016, 2012). This can be done by other events as well to include other groups who normally do not volunteer. By communicating clearly that it is, indeed, possible for everyone to be part of an event makes it easier to see events as opportunities, and this may be as important as the Olympic aspect of the event. In other words, event organizers need to communicate to the local community that their events are open to all kinds of people who wish to be part of them. Thus, this clearly stated position

from event organizers may be the factor that makes it apparent to social innovators how they can use the event as leverage to address a need. Leveraging will be further discussed in the next section.

## 7.3 Social leveraging through volunteering

As we have seen thus far in this discussion, volunteering at a major sports event can be seen as an opportunity for social innovation to benefit people with ID. The LYOG, as an Olympic event, can be considered an important driver in this process. However, in this section, I will show that a major sports event such as the LYOG can be used as social leverage not only by the event organizers but also by social entrepreneurs seeking to promote their projects.

Usually, events leverage strategically in order to focus event stakeholders' attention on targeted social issues. This is something event organizers can work to achieve through marketing strategies and event visitors (Chalip, 2014). Thus, social leverage as described by Chalip (2006, 2014) is conceptualized as something happening from an event organizer's perspective. The LYOGOC actively demonstrated that it was an organization that wanted to take social responsibility (as found in article 1). By stressing social responsibility and social legacy as important points in their application (Lillehammer2016, 2012), they could meet head-on the already-existing skepticism from the recent bidding process for the Olympic games in 2022 (MacAloon, 2016). Thus, the LYOGOC organizers could leverage to legitimize their event, promoting the LYOG as an event that would add value to the local society, especially in regard to being open-minded about having a large variety of actors participate, particularly through the culture and education program (CEP) (cf. article 1).

However, as seen in article 3 of the thesis, the teacher acted as a social bricoleur. She had local knowledge and knew who to approach and who to speak with in order to make the project happen. She also knew the needs of a small group of people and saw an opportunity to meet these needs through volunteering (Zahra et al., 2009). It can also be said that she saw an opportunity to use the event as leverage to forward their cause, which was the inclusion of people with ID as equal members of the society. Thus, the event could be used to raise awareness of their cause. In this case, the social bricoleur used the marketing and attention the event received for leveraging a socially important issue. From this, we can see that leveraging is something that can work both ways. From an event perspective, the event organizers

can leverage important social issues to show that they are socially responsible and take their need to demonstrate their social responsibility seriously, thus increasing an event's standing and popularity in the local community. In this case, the aspect of seeing people with ID as individuals who can be resourceful and useful was highlighted. In turn, this resulted in social value for the target group (cf. article 3) in regard to an increase in bonding social capital and quality of life for the former volunteers with ID (cf. article 4). Therefore, there was a win–win effect, demonstrating that social leverage can work both ways.

An important aspect of social leverage is liminality (Chalip, 2006, 2014). In 1994, the IOC president, Juan Antonio Samaranch, declared the games "the best Olympic Winter Games ever," and the games were, in fact, considered a huge success by most Norwegians (Puijk, 1997). The success of the 1994 Winter Olympic Games added to the event's liminality, making it more attractive for various social-entrepreneurial actors to be part of it (cf. article 1). This liminality was also something sensed by both the volunteers with ID and their parents (cf. articles 3 and 4). There were many special opportunities beyond the games, including free concerts and shows, and stands and booths with activities and giveaways, which are not normally part of smaller-scale sports events. Taken together, all these pieces contributed to making the YOG a liminal experience for those who participated. Even though the main reason for participating in the event for several of the actors in article 1 was strongly related to the success of the games in '94, the YOG was a strong experience on its own terms. As for the group of volunteers with ID, they received a lot of attention from the local media and even some from national media, highlighting the value of volunteer work for this particular group. Thus, the leveraging of their project, relying on marketing by the LYOG, can be seen as successful. Moreover, the event was also considered successful by its main stakeholders (Fredheim, 2016; Strittmatter, 2017), who also leveraged their social legacies, especially in terms of the recruitment of new and young volunteers.

As seen particularly in article 1, being part of the success story of the '94 Olympic Games was an important factor in the actors' motives for being part of the LYOG. The experience of the Olympics was so positive and promoted such strong feelings of well-being that the LYOG was seen as an excellent opportunity to be part of the same context once again. Thus, the liminality, i.e., feelings of being part of something great, transcended the event itself and may have

led to a sense of liminality for the LYOG even before this event began. Consequently, the liminality of the games in ’94 made more people want to be involved in the LYOG event, in turn, enabling its organizers to create liminality for their event that was experienced by the volunteers, including those with ID. This group’s teachers had strong and positive memories of the Olympics and worked toward connecting the two events. For instance, all the volunteers referred to the LYOG as “OL,” a Norwegian colloquialism for the Olympic Games. In addition, after the event, the entire class of students with ID worked to create a large poster at school that placed the LYOG in the Olympic context. All the volunteers with ID were highly aware of and conscious about the Olympic dimension of the event, making it an extra-special event to be part of. This shows that, by using the event as social leverage, a win–win effect could be created. Furthermore, by including how actors participating in the event can leverage their issues, the concept of social leverage is further developed.

The use of events as leverage is not exclusive to Olympic events (Taks et al., 2015), which, undeniably, receive more attention than events of a smaller scale. However, how much attention to a cause is needed in order to make a difference? Simply being someone new in an unexpected setting will create attention one way or another, and sometimes, this attention is all that is needed to function as leverage. There are also various degrees of attention, ranging from attention within the local community or the immediate surroundings to national media and even wider attention. For small-scale projects, attention within the local community might arguably be quite valuable.

Volunteering at events offers the potential to meet or even cooperate with people from a wide range of backgrounds and positions, thereby enabling the building of social capital (cf. articles 1 and 3). However, in regard to the group of students with ID, many had physical characteristics that distinguished them from others and made them recognizable as people with ID. This, in itself, led to people paying attention to them. For other groups that want to call attention to their participation, other tactics might be needed in order to avoid simply disappearing in the crowd. The personal benefits of being useful and making new acquaintances are aspects that are independent of attention. To some extent, social leverage relies on letting people know that a certain group is present. However, this depends on the goal of the project. Sometimes, the goal is to erase differences (Roker et al., 1998); thus, blending in is the important part. Other projects might have a goal to empower other people in the same group

by making it clearly visible to all that they can easily take part. Either way, the project leader, or social bricoleur (Zahra et al., 2009), needs to have a conscious stance on this matter. Even more, there is a need to act accordingly, actively using the event one way or another to one's advantage.

## 7.4 Empirical and theoretical contributions of the thesis

The empirical and theoretical contributions of this study are summarized and illustrated in model 2, which has its basis in Figure 2: Model 1, theoretical framework (figure 2). However, in this model, the empirical findings of the articles have been added, and it has been adjusted accordingly. The main function of this model is to provide an overview of the theoretical contributions of the study.

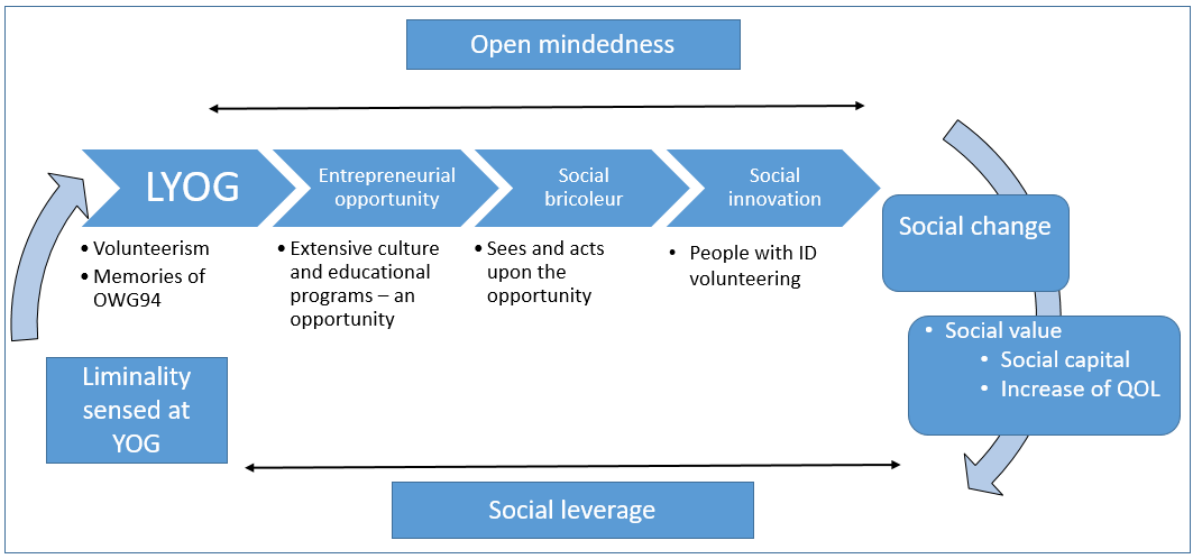


*Figure 4: Model 2, empirical and theoretical contributions*

Several new elements are added to model 2 compared to model 1. Furthermore, this model aims to be more specific by applying the case of people with ID volunteering at the LYOG to illustrate how the different components of the model connect. As noted, several new elements have entered the picture, such as open-mindedness and social leverage as mutual processes (in model 1, both were one-way practices). As discussed, several important circumstances must be present in order for volunteering at an Olympic event to function as a catalyst for social innovation. Thus, compared to model 1, model 2 illustrates more of the necessities of the process while aiming to develop some of the theoretical concepts.

As with model 1, model 2 begins with a major event, in this case, the LYOG. Major events require many volunteers, and people want to volunteer for a variety of reasons, such as a desire to contribute to their community or to improve their resume (Hanstad, 2014). In the case of the LYOG, the event showed social responsibility by emphasizing its mission to recruit a new generation of volunteers, thus sustaining the way Norwegian sports are organized as a voluntary low-cost, low-threshold activity available to all (Lillehammer2016, 2012). In addition, they displayed open-mindedness (top of the model) toward including all kinds of people, including those who are usually not part of the volunteer context (article 1).

One factor that separated the LYOG from other events was that it was situated in the same location as the OWG94. In the case of the LYOG, many of the leaders of social-entrepreneurial projects from article 1 had very strong, positive memories of the 1994 Olympics. Regarding the students with ID, this fact was highlighted for them prior to the event to ensure that they knew the connection between the OWG and the LYOG. Thus, the LYOG was seen as a continuation of that same success story, even by those who were not part of the event in ’94. However, as noted previously, similar feelings can be achieved in other ways in other events, for instance, by experiencing unity and being part of a team that shares one’s personal beliefs and goals through volunteering (Mannino, Snyder, & Omoto, 2011).

Looking at the top of model 2, there is an overarching box for open-mindedness, which is an important factor in the process of social innovation in this particular case. Looking at article 4 of the thesis, one can see that the open-mindedness displayed by the LYOGOC is not necessarily the norm for Norwegian sports events. When the mother of one of the former volunteers approached one of the larger, local sports events to ask if people with ID, or at least her own daughter, could volunteer at the event, she was met with skepticism and hesitation. The event organizers had a perception that their volunteers had to be highly efficient and independent. They also had a preconception that people with ID would not be able to meet their requirements. In the end, the mother of the former volunteer abandoned the idea. Thus, in order for volunteering at a major event to function as a catalyst for social innovation, the event organizers must possess a certain level of open-mindedness and some willingness to take a risk. In turn, this can facilitate the ability of marginalized social groups to participate as volunteers for such events. Furthermore, this attitude of open-mindedness must be mutual as the

social bricoleurs must also be able to think about their target group and its needs in new ways and to consider how their capabilities can be useful to an event.

This open-mindedness can also be seen in relation to what Giddens (1984) described as a structure that enables social entrepreneurs to go forward with their projects. There were several structures connected to the LYOG that both enabled and constricted the process of social innovation. For instance, the project leaders from article 1 experienced heavy bureaucracy in the registration process of the volunteers, difficulties in bringing assistants, and unnecessary constraints in relation to the wearing of accreditation cards (as seen in articles 1 and 3). These are experiences that can be seen as restricting Olympic event volunteering as a social system. Olympic events separate themselves from other such events by having their own social practices that are reproduced from event to event, thereby, making them recognizable as Olympic events (Giddens, 1984). These practices, which include accreditations; security measures; the presence of celebrities, politicians, and royalty; and marketing and branding, establish Olympic events as a social system. While there are certain restrictions within the system, there are also several possibilities that enable actions of those within the system. In the Olympic event in this particular case, the open-mindedness of the organizers combined with rich cultural and educational programs were enabling structures that made an entrepreneurial opportunity possible. Furthermore, according to the project leaders in articles 1 and 3, the possibilities and positive outcomes outweighed the constraints experienced.

The next step of the model is the entry of the social bricoleur. Social bricoleurs are in charge of projects that address social needs of specific and local groups that are currently unmet. Furthermore, these projects are often on a small scale, and they often depend heavily on the tacit knowledge of the project leaders (Zahra et al., 2009). A sports event, in this case the LYOG, can be acted upon as an entrepreneurial opportunity (article 1) by a social bricoleur. This was achieved through a new kind of collaboration, including an idea that met a social need (Moulaert et al., 2013) or, in other words, by implementing a social innovation (the next box in model 2), in this case, volunteering performed by a group of people with ID (as seen in articles 3 and 4). However, there were several other groups with similar goals present at the event (as seen in article 1). Thus, hypothetically, the target group could be anyone who could be defined as a social group with needs currently not being adequately met.

As seen in articles 3 and 4, volunteering at the LYOG led to social change (top box on the far right of the model) for many of the volunteers with ID, such as employment, increase of bonding social capital within the group, and, for most of the volunteers with ID, a sense of increased quality of life. In this case, the project was targeted at a small group of people, thus having a small impact. However, this study demonstrates a potential that can be further developed. By engaging in projects like the volunteer project for students with ID, sports events can contribute to work that aims to address social inequality, oppression, or stereotypes (Shier & Handy, 2015). Social change can come in many dimensions and on many levels. In this particular study, social change was explored in terms of social value operationalized as a positive change in social capital and QOL. However, other outcomes could have been studied as well, such as increased self-esteem, self-perception, empowerment, or social inclusion.

Events can make themselves available for participation by a wider range of people as part of a social-leverage strategy (bottom of model 2) (Chalip, 2014). This presumes that the sense of open-mindedness is somehow communicated publicly to make it clear to all that the event is open to them as well. In turn, this can enable actors who are either actively or passively searching for entrepreneurial opportunities (Baron, 2006) to discover an event as a potential arena for initiating and/or implementing a project (as seen in article 1). As all major events require many volunteers, volunteering often provides an entry into the event, with a potential for creating win–win effects. Thus, if social bricoleurs are to use volunteering to create social value, they need events for which to volunteer. Event managers can also achieve positive outcomes as social leveraging can make an event appear valuable and useful to the local host community (Chalip, 2014).

In model 1, social leverage was seen as a one-way process from an event-organizer's perspectives – as a strategy applicable by major sports events to appear valuable to the community. However, this thesis aims to develop this concept to show that this can be a mutual process. As seen in model 2, social leverage is indicated by a two-way arrow at the bottom. This illustrates that it is possible for social bricoleurs to use an event as social leverage for their projects as well, particularly by taking advantage of the attention that an event can create both in the media and in the local community. Thus, while this concept is usually studied from an event-organizer's perspective, leverage can go both ways. However, in order for social bricoleurs to

achieve this mutual effect, they also need to act like sports entrepreneurs, specifically, by displaying open-mindedness (similar to the organizers of the sports event) while showing a willingness to take a risk and, at the same time, foreseeing potential positive outcomes for their respective target group (Ratten, 2011a).

As seen previously, liminality (in model 2, the box below LYOG) plays an important role in the social leveraging of events (Chalip, 2014). In the case of this thesis, the liminality, or feelings of being a part of something greater than oneself (Chalip, 2006), in addition to the Olympic aspect of the event, was important in order for volunteering to be seen as a social innovation. By volunteering at an Olympic event, work toward social change was initiated, such as increased inclusion and normality of a group on the outside of volunteering as a social context. However, an event does not need to be of an Olympic scale in order to function this way (Taks et al., 2015). The Olympic aspect can be balanced through volunteering for a cause in which the volunteers experience personal commitment. Arguably, social value can be created at smaller-scale events by allowing for meeting points with other people with other positions, backgrounds, and interests.

For the volunteers with ID, the cause they were volunteering for played a minor role. However, this is not necessarily the case for volunteers without ID, who often have different motives for volunteering (Hanstad, 2014). For volunteers without ID, the importance of the cause for which they volunteer can create effects similar to the liminality of an Olympic event, in particular, by experiencing unity and fellowship. This sense of unity can be vital for the initiation and implementation of a social innovation. Liminality or similar feelings can make people want to be part of an event (Chalip, 2006), but it can also work the other way, so that liminality is sensed by people being a part of something and, thus, they participate in creating it. In turn, this sense of being a part of something that transcends themselves and the event can be used as a driving force for social change.

Different groups can be included in an Olympic event, and they can achieve positive effects by doing so, in particular, by using the event as social leverage to shine a light on important social issues. Furthermore, an event's social value might be known in the local community, making the event appear valuable and significant. In turn, this can be central for an event to create liminality (indicated by the box at the bottom left in model 2 – "Liminality sensed at YOG") by

showing that their event is open to all in the community. This relies on both social bricoleurs and event organizers being able to call attention to themselves. Considering the LYOG, this is something that can be achieved. The LYOG was considered a success (Fredheim, 2016), and the volunteer project for people with ID raised attention in both local and national media, as did several other social-entrepreneurial projects that were part of the event. Moreover, events can achieve liminality (or similar feelings) and become relevant to a wider circle of people by allowing those who normally do not participate in this context to volunteer. Some events appear as something one "just has to be a part of," like the LYOG, while others may have to work harder to manage this. Still, this thesis demonstrates that it is possible for volunteering at a major sports event to function as a catalyst for social innovation.

# 8 CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this thesis, we have seen one way that volunteering at an Olympic event can function as a catalyst for social innovation for people with intellectual disabilities. I have shown how volunteering, made possible by the cooperation between a local high school and the event's organizing committee, created an entry into an Olympic event for a group of students with ID. However, what makes this case special is that volunteering for the LYOG held the potential to create valuable social outcomes for the volunteers in return. Volunteering is known to have several benefits for those who engage in it. However, for people with ID, it is one way to promote their inclusion or empowerment and to challenge societal stereotypes and preconceptions about them and about their capabilities.

Volunteering at an Olympic event has a potential for cooperation between unusual organizations and for opportunities where a win–win effect can be created. Social leverage can be applied by event organizers by maintaining a sense of open-mindedness about new groups in society taking part in their event. By seeking and enabling new kinds of cooperation and targeting different groups with needs that are not currently being met, sports events can leverage important issues while contributing to a process of social innovation. By leveraging social issues related to the inclusion of people with ID in new social contexts while facilitating this group's participation as volunteers, volunteering at major sports events can function as a catalyst for social innovation. For volunteering at an Olympic event to function in this manner, a person in charge was needed to work on behalf of the group of volunteers with ID. This person knew the members of the group well in addition to knowing how to work with the opportunity that was available.

Given certain circumstances, social entrepreneurs can use an Olympic event as an arena for their work and can create social value for specific target groups on both a short- and long-term basis. The liminality of the event can play an important role in the creation of social value, bringing together people who have little in common and providing an opportunity to create bridging and bonding social capital. This social capital can, in turn, directly affect the experienced sense of quality of life. Overall, this thesis suggests that liminality is applicable to non-

mega-events. However, it is possible that the liminality and success of the previous Olympic Games were so strong that the new Olympic event was bound to succeed in such terms.

By volunteering at an Olympic event, the group of students with ID gained access to a special identity while being part of a greater community. They got to experience what it felt like to have others rely on them, to be of use, and to challenge the image of this particular group as needing help but not able to give help. These were made possible largely through the cooperation of the local high school and the organizing committee for the event. Volunteering at the event created social value for the group, a sense that lasted beyond the event's actual time frame. Furthermore, the group gained unique experiences and memories that were still present in their everyday lives two years after the event. However, for volunteering to function in this manner, there had to be a job that needed to be done and an open-minded organizing committee. In addition, a person acting in a social-entrepreneurial manner was needed to first sense and then seize the opportunity to create social value for a specific target group. Volunteering at the event had a higher purpose beyond simply being of use to the event's organizers. The social entrepreneur, or bricoleur, more or less consciously aimed for positive social change for a particular group.

Another way of seeing this is that Olympic-event volunteering can function as a catalyst for social innovation for people with ID; for this particular group, volunteering at the event can be seen as a social innovation in itself. This thesis has explored the preconditions needed for this kind of volunteering to be considered a social innovation. Furthermore, the circumstances of the event, in particular the Olympic dimension, and how these aspects have aided a process of social innovation have been investigated. In addition, the outcomes of the social innovation – the social value for the group – have been discussed.

Empirically, this thesis contributes to the field of sports-event volunteerism by adding to the body of knowledge about how people with ID can benefit from volunteer activities. Theoretically, this thesis seeks to contribute to the operationalization of social innovation and, through the articles, to the notion of social value. This was accomplished, especially, by strengthening the links between social value, social capital, and quality of life. In addition, the framework of social leverage is further developed by demonstrating how leveraging can be applied mutually

by event organizers and managers of social-entrepreneurial projects. Finally, this thesis contributes to the study of people with ID by showing how qualitative interviews can be facilitated in order to meet the challenges of this method when applied to this group.

## 8.1 Implications for future studies

The subject of how literature about innovation can add to the sociological study of sports is one in need of exploration, as pointed out by Tjønndal (2018b). In addition, more empirical research of a qualitative nature is needed in order to strengthen the perspective of social entrepreneurship in a sports context (Bjärsholm, 2017). Although the present thesis contributes to this field of research, additional studies are required to further explore the role of sports in a social-entrepreneurial framework.

Moreover, there is scant literature relating to the social value of non-megasports events (Chalip, 2006) and how they can affect marginalized groups in the local community that hosts these kinds of events. As seen in this thesis, many of the benefits achieved through volunteering at the LYOG could relate to the Olympic dimension of the event. Yet, looking at volunteering for local events of a much smaller scale might also have potential for people with ID; this would make an interesting starting point for future research. Another vantage point would be to follow similar projects directed toward the inclusion of other groups who normally do not volunteer in the context of other kinds of events. Olympic events do not happen often; thus, there are potential benefits to be gained by considering other events.

In the end, it is important to further explore how groups that are normally seen to contribute little to society can, in fact, provide assistance and be useful and helpful in different contexts. In doing so, we can learn more about the potential benefits that volunteering holds for promoting the social inclusion of all members of the society. Researchers who tell these stories will contribute to raising awareness of this potential and adding to an important body of knowledge.

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*Appendix 1: Guide for interview with head of volunteers (article 1)*

**Introduksjon**

- Fortelle litt om meg selv og studiet
- Informere om informert samtykke og frivillig deltagelse
- Kan du si litt om deg selv?

**Tema: Sosialt entreprenørskap**

- Hvordan kom samarbeidet med NAV på plass?
    - Hvem initierte?
- Hvordan vil du vurdere samarbeidet?
    - Kontakten inn mot NAV?
- Hvilke forventninger hadde du/dere til samarbeidet?
- Hvordan ble samarbeidet i forhold til de forventningene?
- Kom det noe konkret ut av samarbeidet som du vil/kan trekke frem?
- Vet du om det er blitt gjort noe lignende før? Altså at et idrettsarrangement samarbeider med NAV?

*Appendix 1: Guide for interview with head of volunteers (article 1)*

**Tema: frivillighet**

- Har samarbeidet med NAV hatt noe å si for frivilligheten? Hvorfor/ikke?
- Vet du om det har vært noen frivillige som har blitt rekruttert fra NAV?
    - Hva kunne vært gjort annerledes?
    - Hva ønsket dere å oppnå med å rekruttere frivillige fra NAV?
    - Har du noen tanker om hva som må til for at andre arrangement kan følge samme modell?
- Kan du beskrive en «typisk» frivillig under LYOG?
- På dette arrangementet ser jeg jo flere grupper såkalt utradisjonelle frivillige, dere samarbeider med Tyrili, Mesna (nå vargstad) og NAV. Hvilke tanker ligger bak det å bruke slike grupper frivillige?
- Har du noen tanker om hva arbeidsledige, tidligere narkomane og mennesker med PU tilføye et slikt arrangement?
    - Hva tenker du arrangementet kan gjøre for disse gruppene?
- Kan du si litt om denne frivillighetskrisa?
    - Var det en reell krise?
    - Hvordan ble den løst?
- Var det en overordnet «filosofi»/ideologi/visjon som lå bak rekrutteringen og bruken av frivillige?
    - Hvor kom dette fra? IOC, NIF, etc.

*Appendix 2, interview guide for project-leaders (article 1)*

**Introduksjon**

- Fortelle litt om meg selv og studiet
- Informere om informert samtykke og frivillig deltagelse
- Kan du si litt om deg selv?
- Kan du si litt om det dere som organisasjon/stiftelse jobber med?

**Tema: Sosialt entreprenørskap**

- Hvordan kom samarbeidet med ungdoms-OL på plass?
- Hva lå i selve samarbeidet, hva var ideen?
    - Hvordan ble samarbeidet i praksis?
- Hvor lå eller ligger «eierskapet» til prosjektet?
- Hvordan kom dere på at dere skulle bruke Ungdoms-OL som en arena?
- Var det noe spesifikt med Ungdoms-OL som vakte interesse?
- Hvem hadde ideen?
- Hvem tok første kontakt?
- Hvordan opplevde du første kontakt?
    - Kronglete?
    - Positiv?
- Hvordan opplevde du kontakten med Ungdoms-OL i tiden etterpå, frem til arrangementet?
- Hvordan opplevde du kontakten med Ungdoms-OL underveis i arrangementet?
- Har det vært noe kontakt med LYOG etter endt arrangement?

- Hva tenkte dere var det viktigste dere kunne få ut av å være med?

    - Særlig sett fra målgruppens side?
- Hva var det viktigste dere og deres målgruppe faktisk fikk ut av å være med på Ungdoms-OL?
- Hvordan går det med målgruppa nå, etter endt arrangement?

*Appendix 2, interview guide for project-leaders (article 1)*

- Gjorde dere noe nytt for deres målgruppe under Ungdoms-OL? Nytt i forhold til den måten dere vanligvis jobber…
- Har du noen eksempler på uforutsette ting som skjedde under arrangementet, være seg positive eller negative?
    - Hvordan opplevde dere det, og hvordan ble det eventuelt løst?
- Var det noe som var utfordrende eller vanskelig ved å bruke ungdoms-OL som arena for deres arbeid?
- Var det noe som gjorde ungdoms-OL spesielt egnet for dere?
- Var det noe du anså som en risiko ved å bruke Ungdoms-OL? Var det et worst-case scenario?
- Hadde deltagelsen i Ungdoms-OL et økonomisk aspekt ved seg?
- Er det aktuelt å bruke andre arrangement på samme måte?

**Tema: Frivillighet**

- Hvordan var møtet med andre frivillige?
- Hvordan opplevde du at «din gruppe» passet inn i forhold til «de andre»?
- Vil du definere det dere gjorde under Ungdoms-OL som frivillig arbeid?
    - Hvordan?
- Hva tror du målgruppa deres fikk ut av å være frivillige? Eventuelt kunne ha fått ut av å være frivillig?

*Appendix 3, guide for interview with students with ID, prior to the event (article 3)*

**Introduksjon**

- Fortelle litt om meg selv og studiet
- Informere om informert samtykke og frivillig deltagelse
- Kan du si litt om deg selv?

**Tema: Sosialt entreprenørskap**

- Hvordan fant du ut at du skulle melde deg som frivillig?
- Hvordan var prosessen?
- Hvordan opplever du kontakten inn mot Ungdoms-OL? (mtp. Informasjonsflyt)
- Var det noe spesifikt Ungdoms-OL gjorde eller ikke gjorde som ga deg lyst til å være frivillig?
- På hvilken måte har Ungdoms-OL på Lillehammer medført en forandring for deg frem til nå?
- Hvordan ser du for deg at Ungdoms-OL kan utgjøre en forskjell for deg?

**Tema: Frivillighet**

- Er du, eller har du vært aktiv i organisert idrett?
    - Hvorfor/ikke?
    - Frivillige verv som trener, lagleder, styremedlem etc.?
- Hva ønsker du å få ut av din frivillige innsats?
- Hvorfor ville du være frivillig for akkurat Ungdoms-OL?
- Hvorfor vil du være frivillig?
- Får du noe konkret igjen for å være frivillig? (Uniform, penger, etc.)

*Appendix 3, guide for interview with students with ID, prior to the event (article 3)*

- Opplever du at du får noe igjen for å være frivillig så langt?
- Har du vært frivillig på større eller mindre arrangement før? Hvis ja, hvilke
- Kan du si litt om det er noe spesielt du føler du kan bidra med som frivillig? Har du noen nøkkelkvalifikasjoner du ønsker å trekke frem?
- Hvilke forventninger har du til det å være frivillig for Ungdoms-OL?
- Hva ønsker du å oppnå ved å være frivillig?
    - Er det noe spesifikt du ønsker du å lære, sitte igjen med av kunnskap etter endt arrangement?
- Hvordan ser du på det å være frivillig i fremtiden, altså etter selve arrangementet?
- På hvilken måte tror du Ungdoms-OL kan bidra til å styrke din kompetanse for eventuell fremtidig frivillig innsats?

*Appendix 4, guide for interviews with teacher, prior to the event (article 3)*

**Introduksjon**

- Fortelle litt om meg selv og studiet
- Informere om informert samtykke og frivillig deltagelse
- Kan du si litt om deg selv?

**Tema: Sosialt entreprenørskap**

- Hva gjorde at dere valgte å melde dere som frivillige?
- Hvordan var prosessen? Hvem startet det hele, og hvordan har veien vært fram til i dag?
- Hvordan ble dere mottatt av Ungdoms-OL?
- Hvordan ble dette mottatt i klassen?
- Hvordan opplever du kontakten inn mot Ungdoms-OL? (mtp. Informasjonsflyt)
- Var det noe spesifikt Ungdoms-OL gjorde eller ikke gjorde som ga dere lyst til å være frivillige?
- På hvilken måte har Ungdoms-OL på Lillehammer medført en forandring for gruppa deres frem til nå?
- Hvordan ser du for deg at Ungdoms-OL kan utgjøre en forskjell for dere?

**Tema: Frivillighet**

- Er du, eller har du vært aktiv i organisert idrett?
    - Frivillige verv som trener, lagleder, styremedlem etc.?
- Hva ønsker du å oppnå med deres frivillige innsats?
- Hvorfor ville du være frivillig for akkurat Ungdoms-OL?

*Appendix 4, guide for interviews with teacher, prior to the event (article 3)*

- Får dere noe konkret igjen for å være frivillig? (Uniform, penger, etc.)
- Kan du si litt om det er noe spesielt du føler dere kan bidra med som frivillige? Har dere noen nøkkelkvalifikasjoner du ønsker å trekke frem?
- Hvilke forventninger har du til det å være frivillig for Ungdoms-OL?
    - Er det noe spesifikt du ønsker å lære, sitte igjen med av kunnskap etter endt arrangement?
- Hvordan ser du på det å være frivillig i fremtiden, altså etter selve arrangementet?

*Appendix 5, guide for interviews with former volunteers with ID, two years after the event (article 4)*

**Intervjuguide - oppfølgingsstudiet**

Vi begynner med å se på bilder, eventuelt videosnutt fra NRK:

https://tv.nrk.no/serie/distriktsnyheter-oestnytt/201602/DKOP99021916/avspiller

Tema 1: frivillighet

- Husker du at du var med på Ungdoms-OL?
    - Hva husker du?
- Kan du si litt om hva Ungdoms-OL var? Hva gjorde de som var med der?
- Hvem andre var med?
- Hva gjorde dere?
- Husker du hvorfor dere gjorde det?
- Det å være frivillig, hva det er, og har du gjort noe lignende siden da?
    - Hvorfor/ikke?
- Hva gjør du nå? (jobb, skole, etc.)
- Bruker du fortsatt klærne du fikk?
    - Hvorfor/ikke?
- Var det noe som var vanskelig å gjøre på Ungdoms-OL?
- Var det noe som var kjempelett?

- Var det noe du likte å gjøre?

*Appendix 5, guide for interviews with former volunteers with ID, two years after the event (article 4)*

- Var det noe du ikke likte å gjøre?

Tema 2: Sosial kapital

- Ble du kjent med noen på ungdoms-OL?
    - Hvem og hvordan
- Kontakt med noen nå? Hva med de i klassen?
- Hender det at du ser noen som bruker Ungdoms-OL-klær?
    - Hva tenker du da?
- Hvem snakket du mest med under Ungdoms-OL?
- Husker du hva dere snakket om?
- Snakker du med han/hun nå?
    - Om hva?

Tema 1: Livskvalitet

- Kan du si tre ting som var moro med ungdoms-OL?
- Kan du si tre ting som ikke var så moro?
- Er det noe som er annerledes etter å ha vært med på Ungdoms-OL?
- Snakker du om Ungdoms-OL? Når snakker du om det?

*Appendix 5, guide for interviews with former volunteers with ID, two years after the event (article 4)*

- Tenker du på Ungdoms-OL? Når tenker du på det?
- Hva husker du best?
- Ville du vært frivillig igjen om et nytt Ungdoms-OL skulle blitt arrangert? Hvor-for/ikke?

*Appendix 6, pictures used in interviews, two years after the event (article 4)*

a)


b)

c)

*Appendix 6, pictures used in interviews, two years after the event (article 4)*

d) 

e) 

*Appendix 7, approval from NSD*

**Norsk samfunnsvitenskapelig datatjeneste AS**
NORWEGIAN SOCIAL SCIENCE DATA SERVICES

Roald Undlien
Avdeling for økonomi og organisasjonsvitenskap Høgskolen i Lillehammer
Postboks 952
2624 LILLEHAMMER

NSD
[illegible]
Norway
[illegible]

Vår dato: 23.12.2015 Vår ref: 45701 / 3 / MHM Deres dato: Deres ref:

TILBAKEMELDING PÅ MELDING OM BEHANDLING AV PERSONOPPLYSNINGER

Vi viser til melding om behandling av personopplysninger, mottatt 17.11.2015. Meldingen gjelder prosjektet:

| | |
|---|---|
| *45701* | *Sosialt entreprenørskap, frivillighet og Ungdoms-OL* |
| *Behandlingsansvarlig* | *Høgskolen i Lillehammer, ved institusjonens øverste leder* |
| *Daglig ansvarlig* | *Roald Undlien* |

Personvernombudet har vurdert prosjektet, og finner at behandlingen av personopplysninger vil være regulert av § 7-27 i personopplysningsforskriften. Personvernombudet tilrår at prosjektet gjennomføres.

Personvernombudets tilråding forutsetter at prosjektet gjennomføres i tråd med opplysningene gitt i meldeskjemaet, korrespondanse med ombudet, ombudets kommentarer samt personopplysningsloven og helseregisterloven med forskrifter. Behandlingen av personopplysninger kan settes i gang.

Det gjøres oppmerksom på at det skal gis ny melding dersom behandlingen endres i forhold til de opplysninger som ligger til grunn for personvernombudets vurdering. Endringsmeldinger gis via et eget skjema, http://www.nsd.uib.no/personvern/meldeplikt/skjema.html. Det skal også gis melding etter tre år dersom prosjektet fortsatt pågår. Meldinger skal skje skriftlig til ombudet.

Personvernombudet har lagt ut opplysninger om prosjektet i en offentlig database, http://pvo.nsd.no/prosjekt.

Personvernombudet vil ved prosjektets avslutning, 05.11.2018, rette en henvendelse angående status for behandlingen av personopplysninger.

Vennlig hilsen

Katrine Utaaker Segadal

Marianne Høgetveit Myhren

Kontaktperson: Marianne Høgetveit Myhren tlf: 55 58 25 29
Vedlegg: Prosjektvurdering

*Dokumentet er elektronisk produsert og godkjent ved NSDs rutiner for elektronisk godkjenning.*

[illegible]

*Appendix 7, approval from NSD*

**Norsk samfunnsvitenskapelig datatjeneste AS**
NORWEGIAN SOCIAL SCIENCE DATA SERVICES

Roald Undlien
Avdeling for økonomi og organisasjonsvitenskap Høgskolen i Lillehammer
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www.nsd.uib.no
Org.nr: 985 321 884

Vår dato: 12.01.2016 Vår ref: 45921 / 3 / MSI Deres dato: Deres ref:

TILBAKEMELDING PÅ MELDING OM BEHANDLING AV PERSONOPPLYSNINGER

Vi viser til melding om behandling av personopplysninger, mottatt 01.12.2015. Meldingen gjelder prosjektet:

| | |
|---|---|
| *45921* | *Ungdoms-OL, funksjonshemming, sosialt entreprenørskap og frivillighet* |
| *Behandlingsansvarlig* | *Høgskolen i Lillehammer, ved institusjonens øverste leder* |
| *Daglig ansvarlig* | *Roald Undlien* |

Personvernombudet har vurdert prosjektet, og finner at behandlingen av personopplysninger vil være regulert av § 7-27 i personopplysningsforskriften. Personvernombudet tilrår at prosjektet gjennomføres.

Personvernombudets tilråding forutsetter at prosjektet gjennomføres i tråd med opplysningene gitt i meldeskjemaet, korrespondanse med ombudet, ombudets kommentarer samt personopplysningsloven og helseregisterloven med forskrifter. Behandlingen av personopplysninger kan settes i gang.

Det gjøres oppmerksom på at det skal gis ny melding dersom behandlingen endres i forhold til de opplysninger som ligger til grunn for personvernombudets vurdering. Endringsmeldinger gis via et eget skjema, http://www.nsd.uib.no/personvern/meldeplikt/skjema.html. Det skal også gis melding etter tre år dersom prosjektet fortsatt pågår. Meldinger skal skje skriftlig til ombudet.

Personvernombudet har lagt ut opplysninger om prosjektet i en offentlig database, http://pvo.nsd.no/prosjekt.

Personvernombudet vil ved prosjektets avslutning, 31.12.2018, rette en henvendelse angående status for behandlingen av personopplysninger.

Vennlig hilsen

Vigdis Namtvedt Kvalheim

Marte Byrkjeland

Kontaktperson: Marte Byrkjeland tlf: 55 58 36 01
Vedlegg: Prosjektvurdering

*Dokumentet er elektronisk produsert og godkjent ved NSDs rutiner for elektronisk godkjenning.*

Avdelingskontorer / District Offices:
OSLO: NSD, Universitetet i Oslo, Postboks 1055 Blindern, 0316 Oslo, Tel: +47 22 85 52 11, nsd@uio.no
TRONDHEIM: NSD, Norges teknisk-naturvitenskapelige universitet, 7491 Trondheim, Tel: +47 73 59 19 07, kyrre.svarva@svt.ntnu.no
TROMSØ: NSD, SVF, Universitetet i Tromsø, 9037 Tromsø, Tel: +47 77 64 43 36, nsdmaa@sv.uit.no

*Appendix 7, approval from NSD*

Roald Undlien
Avdeling for økonomi og organisasjonsvitenskap Høgskolen i Lillehammer
Postboks 952
2624 LILLEHAMMER

Vår dato: 28.04.2016 Vår ref: 47827 / 3 / ASF Deres dato: Deres ref:

TILBAKEMELDING PÅ MELDING OM BEHANDLING AV PERSONOPPLYSNINGER

Vi viser til melding om behandling av personopplysninger, mottatt 07.03.2016. Meldingen gjelder prosjektet:

| | |
|---|---|
| *47827* | *Ungdoms-OL, sosialt entreprenørskap og utradisjonelle frivillige* |
| *Behandlingsansvarlig* | *Høgskolen i Lillehammer, ved institusjonens øverste leder* |
| *Daglig ansvarlig* | *Roald Undlien* |

Personvernombudet har vurdert prosjektet, og finner at behandlingen av personopplysninger vil være regulert av § 7-27 i personopplysningsforskriften. Personvernombudet tilrår at prosjektet gjennomføres.

Personvernombudets tilråding forutsetter at prosjektet gjennomføres i tråd med opplysningene gitt i meldeskjemaet, korrespondanse med ombudet, ombudets kommentarer samt personopplysningsloven og helseregisterloven med forskrifter. Behandlingen av personopplysninger kan settes i gang.

Det gjøres oppmerksom på at det skal gis ny melding dersom behandlingen endres i forhold til de opplysninger som ligger til grunn for personvernombudets vurdering. Endringsmeldinger gis via et eget skjema, http://www.nsd.uib.no/personvern/meldeplikt/skjema.html. Det skal også gis melding etter tre år dersom prosjektet fortsatt pågår. Meldinger skal skje skriftlig til ombudet.

Personvernombudet har lagt ut opplysninger om prosjektet i en offentlig database, http://pvo.nsd.no/prosjekt.

Personvernombudet vil ved prosjektets avslutning, 30.04.2018, rette en henvendelse angående status for behandlingen av personopplysninger.

Vennlig hilsen

Kjersti Haugstvedt

Amalie Statland Fantoft

Kontaktperson: Amalie Statland Fantoft tlf: 55 58 36 41
Vedlegg: Prosjektvurdering

*Dokumentet er elektronisk produsert og godkjent ved NSDs rutiner for elektronisk godkjenning.*

*Appendix 7, approval from NSD*

**Vurdering (2)**

**03.07.2019 - Vurdert**

Vi viser til endring registrert 01.07.2019.

Basert på telefonsamtale mellom innmelder og NSD 03.07.2019 er følgende oppklart:

- Det skal ikke foretas ny datainnsamling på nåværende tidspunkt. Dette gjelder også intervjuet som er oppgitt som datakilde på siden "Utvalg 2" i meldeskjemaet.
- Utvalg 2 har av innmelder blitt registrert i meldeskjema som en følge av at de var til stede under intervjuet av Utvalg 1, hvilket er barna til Utvalg 2. Dette som bistand dersom det oppstod behov for forståelse av informasjonen gitt av Utvalg 1, samt for å utfylle eventuelle mangelfulle/uklare opplysninger.
- I informasjonsskrivet som ble gitt før intervjuet fremgikk det deriblant at det var ønskelig at Utvalg 2 var til stede for dette formål. Både Utvalg 1 og Utvalg 2 mottok dette informasjonsskrivet.
- Det er NSD sin forståelse at Utvalg 2 da også samtykket til egen deltakelse i prosjektet, da de også samtykket på vegne av Utvalg 1 (barna).

Basert på det overnevnte kan vi ikke se at det er gjort noen oppdateringer i meldeskjemaet eller vedlegg som har innvirkning på NSD sin vurdering av hvordan personopplysninger behandles i prosjektet.

OPPFØLGING AV PROSJEKTET
NSD vil følge opp ved planlagt avslutning for å avklare om behandlingen av personopplysningene er avsluttet.

Lykke til videre med prosjektet!
Tlf. Personverntjenester: 55 58 21 17 (tast 1)

**16.10.2018 - Vurdert**

Det er vår vurdering at behandlingen vil være i samsvar med personvernlovgivningen, så fremt den gjennomføres i tråd med det som er dokumentert i meldeskjemaet 16.10.2018 med vedlegg, samt i meldingsdialogen mellom innmelder og NSD. Behandlingen kan starte.

MELD ENDRINGER
Dersom behandlingen av personopplysninger endrer seg, kan det være nødvendig å melde dette til NSD ved å oppdatere meldeskjemaet. På våre nettsider informerer vi om hvilke endringer som må meldes. Vent på svar før endringen gjennomføres.

TYPE OPPLYSNINGER OG VARIGHET
Prosjektet vil behandle særlige kategorier om helseforhold og alminnelige personopplysninger frem til 30.11.2019.

LOVLIG GRUNNLAG
Prosjektet vil innhente samtykke fra de registrerte til behandlingen av personopplysninger. Vår vurdering er at prosjektet legger opp til et samtykke i samsvar med kravene i art. 4 nr. 11 og art. 7, ved at det er en frivillig, spesifikk, informert og utvetydig bekreftelse, som kan dokumenteres, og som den registrerte kan trekke tilbake.

Lovlig grunnlag for behandlingen vil dermed være den registrertes uttrykkelige samtykke, jf. personvernforordningen art. 6 nr. 1 a), jf. art. 9 nr. 2 bokstav a, jf. personopplysningsloven § 10, jf. § 9 (2).

PERSONVERNPRINSIPPER
NSD finner at den planlagte behandlingen av personopplysninger vil følge prinsippene i personvernforordningen:
- om lovlighet, rettferdighet og åpenhet (art. 5.1 a), ved at de registrerte får tilfredsstillende informasjon om og samtykker til behandlingen
- formålsbegrensning (art. 5.1 b), ved at personopplysninger samles inn for spesifikke, uttrykkelig angitte og berettigede formål, og ikke viderebehandles til nye uforenlige formål
- dataminimering (art. 5.1 c), ved at det kun behandles opplysninger som er adekvate, relevante og nødvendige for formålet med prosjektet
- lagringsbegrensning (art. 5.1 e), ved at personopplysningene ikke lagres lengre enn nødvendig for å oppfylle formålet

DE REGISTRERTES RETTIGHETER
De registrerte vil ha følgende rettigheter så lenge de kan identifiseres i datamaterialet: åpenhet (art. 12), informasjon (art. 13), innsyn (art. 15), retting (art. 16), sletting (art. 17), begrensning (art. 18), underretning (art. 19), dataportabilitet (art. 20).

NSD vurderer at informasjonen som de registrerte vil motta oppfyller lovens krav til form og innhold, jf. art. 12.1 og art. 13. Vi minner om at hvis en registrert tar kontakt om sine rettigheter, har behandlingsansvarlig institusjon plikt til å svare innen en måned.

FØLG DIN INSTITUSJONS RETNINGSLINJER
NSD legger til grunn at behandlingen oppfyller kravene i personvernforordningen om riktighet (art. 5.1 d), integritet og konfidensialitet (art. 5.1. f) og sikkerhet (art. 32)

For å forsikre dere om at kravene oppfylles, må prosjektansvarlig følge interne retningslinjer/rådføre dere med behandlingsansvarlig institusjon.

OPPFØLGING AV PROSJEKTET
NSD vil følge opp ved planlagt avslutning for å avklare om behandlingen av personopplysningene er avsluttet.

Lykke til med prosjektet!

Kontaktperson hos NSD: Belinda Gloppen Helle
Tlf. Personverntjenester: 55 58 21 17 (tast 1)

# 10 DISSERTATION ARTICLES

**1: Article 1**

Undlien, R. (2017) The Youth Olympic Games as an opportunity for sports entrepreneur-ship, *International Journal of Sport Management and Marketing, 17(4-6),* 283–307.

**(This article has been removed from the digital thesis due to lack of permission from the publisher. It can be read in *International Journal of Sport Management and Marketing,* DOI: https://doi.org/10.1504/IJSMM.2017.087438, or in the printed version of this thesis.)**

**2: Article 2**

Undlien, R. (2019). Facilitating qualitative interviews with people with intellectual disabilities. *Submitted to Nordic Journal of Social Research*.

# Facilitating qualitative interviews with people with intellectual disabilities

Abstract

At the present time, qualitative research with people with intellectual disabilities (ID) includes several different approaches. Arguably, some emphasis should still be made on qualitative interviews. However, interviews may need to be facilitated in order to conduct studies with the potential for providing rich data. A multiple case study was conducted in this study, using four different studies with qualitative interviews as the main method as cases. The cases were analyzed through a systematic text condensation. Main findings include several ways in which qualitative interviews may be facilitated in order to better communicate with persons with ID. One way to facilitate interviews to increase understanding is to carefully choose the environment for the interview, and to do something together related to the subject studied. Moreover, interviewing unrelated people who still know the interviewee well might be valuable. In addition, addressing the power relation in the interview can be of importance. One way to do so is to allow the person with ID to bring a parent to the interview, but leaving the interviewee with ID in charge of the situation. The parent can aid in the communication and help in prompting memories. To achieve this, the role of the parent should be established at the start of the interview by the interviewer. Communicating well with people with ID is important, independent of the chosen method. More knowledge on how to facilitate qualitative interviews may aid in this matter. It is not as if these approaches are exclusive to doing research with people with ID, but it can be valuable to learn about challenges that might occur and how to deal with them.

## Introduction

Interviews are known to be close to the heart of qualitative research (Nind, 2008). Still, people with intellectual disabilities (ID) are less likely to be included in conventional research, as researchers who are not familiar with disability research may be unable or unwilling to include these respondents (Aldridge, 2007). There is also a growing trend to apply different types of participatory and visual research approaches when conducting qualitative research with people with ID, such as photo/voice (Aldridge, 2007; Povee, Bishop, & Roberts, 2014), video, movement and drama (Lewis & Porter, 2004), or arts-based methodology (Bagnoli, 2009). Other research designs, where people with ID participate as co-researchers, are also gaining momentum (Aldridge, 2016; Strnadová & Walmsley, 2018). Thus, qualitative methods play an important role in informing us about the lives and experiences of people with intellectual disabilities (ID) (Beail & Williams, 2014). Independent of the chosen approach to qualitative research, communication is an important component. Finding means in which persons with ID and researchers can better understand each other is essential. Whether through photo interviews, arts-based methodology, or alongside people with ID as co-researchers, the key component is communication, particularly so in the traditional qualitative interview. Thus, as argued by Sigstad and Garrels (2018), the researcher needs to facilitate interviews. Similarly, Ellingsen (2010) argues that rather than focusing on the potential challenges that people with ID might have, one should instead focus on the researcher.

According to Kvale and Brinkmann (2009), interviews provide a fruitful method in studies aiming to understand someone's experiences and perceptions of the world. However, people with ID often have difficulties understanding complex questions (Ellingsen, 2010). Drawing upon previous experiences in using different approaches to qualitative interviews, I would like to present ways in which interviews may be adapted by the researcher, and show how these facilitations may aid in adding richness to data. This is not something exclusive to persons with ID, but applicable to all situations in which people talk in order to learn from each other. By analyzing the cases in this article, more can be learned about how to facilitate interviews for better communication. Consequently, the following research question

was made: *in what ways can an interviewer facilitate for increased understanding and better communication in qualitative interviews with people with intellectual disabilities?* The study by Sigstad and Garrels (2018) has a similar view, focusing on facilitating interviews through several communication techniques. However, that study focuses strictly on one-to-one conversations, while I will argue in favor of the application of different approaches to qualitative interviews.

## Facilitating qualitative interviews with people with intellectual disabilities

Qualitative interviews can be seen as conversations between a researcher and another person (or several persons in groups), where the researcher aims to understand the world as seen by the interviewee through asking questions (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). People with ID have a cognitive impairment that often makes it harder for them to sort out relevant answers to questions that are given (Beail & Williams, 2014; Ellingsen, 2010). Consequently, research has increasingly focused on facilitating interviews with this particular group, for instance through the use of augmentative and alternative communication (Sigstad & Garrels, 2018) or photo interviews (Aldridge, 2007). Other streams of research address how the interviewer should behave and act during the interview (see for instance Lewis & Porter, 2004), or how to phrase the questions (Atkinson, 1988; Biklen & Moseley, 1988; Booth & Booth, 1996).

There are several ways for a researcher to facilitate interviews for people with ID. One such adaption to the "traditional" interview can be found in the go-along interview. This is a method where the researcher and the interviewee "walks and talks", potentially adding richness and depth to the obtained information (Butler & Derrett, 2014). Furthermore, by conducting go-along interviews the power imbalance between interviewer and interviewee can be avoided or lessened, due to the participant-driven nature of the go-along interview. In these interviews, the interviewee has the power to decide where to go and what to do during the conversation, as the interviewer follows. In addition, the go-along interview offers opportunities for in-situ engagement, while facilitating identification and

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access to untraditional and rich sites for data collection (Burns, Gallant, Fenton, White, & Hamilton-Hinch, 2019).

Another way of facilitating interviews, particularly used in research with children, is to integrate playing, drawing, or other activities into the interviews. Furthermore, parents or close siblings can also be present at the interviews, playing an important role in providing context to the stories, or aiding by prompting the child to remembering things relevant to the researcher (Irwin & Johnson, 2005). Having a parent present during an interview was also used by Dolva, Kollstad, and Kleiven (2016) in interviewing people with ID, adding richness to their data collection.

Conducting group interviews is also common. Although frequently applied within social research (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009), this approach is not often used with groups of people with ID (Meyer & Gjærum, 2010). Still, Fraser and Fraser (2001) found that focus group interviews are efficient for conducting exploratory research with adults with ID. However, in order to be successful there are some terms and circumstances that need to be fulfilled, particularly by the group interview moderator.

From this we see several ways in which interviews can be facilitated. In this paper, the go-along interview, the group interview, and parent-assisted interview will be further explored. Furthermore, these approaches are not currently being applied within research with people with ID, at least not to a great extent, and this article argues that more emphasis could be made towards these approaches.

## Methodology

A multiple case analysis was conducted in order to answer the research question. Four different cases were analyzed through systematic text condensation (Malterud, 2012). The aim of the analysis was to find passages in which rich data was ascertained through qualitative interviews, and to further explore what was decisive of this outcome.

## Multiple case studies

Case studies are often a preferred method when the aim is to gain an in-depth understanding and analysis of one or more cases (Creswell, 2007). The aim of this multiple case study was to analyze four cases in order to find analytical generalizable knowledge (Yin, 2018). This implies that the generalization detained from the case study needs to be conceptually higher than the specific cases. The cases needs to tell us something about something else, in this case – which facilitations, methodological reflections, tools, discoveries, or thoughts can be applied to other research projects, aiding in adding richness to data.

## Description of cases

All of the cases were situated in a sports context in a Nordic country, and qualitative interviews were the methodological foundation of all the studies. Furthermore, the interviews were also recorded and transcribed verbatim. In addition, notes were written during the interviews, as well as reflection logs, stating what was sensed as most important immediately after the interviews.

### Case A – The soccer study

This study (n=12) involved players from a soccer team with various kinds of ID (such as Down syndrome or variations within the autism spectrum) (XXX). The age of the athletes ranged from 17 to 45 years, and 11 of the interviewees were male. The interviews were semi-structured. Although the wording of the questions differed in order to make them understandable to all, the content remained the same.

Two of the team coaches were also interviewed, as it became necessary to gain more context for some of the interviews with the soccer players. Some of the interviewees also wished to have one parent present at the interviews to make the situation feel less strange or scary.

The research question of the study was as follows:

- How do people with ID experience soccer as a social arena for mastery of skills and developing social identity?

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A specific soccer team was chosen for the study, as they had been selected by the national soccer federation to participate in the Special Olympics in Shanghai. The aim of the study was to learn how the athletes experienced soccer as a social arena for mastery of skills and developing social identity. In addition, the study also explored the role that sport had in the lives of the interviewees, whether the sport was the primary source of social identity or if that identity was one out of several equal identities. The study applied the theories of Hewitt (2007) in relation to social identity, while mastering was seen as presented by Grue (2001).

The study found that, for most of the soccer players, mastering the skills played a minor role and winning in an international tournament was not important. However, in the national tournament it was very important to win. All of the interviewees experienced soccer as a fair and acknowledging social arena, where they could see themselves as fully accomplished soccer players, playing "real" soccer, as opposed to a sport facilitated for persons with disabilities. Playing soccer was highly important on its own, having its own value, while it was also important to play alongside others on the team. The team was an important source of friendship, love affairs, and positive experiences (XXX).

### Case B – The volunteer study

The volunteer study included qualitative interviews with a selection of volunteers with ID (n=12) at the 2016 Lillehammer Youth Olympic Games (LYOG) (XXX). The interviewees were students from a special education high school class, aged 16–19, who were interviewed in two different phases. Firstly, group interviews were conducted prior to the event. The interview questions were organized according to three themes relating to the theoretical framework of the study. As in Case A, the wording of the questions could differ, but the content and aim of the questions remained the same. However, it became obvious that it was difficult for most of them to talk about something that had not yet happened. Consequently, participant observation was conducted during the event, where it also became natural to speak about the things we were doing. The designated task of the group was to pick up and recycle litter at two of the main venues of the event. The research questions of the study were:

- How can social entrepreneurs create social value for people with intellectual disabilities through volunteer work at a major sporting event?
- How do people with intellectual disabilities experience working as volunteers at a major sporting event?

Furthermore, interviews with several other people involved in the volunteer project was done prior to the event in order to get some context and information. Lastly, a group interview with several teachers who worked as assistants during the event were conducted after the event.

This study found that social value could be created through volunteering, as this is an opportunity for marginalized groups to participate in society alongside others, being a part of discourses that focus on usefulness rather than disability. Volunteering at the LYOG had rich possibilities for learning new and valuable skills, and all of the volunteers saw the task of picking up litter as meaningful and important. The students with ID could also learn to cooperate on practical tasks, allowing for development of personal characteristics that were new to themselves and their teachers.

### Case C – The volunteer follow-up study

The volunteer follow-up study included interviews with eight of the same interviewees as in Case B, two years after the event. The interviewees for this study were five males and three females, aged 19-23 years, and the interviews were usually conducted in the respective homes of the interviewees. These interviews were similar to those conducted in Case B, where there were certain covered by several questions. The questions needed to be adapted to each interviewee, as there were differences in abilities to understand the questions.

The eight interviewees of this study were strategically selected due to their abilities to communicate and reflect upon past events, experiences, and perceptions. The interviews lasted between 30-45 minutes. Furthermore, all of the interviewees could choose to bring a parent to the interview. In those particular occasions, where a parent assisted during the interviews, the supposed role of the parent was established at the start of the interview. It was explained that the parent was meant to function

as a facilitator, aiding the interviewee if he/she wanted to, giving context where needed, and aiding in making the interviewee feel safe and comfortable. In addition, all interviewees were asked to bring three photos from their days of volunteering, and all of them were shown a videoclip of the group as they were volunteering (from a news broadcast).

The research questions of the study were:

- What possibilities do large sporting events have for creating lasting social value for people with ID through volunteering?
- How can volunteering at a major sporting event affect social capital and quality of life for persons with intellectual disabilities?
- To what extent do any changes in social capital, quality of life, and social value for people with ID depend on the nature of the volunteering at a large sporting event?

This study found that two years after the LYOG the event is still a source of positive experiences for the former volunteers. The event contributed to strong bonding social capital for the group of former volunteers, while also aiding in the creating bridging social capital for some of them. It has also affected the quality of life for several of the interviewees. The findings from this study suggests it is possible to create social value that is lasting through volunteering for people with ID.

### Case D – The local sports club study

The local sports club study included group interviews conducted with a group of adolescents with ID (n=8), aged 15–18. All were a part of a local sporting club for people with ID (XXX). The research question of the study was:

- What are the keys to fitness and physical activity for individuals with intellectual disability (ID)?

All interviewees were told to select and bring several photos of their favorite physical activity, with which to help start the interview. The interviews were conducted in one big group, where all of the

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participants took turns in showing their photographs and talking about the pictures before questions in relation to the photos were asked. In addition, collective interviews with one or both of the parents of the adolescents were conducted. Some of the interviewees were familiar to the interviewers prior to the study, while others met for the first time. The interview was conducted at a local sports and rehabilitation center, which was a well-known location for all of the interviewees.

Some of the findings from the study were that adolescents mostly need a little extra push and support in order to live a physically active life. The idea of what this support and push could be varied within the group, according to the individual. Most importantly, the interviewees expressed that it is crucial to have friends with which to be physically active and to have fun while doing so.

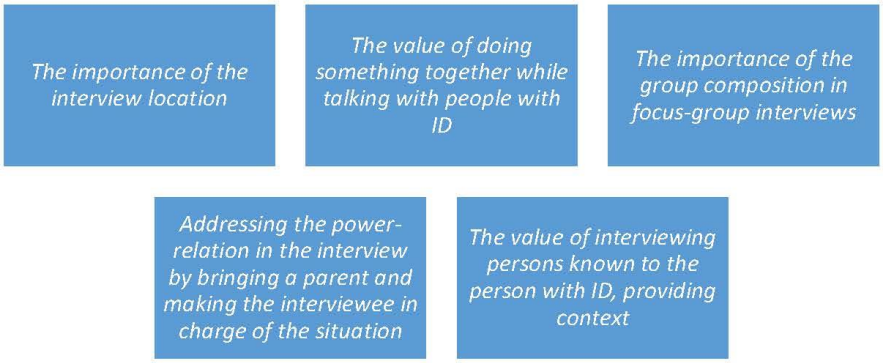
## Analysis – systematic text condensation

The cases were analyzed according to an analysis approach described by Malterud (2012) as systematic text condensation (STC). STC provides a step-by-step analysis of data, starting (1) with "total impression – from chaos to themes". In this phase it is important to get an overview of data, read through transcripts, find a starting point for organizing the data, and try to identify preliminary or overarching themes. In this study it was important to realize there is some knowledge to be gained through looking at studies that had previously been looked at from a bird's-eye perspective. Doing this helped in the realization that the articles used different approaches to qualitative interviews, in turn getting rich and diverse data. Consequently, the analytical question became: what does this tell us about facilitating interviews for people with ID?

The next step (2) of STC is identifying and sorting meaning units – from themes to codes (Malterud, 2012). In this phase, data is organized into meaning units, described as text fragments containing information related to the research question. In this study, this phase entailed identifying the exactness of what was done in the different studies to get rich data. Meaning, looking specifically at situations where realizations in relation to the methodological aspect were made, as there were several eye-opening experiences gained throughout the work with the four articles. These experiences

were then organized and gathered into categories for further exploration. The result of this was then placed into the categories presented in figure 1:

*Figure 1: overview of themes*




The next (3) step of the STC analysis process is called condensation or from code to meaning (Malterud, 2012). This part means going through the experiences of the several articles and placing each within the boxes of figure 1. In this case, it is not the narratives of the interviewees that make up the boxes, but rather the means in order to get to the various narratives, or lessons learned during the process of writing the four articles that makes up the cases of this study. These might be quite different experiences that still lead to the same realization. For instance, the box named "addressing the power relation in the interview situation..." has several bits and sentences within it, not having anything to do with each other at first glance. However, when re-conceptualized (a part of the next step of the STC analysis), the pieces are put back together, developing descriptions that can be seen in relation to the research question. This can also be seen as synthesizing (4) – from condensation to descriptions and

concepts (Malterud, 2012). In this phase of the analysis the new elements the analyzed cases bring are presented.

A discussion of the results within the five boxes will be provided in the next section of the article, after which some concluding remarks will be given concerning what new ideas this article brings to the subject of facilitating qualitative interviews with people with ID.

## Discussion

### Location of the interview

Choosing a suitable location for conducting qualitative interviews is important (Elwood & Martin, 2000). This became particularly visible after analyzing the cases of this article. For instance, in Case B, I chose to do the interviews while the students were at school and in the presence of their main teacher. The place was chosen for its convenience, and having the teacher present was chosen in the hope of promoting a feeling of safety. This was also a well-known environment for the interviewees, possibly promoting confidence. However, for some of the students this may have been a bad decision. In a school setting, teachers often ask questions to which there are right or wrong answers. This might have been a transition to the interview situation, especially for one of the interviewees, here named Patricia[1]. She struggled to find the correct answer to the questions, often throwing glances at the teacher, possibly looking for confirmation that she was answering correctly. In this case, the choice of place and having a teacher present may have contributed to making it even harder for her to give her answers. When writing about care institutions and group homes, Biklen and Moseley (1988) pointed out that home-like environments may be preferable over institutions when carrying out interviews with people with ID, as institutions might promote anxiety. Apparently for some interviewees this also applies for institutions such as schools. Obviously, the case of Patricia is a very small sample to form

[1] Anonymized

the basis of such a statement. Still, it might be that other interviews would have turned out differently if the interviews had been conducted outside of school, in a different environment, specific to the context we were talking about.

In Case A, most of the interviews were conducted in the home of the interviewees. In this case, the choice of location of the interviews was entirely up to the interviewees, assuming that it would result in a place of comfort for the participants. This also provided opportunities to get to know the interviewees and to let them tell me about objects in the room, something that might elicit data about the individual`s experiences and social world (Biklen & Moseley, 1988). However, two of the interviewees wanted to do the interview at a pub while they watched the match of the evening on television. This had several advantages, allowing for an informal atmosphere, where the television could fill in for "awkward silence". The event on the tv screen was also related to something the interviewees held dearly (as well as the subject of the interview): playing soccer. Soccer was almost like a safety net for the conversations, enforced by the television. This study focused particularly on how the athletes with ID perceived themselves within sports as a social arena. As we watched the evening's top league match, the interviewees kept drawing parallels between what they saw on the television and their own matches. Simply observing them watch the match added richness to the data. Thus, one way of facilitating the interview was to do something together, related to the topic of the conversation. In this case, watching the game while we were talking.

## Go-along interviews with people with ID

Go-along interviews can be useful for facilitating interviews, as was particularly seen in Case B. Prior to the interviews of this study I spent some time introducing myself and getting familiar with the group, first in front of the entire high school class and then in smaller groups. This was done in order to better plan the interview guide, by getting an overview of the communication skills of the group. In this particular case, making an interview guide was very difficult, as the level of communication varied greatly amongst the interviewees. Thus, an open approach to the interviews had to be applied. Three

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subjects served as themes for the conversations, but how to talk about them had to be improvised on the spot.

The plan of this study was to interview the students prior to, during, and after a major sporting event, in which the group was to participate as volunteers. However, during the first round of interviews I soon faced the four challenges described by Booth and Booth (1996). It was difficult to speak of something that had not yet happened; some had very little verbal language, while others had difficulty in generalizing and thinking in abstract terms. However, talking about specific things was manageable, such as the tasks they were to do, about what kind of event it was, and whether they had done something like this before. It was hard, however, to talk about things like expectations for outcomes, why they wanted to volunteer, or what they were really looking forward to. Consequently, it became necessary to facilitate the interviews, as there were little richness and depth to be gained in the initial round. Thus, it was decided to include go-along interviews, conducted as they were doing volunteer work, into the fieldwork.

Being a part of the group for a continuous amount of time was helpful in gaining their trust and confidence. In this case, I also worked as a participant observer (Barnes, 1992), in which all the participants in the study were aware that I was there in order to observe and do research. However, the dividing line between observing and interviewing while they were doing practical tasks became somewhat diffuse. Furthermore, during the week I was increasingly treated and perceived as one of their teachers: for example, having students ask me for permission to do things. This can be seen as a vote of confidence on their behalf, but also that I was someone with power to make decisions for them. Thus, I had to remind them that their teacher was in charge, and tried to focus the conversation onto other things related to their volunteering.

For this group, interviewing as they worked on their tasks and jobs provided opportunities to add richness to the data. It became much easier for them to speak of the joys or frustrations of volunteering as they experienced them in real time. However, there were also times in which I as a researcher had

to step back, keep my distance (cf. Hammersley & Atkinson, 2004), and observe the group as they interacted with each other and the environment of the event. This approach was most useful among those who had some verbal language. Among the nonverbal participants, an almost complete observer role was more fruitful, insofar as maintaining a distance and attempting to perceive a social world in which I had few preconditions to understand.

## Group composition in focus group interviews

The initial interviews were conducted in groups in Case B. Interviewing in groups might contribute to softening the interview situation, thereby making interviewees more talkative. This may be highly useful when the interviewees are introverted or shy (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2004). However, I discovered that this choice also had some pitfalls. In one situation I complimented a group member for giving a good answer to one of my questions. In doing so, others in the group suddenly started to give the precise same answer, maybe in order to get approval. Atkinson (1988) states there is no confidentiality in group interviews and there are fewer opportunities for some people to maintain a personal viewpoint. This might also illustrate the ever present challenge of interviewees answering what they think the researcher wants to hear, an even bigger challenge when interviewing people with ID (Biklen & Moseley, 1988). In this case, I as an interviewer should have been more aware of the influence I can insert upon the interviewees. This is also somewhat related to the power relation between interviewer and interviewee (to be addressed further on in the article). Thus, the moderator of the group interview should be highly aware of how he or she appears and acts in that particular situation.

In Case D, the interviewees were adolescents with ID, and several were well known to the research team. However, some within the group were new to us, but as they observed their peers talking and joking with the research team, the ice was broken quite fast. There are some advantages in interviewing people with whom you are already familiar, as they will often start talking pretty easily; even so, there might be the risk that they will increasingly try to avoid disappointing the researcher by saying the wrong things. There is also the risk that participants familiar to the researcher might take

up a lot of "space", as they are prone to be more secure in the situation, leaving less room for the unfamiliar ones to talk. However, the interviewees brought photos to display and elaborate upon. This was something that everyone did, taking turns, and this set some frames for the conversation. In addition, we as researchers were conscious in letting everyone have the chance to speak, setting some rules for the conversation. Those who wanted to say something out of turn had to raise their hand. Thus, we controlled the interview situation, perhaps to a higher degree than we would have with another group. When conducting group interviews, there is always a risk that someone will talk a lot, while others are more comfortable with having a minor role. This was particularly seen in Case B, where some talked a lot, leaving little room for others in the group. In these cases, it remains important that the researcher is observant, reading the body language of those who are more silent, allowing them to express their views as well and maybe even asking them questions directly, and to clearly show that their answers are also valuable.

### Addressing the power relation in the interview situation

Like the initial interviews of Case B, Case D also included a group interview. However, this session differed from the others in that the interviewees were told to bring three different photos that displayed their favorite physical activities. They showed the pictures to the group, described the photo, and answered questions to elaborate on the activities. When interviewees choose what pictures to bring, and use these as points of departure in the interview, some challenges can appear. There is a risk the pictures might dominate the interview situation, making it harder to acquire a broad grasp of the thoughts and experiences of the interviewee beyond the photo. However, these kinds of thoughts and reflections may be difficult to gain access to either way, whether or not the researcher uses pictures. The interviewees deciding what photo to bring can also affect the power balance in the interview. This allows for the interviewee to be in charge of the situation, knowing something that the interviewer does not: what picture it is and the story it tells. One advantage of the pictures was that the interviewees exhibited a great deal of excitement and pride in displaying them to the group, which in turn contributed to a very positive atmosphere. This positive atmosphere was an important

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facilitation to get the interviewees to relax in the situation, making it easier for them to express their feelings and experiences.

In addition, the group was composed of both people familiar to most of the research team as well as people we were meeting for the first time. Adding people who were new to us changed the dynamics of the conversation, compared to how the conversation could have turned out between a group in which everyone knew each other. This also enabled those already familiar with us to have some amount of power or status in the situation. They could be the ones in control of the situation, explaining to the rest who we were and how we met. The interviewees could even tell fun stories about us, making us more familiar to those we just met for the first time. Thus, the power balance between interviewer and interviewee was moved. This could have turned out differently, as the new group members could have felt excluded in the setting, as the only ones not sharing the experience that most of us had in common. However, in this situation, this turned out favorably.

The value of addressing the power situation became particularly apparent in the study of Case C. In this study, the interviewees could choose to bring a parent to the interview. In addition, at the start of the interview I clarified the role the parent was supposed to have during the conversation. I explained that the main person in this interview was the person with ID, and he or she would decide if and when the parent should speak. Allowing them to be in charge of the situation was an important part of empowering the interviewees, and very useful in adding richness to the data. In some cases, even the parents learned new things about their son or daughter, as the subject of the interviews was related to a context in which the parent was originally not a part. Having a parent present was also a useful facilitation as he or she could provide context to some of the explanations of the person with ID, applying additional meaning to their stories.

### Interviewing persons providing context

Interviewing close family and friends is a regular method to apply when conducting qualitative research with and on people with ID (Biklen & Moseley, 1988). However, this approach can also be a

way to facilitate interviews with people with ID. Sometimes context is needed in order to add more meaning to the stories of people with ID. For instance, in Case A, coaches were interviewed in order to gain some context to the stories of the players with ID. By interviewing coaches, instead of parents or siblings, some personal distance between the significant person and the person with ID was maintained. In addition, they were very context-specific persons. The soccer coaches knew the interviewees primarily as soccer players, which was the identity explored in the study.

In some cases it was also highly necessary to interview the coaches in order to apply meaning to certain words. For instance, during one of the interviews I encountered a made up Norwegian word, having no known meaning, which sounded like "nøten". The parents of the athlete had never heard this word before. However, it was often heard by the coach. The coach explained that this was a word used by the athlete in order to stop stuttering while talking at soccer practice or during matches. Soccer was so important to this interviewee that he found and developed ways in which to make his handicap (stuttering) less of an annoyance while playing. Furthermore, this can also imply that talking about soccer was sensed as equally important, as he applied the same technique in stopping his stuttering in the interviews. This is one example of facilitating the interview by talking with context-specific persons, who know the interviewee well, in order to add context.

In the study of Case B, all the teachers involved in the volunteer project were interviewed after the sporting event. By doing this in a group, the conversation became less personal and the level of the conversation became more of an overview, rather than talking in detail about every student. In doing so, I hoped the teachers would also work less as a filter and more as a translator (cf. Biklen & Moseley, 1988). Moreover, I made a conscious decision to interview them last. In doing so, the perspectives of the students were the most important, and I wanted these perspectives to be uninterrupted by other people`s perceptions or interpretations of the behavior or conversations I observed. However, some much needed context was provided by interviewing the teachers. For example, one of the students in the group would lower his voice drastically and act quite differently during lunch every day. I was

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unsure how to interpret this behavior: was he becoming more familiar with me, wanting to share something with me during lunch, as that was a somewhat calmer part of the day? However, after talking with the teachers, I learned that this was typical behavior due to this being the time for him to take his medication. The behavior that I described was how he acted with whoever was sitting next to him during these particular hours.

## Concluding remarks

From the themes explored in this paper I have showed several ways in which a researcher can facilitate interviews with people with ID for better communication, and increased understanding. However, it is important to be aware that people with ID are diverse. What works in one situation might not apply in another. Still, it is useful to be aware of several things to try. It is not new that it is important to be aware and conscious of the location of the interview. However, having something to do, specific to the environment in which the interview takes place, can be a useful facilitation of the interview. This could be watching a game together, volunteering together, or engaging in some other meaningful activity related to the topic of the interview. Go-along interviews are not often applied to people with ID, but this study show that this can be a useful facilitation of interviews with this group.

Sometimes, having someone present who is used to talking with the interviewee with ID, such as a parent, can be useful. In addition, having a parent present at the interview, but leaving the person with ID in charge, can be seen as one way of empowering the person with ID within the interview situation. This particular approach is not often seen in research with people with ID. However, in doing so one can also address that there is a power relationship between the interviewer and the interviewee. Finding ways to adjust this power balance can be of great value for facilitating interviews and adding richness to the data. Speaking with the person with ID first, then talking with context-specific persons afterwards, can also be a way to facilitate the interview. Perhaps the most important thing to keep in mind is that the researcher should display an openness for finding ways to adjust the interview

according to the needs of the interviewee. This article proposes ways to do so, providing descriptions of possible approaches based upon experiences gained through studies with people with ID.

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**3: Article 3**

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# Being a part of it: People with intellectual disabilities as volunteers in the Youth Olympic Games

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ABSTRACT

During the Youth Olympic Winter Games event in Lillehammer, Norway, a group of students with intellectual disabilities worked as volunteers. The teachers of the class functioned in a social entrepreneurial manner, using the event to create social value for this particular group. Qualitative inter*views* were conducted with the group of students (n=12), and observations were made during the event. The students' teachers (n=3) and the head of volunteers (n=1) from the organizing committee were also interviewed for triangulation, thus verifying the interpretation of the data. This study demonstrated that social value was created through the practical tasks the students with intellectual disabilities were given, especially in relation to the Olympic context of the event, and the job itself was more important than those for whom they were doing it or why. Other important sources of social value were for the students to be outside of the classroom and to be cooperating and learning from each other within the group. Last, the students had the opportunity to aid and assist, instead of being aided and assisted, and to give something back to the local community.

## INTRODUCTION

Sports are employed increasingly as an entrepreneurial mechanism to promote important social issues such as developing a global society (Ratten, 2015). Creating a "better world" by finding solutions for social problems or inequality and, in particular, creating social value, are also the main hallmarks of social entrepreneurs (Dees, 2001; Guo & Bielefeld, 2014; Helmsing, 2015; Sullivan Mort, Weerawardena, & Carnegie, 2003). Traditionally, social value is viewed as something that benefits people whose needs are not being met by any other means. Social entrepreneurs aim to create social value by stimulating societal change or meeting needs through a process of combining resources innovatively with the intent to explore and exploit opportunities to develop social value (Mair & Marti, 2006). According to Schenker, Gerrevall, Linnér, and Peterson (2014), sports are both suitable and capable of addressing and contributing to solving social problems and are used increasingly in this social entrepreneurial manner.

At the Youth Olympic Winter Games (LYOG) held in Lillehammer in 2016, several actors saw an opportunity to work as social entrepreneurs to create social value for various target groups (Undlien, 2017). According to Hulgård and Lundgaard Andersen (2014), social entrepreneurship is about creating social value by doing something new, with a high level of influence by participants and often with the involvement of elements of civil society such as the volunteer sector. By participating as volunteers in the LYOG, several foundations, organizations, and other actors were able to gain advantage and momentum for their entrepreneurial projects working toward social change and the creation of social value for their respective target groups (Undlien, 2017). Among these groups was a high school class for people with intellectual disabilities (ID).

Internationally, volunteerism has been used to promote the social inclusion of vulnerable groups in mega-sporting events such as the Commonwealth Games and the Olympic

**Keywords**: social entrepreneurship, sports entrepreneurship, intellectual disabilities, sporting events, volunteerism

Games (Darcy, Dickson, & Benson, 2014; Nichols & Ralston, 2011). In a Norwegian context, promoting social inclusion through volunteerism is less common. For instance, at the FIS World Cross Country Championships in 2011, 16% of the volunteers were in a catch-all category, such as the unemployed, civil workers, conscripts, and those with disabilities. However, no distinctions were made among various groups within the category. Moreover, Norwegians have often been labeled the world champions of volunteering (Skille, 2012), and sports represents the largest arena for volunteer work in Norway, with a volunteer effort equivalent to 23,000 FTEs (St. Meld. nr. 39 (2006-2007)). Research shows that, within sports, people with disabilities are underrepresented as volunteers (Eimhjellen, 2011). Moreover, this research does not distinguish between people with intellectual disabilities (ID) and those with physical disabilities. Little is known about people with ID and volunteerism in sports (although some research on people with ID and volunteerism in other contexts has been conducted (Patterson & Pegg, 2009; Roker, Player, & Coleman, 1998).

People with ID as volunteers is new and not visible within the Norwegian sports context; thus, they are labeled "nontraditional" volunteers in this study. To discuss the nontraditional, it is necessary to first consider the traditional. According to Folkestad, Christensen, Strømsnes, and Selle (2015), the traditional Norwegian volunteer is a highly educated, married man between the ages of 35 and 49, with children and a high income. At past major Norwegian sporting events (e.g., the world skiing championship in 2011), the majority of volunteers were employed men with a university degree (Skille, 2012).

Participating in volunteer work can be an important arena for promoting integration and social inclusion (Eimhjellen, 2011). In Norway, a political objective is that everyone, independent of functioning, should have equal opportunities to be part of different social and cultural arenas, including the volunteer sector (Söderström & Tøssebro, 2011). Still, it is not traditional to consider issues related to social responsibility and social value in the context of marginalized groups in relation to larger sports events. The official political platform of the Norwegian Olympic and Paralympic Committee and Confederation of Sports (NIF), for the period 2015–2019 does not emphasize or mention social responsibility related to larger events, nor does it consider using events to create social value for marginalized groups through volunteering (Norges Idrettsforbund, 2015).

Enabling people with ID to volunteer at major sporting events allows an opportunity for a new discourse. They can be seen as useful and contributing to society. As volunteers, they are not necessarily seen as people with an intellectual disability who rely on aid and assistance on a daily basis. Opportunities for people with ID to be a part of new discourses, such as volunteering, can be seen in relation to what Grue (2001) describes as "to make oneself known," a strategy for mastering one's life situation. Within this perspective, people with disabilities are given the opportunity to influence how others see them by choosing the context they want to be part of instead of being placed in a discourse by others ("to get known"). In this way, attention is directed away from the disability and toward the aspects the disabled person wants to display. Furthermore, this allows persons who are disabled to resist being labeled as "disabled." Thus, we can say that volunteering is a potential source of social value for people with ID. Through volunteering, they might "make themselves known" by visually demonstrating their potential, mastering specific tasks, and developing new skills, thereby influencing how they are perceived by others—in other words, becoming a volunteer at an Olympic event and someone who is useful, instead of a boy/girl with an intellectual disability in need of aid to accomplish daily living activities.

The aim of this study is to contribute to the field of volunteerism and social entrepreneurship in order to identify the possibilities of these perspectives in the context of nontraditional groups and their participation as volunteers in sports events. Little is known about how people with ID experience being volunteers at major sporting events and especially how volunteering can contribute to creating social value for this population. It is hoped that this study will contribute to filling this gap.

The following research questions were developed:

- How can social entrepreneurs create social value for people with intellectual disabilities through volunteer work at a major sporting event?
- How do people with ID experience working as volunteers at a major sporting event?

## BACKGROUND

The present study's interviews revealed that the mother of a student with ID came up with the idea for her daughter's class (for students with ID) to volunteer as other students do. She discussed this with the head teacher, who contacted the head of volunteers for the Lillehammer Youth Olympic Games Organising Committee (LYOGOC), and the volunteer project for students with ID was initiated. The program was not adapted for the target group; rather, they enrolled as regular volunteers. The Olympic Games have

had a strong standing in Lillehammer since the games in 1994, and LYOG was seen as a significant opportunity to be part of the same story, resulting in several actors with social entrepreneurial projects wanting to be included in the event (Undlien, 2017). This made participation in the games especially attractive, thereby pushing potential entrepreneurs such as the high school teachers to develop new approaches for taking part.

The Youth Olympic Games (YOG) differs from other Norwegian sporting events in several aspects but particularly for having a wider range of tasks needing to be completed. According to the LYOGOC's head of volunteers, they needed a broad spectrum of volunteers as the event was so diverse; thus, there were many options for identifying appropriate tasks. However, it was clearly expressed on behalf of the group that the tasks they were assigned had to be meaningful (tasks that actually needed to be done) while simple enough that all students could learn and master the necessary skills. Together with the LYOGOC, the class's teacher identified the task of collecting and recycling trash at the largest venue for the event. Trash is generated wherever people gather for several days, but a large-scale event like the YOG is likely to generate a huge amount, and the job of recycling and cleaning up will thereby be more extensive than for smaller-scale events.

**Social Entrepreneurship**

Social entrepreneurship is receiving an increasing amount of attention within the field of sports management (Bjärsholm, 2017). However, according to Weerawardena and Mort (2006), it remains an ill-defined concept. Entrepreneurs are considered people who are able to discover and exploit new possibilities and have the motivation and dedication necessary to pursue them while being willing to take the risks involved (Martin & Osberg, 2007). Broadly, social entrepreneurship can be seen as a process involving innovative use and a combination of resources to pursue opportunities to enact social change and/or address social needs (Mair & Marti, 2006). Furthermore, Dees, Emerson, and Economy (2002) argue that social entrepreneurship is about creating social value and especially finding new and better ways to do so.

It is common to discuss social innovations when talking about new elements that social entrepreneurs bring to the table to create social value. An innovation is often created across three sectors: state, market, and civil society. Social innovations can be seen as new ideas that comply with social needs while creating new forms of social relationships or cooperation (Hulgård, 2007), while Pol and Ville (2009) take a somewhat wider stance on the subject, defining social innovations as ideas with the potential to improve the quality or quantity of life.

There are several definitions of the concept of social value. Young (2006, p. 56) defines it as something that "benefits people whose urgent and reasonable needs are not being met by any other means." Hence, it is important for social entrepreneurs to create social value by stimulating social change or meeting social needs through a process of combining resources in a new way that aims to explore and exploit opportunities to create social value (Mair & Marti, 2006). According to Martin and Osberg (2007) entrepreneurs are attracted to a suboptimal equilibrium where the entrepreneur sees the opportunity for a new and improved solution, service, or process, while others may perceive it as an inconvenience to be tolerated.

According to Young (2006), value has five crucial features from a social entrepreneurial point of view. First, value is subjective and a matter of real life experiences. Second, social value is negotiated between stakeholders; third, it is open for reappraisal, and fourth, it includes incommensurable elements. Fifth, (social) values are inseparable from social activity. As Dees (2001, p. 4) notes, "It is inherently difficult to measure social value creation." However, social value is created through activities and services that target marginalized groups, which often experience that the market and political systems fail to meet their needs (Young, 2006).

**Sports Entrepreneurship and Social Entrepreneurship**

Previously, the association between innovation, entrepreneurship, and sports has received little attention. However, Ratten (2011b) has made an effort to address this omission. According to Ratten (2011b), in a sports context, social entrepreneurship occurs when sport as a whole field starts to address social change or social problems, and thus social entrepreneurship or other entrepreneurial activities conducted in a sporting context may be referred to as sports entrepreneurship. Defined as "the mindset of people or organisations actively engaged in the pursuit of new opportunities in the sports-context") (Ratten, 2012, p. 66), sports entrepreneurship has a social entrepreneurial nature. Innovation plays a crucial role in social entrepreneurship, as solutions to social problems often involve doing something new (Hulgård & Lundgaard Andersen, 2014). Innovation also lies within the core of an entrepreneurial sports process, as it emphasizes the creation of new ventures or the maintenance of an organization (Ratten, 2012). In addition,

Sullivan Mort et al. (2003) emphasize proactiveness and risk taking as central to social entrepreneurship, and the same characteristics are the hallmarks of sports entrepreneurs (Ratten, 2011a).

**Volunteerism as a Theoretical Concept**

The subject of volunteerism in sporting events is one of the most prominent research topics of sports management (Wicker, 2017). This study relies on the works by Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) and Hustinx (2010), which have attempted to conceptualize volunteerism in a theoretical framework. Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) separated volunteers into two main categories: reflexive/modern and collective/traditional volunteers.

The reflexive volunteer often volunteers for events with a short time frame and chooses the activity as a means to express his or her identity. The main reason for volunteering is often to extend networks and/or to improve one's work resume to appear more attractive to potential employers. Frequently, the reflexive volunteer has no or little affiliation with the organization or event for which he or she is volunteering (Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003).

The traditional volunteer has strong roots in the Norwegian context and is a long-term volunteer who often does work on the basis of solidarity and contributing to the local society. Unlike reflexive volunteers, they frequently have strong affiliations with the organizations for which they volunteer. Furthermore, patriotism is an important value for them (Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003).

Hustinx (2010) has further developed the theoretical framework of volunteerism by introducing another category of volunteers, institutionally individualized volunteers. According to Hustinx (2010), new organizational and institutional models affect volunteerism today, resulting in a type of volunteer she describes as institutionally individualized. Organizations dependent on these types of volunteers are increasingly adapting their activities to be flexible according to volunteers' preferences. This is a kind of volunteerism where the institutional association of the individual, in this case the students' school, becomes important to whether the person volunteers or not and for whom he or she volunteers.

## METHODS

**The Case Study**

In order to answer the present study's research questions, a case study was conducted with a high school class for students with ID (n=12) volunteering at the Youth Olympic Games (YOG). This is considered a single case study of one complex case with several perspectives and is studied to learn about the participation of people with ID as volunteers. Several actors were involved in order to ensure the class's participation as volunteers, to facilitate a positive experience, and to identify tasks for them so they could contribute in a meaningful way. Therefore, the perspectives of the teachers (n=3) as facilitators for the students were included. The head teacher was interviewed prior to the event, while the other teachers were included in interviews following it.

Last, the perspective of the head of volunteers for the event's organizing committee was included to gain a broader picture of the participation of students with ID as volunteers. The selection of the case was information oriented and related to the author`s expectation about the information content that this specific case might provide. The goal of this kind of selection is to maximize the utility of information from a single case (Flyvbjerg, 2006).

Triangulation is about controlling conclusions drawn from one source of data by gathering data from other sources (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2004). By including several sources (the class's teachers and the head of volunteers for LYOGOC), triangulation of the data was ensured in order to validate the answers to the research questions.

According to Flyvbjerg (2006), choosing few cases to study may be fruitful, as atypical cases often reveal more information as they include more actors and more basic mechanisms in the situation being studied. The case for this study was chosen strategically, as the group of students with ID stood out from traditional volunteers. They were special because of the circumstances of their participation (the school played a crucial role in this), in addition to their abilities to explain what they were doing and why. Furthermore, people with disabilities (including people with ID) do not usually volunteer at sporting events and are considered marginalized in the society (Eimhjellen, 2011). They also have unmet social needs and a need for social change (to be fully included in society) and are thus a suitable group to study in a social entrepreneurial context.

The case was conducted through qualitative interviews and participant observations. According to Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) interviews may provide a fruitful method if the aim is to seek a better understanding of someone's subjective experiences and self-perception in the social world. However, some challenges that will be discussed

below became apparent.

**Qualitative Interviews and People with ID**

According to Hammersley and Atkinson (2004), it is only through conversation (e.g., interviews) that we can create generality about the social arena. However, numerous challenges and methodological issues arose when conducting qualitative research with people with ID. They may lack verbal language, forcing the researcher to rely on observation as a research method and paving the way for new challenges. When completing observations, researchers don't necessarily "see everything you notice, you don't notice everything you see, and sometimes you see something else than what you noticed" (Sundet, 2010, p. 123). In addition, the cognitive levels of interviewees with ID may pose difficulties for understanding complex questions or grasping the reach of questions (Ellingsen, 2010).

The initial interviews with the students with ID revealed that it was challenging for most to talk about something that had not yet happened. Furthermore, several students had difficulties expressing themselves orally and, in particular, finding the words to describe their feelings and experiences. Yet it was important to include their voices, as this is a group that is seldom heard within qualitative research (Ellingsen, 2010). Thus, it was decided to interview them again in real time as they were performing their volunteer work, in addition to observing them during the LYOG, to acquire appropriate data.

**Observation**

When conducting participatory observation, the researcher interacts with the person(s) to be studied while studying and observing as the person(s) acts in a certain environment (Fangen, 2010). Participant observation is often used to study subjects in the context of their worlds. Although language may be important within participant observation, there is also an option to study situations from the perspectives of individuals with ID who are nonverbal. The aim is to discover and explore the meaning that the subjects make of their world (Biklen & Moseley, 1988). Throughout the study, the interviews and observations were divided into two main subjects, social entrepreneurship and volunteerism.

**Social Entrepreneurship and Volunteerism**

Social entrepreneurship occurs when a person or organization recognises a suboptimal situation or problem for a specific social group and combines resources in a new way to address it (Martin & Osberg, 2007). Thus, it was important to identify who saw the opportunity for the students to volunteer and who worked to make it happen. In other words, who was the social entrepreneur in this case? In addition, it was interesting to see whether the students with ID could picture the event as something that would somehow change their current social world for better or worse. Moreover, this author wished to understand how involved they had been throughout the process and their level of influence.

Regarding volunteerism, the interview questions were mainly related to the students' expectations, especially the eventual outcomes they hoped to achieve by participating in the event (e.g., making new friends or just having a positive experience). Important topics included things they were looking forward to and, to some extent, eventual concerns that some of them had. Other subjects were about the event itself to understand the extent to which they knew for what and whom they were volunteering. This was relevant in order to understand their participation in relation to Hustinx and Lammertyn's (2003) categories.

**Sampling**

Although this author had no previous affiliation with the high school class, their main teacher was approached after a tip from an informant in another study (also regarding the LYOG). A meeting was scheduled in which the aim of the study was explained to the main teacher. To follow up, a written notice stating the aim of the study, the methods to be used, and its duration was sent to all parents/guardians of the students, as well as the school administration. This form also served as informed consent to participate in the study, giving all the students the possibility not to participate or to withdraw their participation at any point with no repercussions. Furthermore, for the ethical considerations of the study, it was reported in and approved by the Data Protection Official for Research in Norway prior to data collection. In addition, all names and personal information were anonymized during the transcription of the interviews. Moreover, all names of the interviewees are changed and anonymized in this article.

**Data Collection**

The initial data collection was interviews with the group of 12 students, which were divided into smaller groups of three to four students. The 12 students were 16–19 years old with six boys and six girls. Each interview lasted between 10 and 30 minutes.

Observations were conducted during the LYOG, and the

group of 12 students was divided by the teachers into smaller groups of five or six students. The observations were made over the five days the event lasted. The students' working sessions usually lasted from 09:00–15:00, with a 30-minute lunch break, and observations were conducted during these hours with this author fully included as part of the group. Since the author had talked with the students before the event, they were comfortable with the author, who quickly gained the trust of several students. They frequently requested help from the author, for example with mittens, shoes, or even advice about where to pick up trash next, or asked permission to do things. The observations were recorded as handwritten field notes in a notebook.

When observing, situations promoting joy, positive new experiences, and learning were of particular interest, as social value may be conceptualized as positive, subjective everyday experiences (Young, 2006). Some students could not use words to express themselves at all but clearly indicated their emotions using body language (e.g., smiling, hugging, skipping, and jumping as they walked, or wearing a frown, displaying tiredness, being displeased). The observations focused on specific situations and circumstances in which the students displayed joy or displeasure.

Another important aspect of the observations was the social element. As the aim of the study was to identify how the event itself could be used to create social value, it was important that the observations were focused on the event itself. Thus, interactions or situations of interest had to be a direct result of the event rather than just two friends enjoying a conversation, as they would have done in school. Those instances when subjects of conversations concerned something they had experienced together during the event were especially interesting. Thus, the subject of the observations had to be social (interaction), and context specific for the event. Hence, situations that were particularly interesting for this study involved positive or negative experiences resulting from social interaction with each other within the group and with other volunteers, participants, or people involved with the event.

### Analysis

The analysis was theory driven, using the perspective of social entrepreneurship, social value, and volunteerism as concepts. Furthermore, it aligned with what Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) call a "bricolage" approach, in which transcriptions of all the interviews are made and analyzed, and additional observations are used while focusing on the bigger picture. Bricolage is an eclectic approach that generates meaning by applying theoretical terms ad hoc (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). The observations and conversations at this particular event were utilized to discover aspects of the link between volunteerism and social value in general. Selected parts of the interviews and observations, in particular, were studied to find relevant structures and patterns for this study.

Furthermore, the observations were analyzed from a social value perspective, looking specifically at how positive experiences could be seen in a larger picture, for instance, to move toward social change or meet a social need. Examples are skills the students with ID learned throughout the event that might assist them to live independently as adults in the future or other aspects that might promote inclusion in sports settings and society as a whole.

Value was studied in terms of positive experiences (Young, 2006). In the analysis, these experiences and descriptions were recontextualized by looking at how people with ID are positioned in the society and attempting to observe how the experiences of value related to the event could be useful in the students' everyday lives.

The concept of social entrepreneurship was used as a possible interpretation of the described or observed experiences. In other words, the context that the interviewees described was recontextualized by applying the theoretical lens of this study in an attempt to highlight new angles and gain new insights about the theoretical fields of this study (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). Themes or outcomes to be included in the findings section were selected through a set of criteria. These had to be positive or negative situations that were context specific (YOG itself) and in which the students interacted within the event, especially in relation to their specific tasks as volunteers.

## FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

### People with Intellectual Disabilities as Volunteers

The volunteers of this study differed from the existing conceptual groups of volunteers, such as the "reflexive" and "traditional" categories of Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003), as some were unable to describe what they were volunteering for or why. From Hustinx's (2010) perspective, there are also similarities to institutionally individualized volunteers, as the school was crucial for this group's participation as volunteers.

The group of students had several elements in common with Hustinx and Lammertyn's (2003) "traditional volunteer," as

the interviews showed that several of them talked about the importance of contributing to the local community. This may be illustrated by the following quotes: "It is good that we have the YOG, so that the youth get more things to do," and "We get to do something for our town." Some students even perceived their own efforts in a bigger picture when several talked about the global importance of recycling trash—not just tidying up the arena, as some of them emphasized, but doing their part to "save the globe," as illustrated by the quote: "We are picking up garbage for the environment." By contrast, some students had difficulties describing the value of their work and were unable to answer questions about why they were doing a particular task and if they saw the value in doing it.

Observations showed that this was a group with a high morale for working, and there was joy in doing physical labor. The main social value was closely connected to the actual tasks, such as picking up trash and recycling. The job itself was more important than who they were doing it for or why. Like the reflexive volunteers, these volunteers did not have a close affiliation with the organization or event for which they were working (Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003). For some students, the main value was instead being outside the classroom and doing something practical; regarding the most fun about being a volunteer at the YOG, one said, "Not being in school."

The students knew they were there to pick up trash, but it might be that they considered it to be part of school rather than a voluntary act, as the school was the main facilitator and their main source of information. One may argue that the efforts of this group were not done voluntarily at all since they often couldn't explain why they were volunteering or simply claimed "because the teacher told me so." However, there were students in the class who refused to be part of the project, indicating that those who participated actually wanted to do so, even though it was difficult to express why.

Several of the students also had difficulties understanding what they were actually volunteering for. They had talked in school about volunteering in general prior to the event and especially volunteering at the LYOG. Still, they were struggling with the difference between the "regular" Olympics and the Youth Olympics. For instance, all were asked before the event, "What are you looking forward to the most in volunteering at the YOG?" One student answered, "to seeing Marit Bjoergen and Therese Johaug[1] competing."

Although not fully aware of the extent of the event for which they were volunteering, the students did not expect to get anything in return for their time and effort. As Carl said, "It's not the best job I've had, we don't get any money for this (laughing)." Moreover, as Jens said, "It has been fun to help out." These statements imply that they understood the concept of volunteering and helping out while not expecting or getting something in return for their time and effort, according to Mannino, Snyder, and Omoto (2011).

Observations and interviews showed that even those students with little or no verbal language could recognize the colors and symbols of the event. "Youth Olympic car," said one of the girls (with limited verbal language) when she spotted a car from the organizing committee, wearing the same colors as her uniform. She could recognize the volunteer uniforms, the cars, the flags, and the mascot, knew that all of them were interconnected, and saw herself as part of that bigger picture. She had a sense of belonging to a bigger community, even though it was hard for her to describe what this community actually was.

**Challenges for the Volunteers and Their Environment**

The observations conducted during the LYOG also showed several limitations in the students' volunteer efforts linked to the nature of their disabilities. Some were rather passive in their work efforts, but small facilitations could change the picture drastically. A waste-picker was a tool that made a huge difference for some students, changing their efforts from nonexistent to high intensity.

Another challenge appeared in the electronic registration of the volunteers, a small task for the regular volunteer but time demanding for one person doing the job for 12 others. Every student needed a great deal of assistance registering personal information and retrieving pictures for accreditation. The main teacher, doing all this in addition to her regular tasks as a teacher, still saw what Baron (2006) describes as an entrepreneurial opportunity and, in doing so, activates a set of characteristics often associated with entrepreneurs. Among these are optimism and willingness to take a risk believing that all will turn out favorably for the entrepreneur (Baron, 2006).

Many people with ID rely heavily on close follow-up with one or more assistants, which can be challenging from an organizational perspective. In this case, the teachers followed the students, aiding them as little as possible (to ensure maximum learning) but still being present as a safety net for the students. Thus, the school was crucial for the participation of these students. However, it is becoming increasingly common that third parties, such as institutions,



[1]Athletes on the senior national team for cross-country skiing and therefore not eligible for participating in the YOG.

mobilize and organize volunteer groups (Haski-Leventhal, Meijs, & Hustinx, 2010). In this case, some students did not function, refusing to do anything unless a specific teacher was present.

Several other challenges for the students with ID appeared during the observations conducted throughout the event. Some tended to be more interested in talking with people and watching the crowds than working. Others needed many repeated instructions to become efficient workers. One student, who became a leader, expressed challenges attached to getting co-students to do what they were supposed to be doing. When asked about the biggest challenge of volunteering, he said, "making people do what they are supposed to." However, a little facilitation in finding the proper tasks (for instance, driving the wheel cart instead of picking up trash) could make the difference between total passiveness and full-speed activity. This implied that the group was dependent on people around them who knew them and what they could and could not do and could find solutions when things were about to turn negative. Last, since it was the teachers who had to facilitate this within their work hours, this is clearly a limitation of this kind of volunteering, as the volunteer efforts of the students could happen only during regular school hours.

According to the teachers, every day that is different, when regular schedules and routines are broken, results in negative experiences for these students. This event, however, was considered positive for all those involved. When writing about the power of the Olympic Games, Chalip (2006) uses the term "liminality." Although Chalip does not clearly define liminality, he describes it as the feeling of being part of something outstanding and a heightened sense of fellowship and community among those present (Chalip, 2006, p. 110). A sense of unity and being part of something bigger than themselves, almost like the experience of liminality, may have influenced the students to do their very best, making everyone pull in the same direction.

From the event organizers' perspective, there were few or no challenges involved with including this kind of nontraditional volunteer in the event. Quoting the head of volunteers, "There were far more challenges in dealing with the regular class of 10B[2], down here at junior high, than with this group." Furthermore, she emphasized that having a group of volunteers with ID demanded a little extra from the leader in charge of clean up and recycling, especially in finding suitable tasks that were also meaningful. However, as soon as the tasks were found, the event organizers had a group that, quoting the head of volunteers, "displayed a profound amount of joy and enthusiasm, and there were so many people telling positive stories having met this particular group during their working hours."

**The Teachers as Social Entrepreneurs**

Acknowledgement of risk but still being willing to "go for it" because of a highly possible favorable outcome is characteristic of social entrepreneurs (Dees, 2001; Sullivan Mort et al., 2003) as well as sports entrepreneurs (Ratten, 2011a). The teachers for the group acknowledged that there was risk involved in the volunteer project (e.g., students refusing to work or having negative experiences). As one teacher said, "This has exceeded all expectations. There hasn't been any nonsense with anyone!" The quote indicates that there was an expectation or precaution that not every student might function well as a volunteer. In general, people with ID are dependent on a high degree of predictability and rather fixed frames for their everyday lives in order to maintain or achieve a good life quality (Albrecht & Devlieger, 1999). The YOG, by contrast, is an event that deals with several potential X-factors (such as interaction with an unpredictable number of unfamiliar people, different languages and cultures, and sudden practical tasks that need to be solved). On the event organizer's part, there is an expectation that the volunteers will actually do what is expected of them. Still, in an entrepreneurial manner, the teachers focused on how to optimize their efforts with the resources at hand spotting and exploiting possibilities as they appeared (Martin & Osberg, 2007). The observations showed few or no instances where the students expressed negative feelings attached to their tasks.

Within social entrepreneurship literature, the focus has traditionally been on firms or nonprofit organisations (NPOs). In this context, the emphasis has been on how to create social value for a specific group while creating profit or making an economic impact. Others argue that social entrepreneurs can also be individuals independent of organizations or firms (Sullivan Mort et al., 2003), such as the teachers in this study. The high school for this study is a county-driven institution, and thus the state and government have a strong influence on how it works. Governmental enterprises often work entrepreneurially, for example, to improve education for special groups, health care, and other low-cost services for the common good. They do, however, frequently face rigid bureaucracies that can restrain entrepreneurial activities (Lee, 2014). The teachers in this study, although working in a state-run high school, had freedom of action that often NGOs also enjoy (Lee, 2014).



[2]10B is the name of a tenth grade class. At larger junior high schools, there may be up to four parallel classes, usually labeled A through D.

This allowed them to engage in activities outside of school, as long as they could state the importance for the students. However, they had to think in an entrepreneurial manner, and see possibilities for new approaches (Baron, 2006).

Social innovations are highly important for social entrepreneurs, as they represent new ways of addressing a social need or problem that is not currently being met, often through new forms of cooperation (Hulgård & Lundgaard Andersen, 2014). In this study, the teachers engaged in a new activity, volunteerism, by cooperating with an organization that was partly a governmental and partly a private enterprise, the LYOGOC. Thus, the teachers displayed an entrepreneurial mindset in setting out to do something new and seeking new partners for cooperation while acknowledging that it wouldn't necessarily succeed (Martin & Osberg, 2007).

The teachers, and one in particular, did more than was expected of them to make the volunteer project happen. The main teacher said in one of the interviews before the event, "Had I known in advance how much work it would be, I would never have done it. But I think that it will be worth the effort, seeing the joy they get in return." Social entrepreneurship is about working toward social change and addressing social needs (Mair & Marti, 2006). The scope of this project is rather small and doesn't address people with ID as a whole group. However, it might be a first step on a path where people with ID are included in settings in which currently they are not present. This project did not result in a radical change, but those involved were left with highly subjective, valuable experiences and a significant positive learning outcome, according to their teachers. The project was, to some extent, used to display what the teachers felt was social inequality and to create valuable and positive everyday experiences to promote learning for these particular students.

Social entrepreneurship often has an economic dimension in addition to the creation of social value (Hulgård, 2007). The economic impact of this particular project is rather small, however, it is still present. Volunteer work, in its very nature, is about people using their time and effort to aid or assist someone without the expectation of compensation in return (Mannino et al., 2011). For the LYOGOC, volunteers do jobs the organization would otherwise have to pay for. The job that the students did during the event needed to be done, one way or another, and their volunteer effort saved money for the organizers. The students, for their part, learned new skills and improved their work resumes and networks, and demonstrated what they were capable of, thus becoming more attractive to potential employers.

[3]Emphasis implying that the vast amount of garbage made it the most fun.

**Social Value through Volunteerism**

The term social value is problematized by, among others, Young (2006) in describing this particular kind of value as subjective and almost private. Regarding the class of students with ID, volunteering at larger events can be a source of value by being an arena to promote cooperation and learning to interact with others (for example, in the lunch line or in conversation with the trash recycling leader about what kind of trash goes where). However, the main value might be the work itself and the chance to be someone who assists instead of being assisted.

Furthermore, this experience allows students to choose for themselves what kind of discourse they want to be part of—as a "volunteer at an Olympic event doing an important job" instead of a "student with an intellectual disability with several limitations." Furthermore, the volunteer uniform also contributed to erasing differences among the various volunteers. For instance, those students with Down Syndrome became more like the others, despite their physical characteristics related to their disability. The uniform also contributed to letting students partake of the "volunteer context," which can also be described as "to make oneself known" where the students have opportunities to resist being placed in a certain context, for instance, as "disabled" (Grue, 2001). Moreover, volunteerism might provide an arena where people with ID can experience increased inclusion and an experience of "being normal," thus addressing a social need (the need to belong).

In addition, the LYOG was a valuable arena for exposure, as the volunteers with ID got the opportunity to raise awareness about their potential as a work force. People with ID working as volunteers can also be seen as a social innovation as defined by Pol and Ville (2009). Applied to this case, we can see a new form of cooperation (between the LYOGOC and the local high school), with a potential for increased quality of life for the students concerned, all made possible through this kind of new cooperation and blending of sectors (Hulgård & Lundgaard Andersen, 2014).

This approach may not be appropriate for every individual with ID, but with the prerequisites and circumstances they had, it worked successfully for this group. For instance, one of the girls showed remarkable capacity for physical labor while displaying profound joy and happiness. The observations showed that when she was working, she really had no time to talk to others; instead she rushed to offer assistance where needed because, as she said, "I *have to* help!" Moreover, she smiled the most when she was feeling useful; the heavier the load, the better. As one teacher said,

"Katrine, strong as a bear, carrying these huge bags of garbage with a huge smile on her face. That's when she laughed, when she could run while carrying the biggest bags. She was ecstatic because that's what she likes!" In response to the question of what had been the most fun, Katrine herself said, "to pick up garbage. *A lot*!" Another student, when asked the same question, simply replied, "really, it was good just being here," implying that it was valuable just to be part of this large event, with so many activities to take part in for volunteers as well as spectators. In addition, watching athletes from all over the world, seeing their various team uniforms, and listening to their languages created impressions quite outside the ordinary and were positive experiences.

The goal of the project was for students with ID to learn and master new skills relevant for finding an occupation later on, to experience unity, and to be a part of the same discourse as their nondisabled peers. The teachers of this class emphasized that it is important for these students to be part of the same contexts and discourses as other youths. In addition, by cooperating on very specific tasks, such as opening a rubbish bin (in this case, a three-person job) they got a chance to act together in a new way to solve real world problems through cooperation. As one of the boys said to one of the girls, "You are strong; we are lucky that you are here." This implies that there is value in solving practical jobs together, in a "real" setting. Thus, the LYOG was an arena where the students could appreciate each other's skills in a new environment. All of these are potential sources of social value that is not possible to create inside a classroom.

According to Young (2006), social value is about activities and services valued by a group whose needs are not adequately served by the market or the political system. It is arguable whether all people *need* to volunteer. However, it may be argued that volunteerism is part of the "normal" discourse, as a huge number of people in Norway volunteer on a regular basis (Skille, 2012). Furthermore, according to Bogdan and Taylor (1999), contributing to the society through (for instance) volunteering is important for being part of the community. By volunteering, people get together and form social networks, and there is widespread belief that participation in sports may foster social integration in society (Elmose-Østerlund & Ibsen, 2016).

Observations during the event revealed several situations where the students with ID needed to interact with other volunteers. Many people with ID live highly organized lives and are part of only a few restricted social networks (Søderstrøm & Tøssebro, 2011). The LYOG was an arena where the students were part of a real world setting instead of practicing skills within the confines of a classroom. At the LYOG, they had to interact with many different people from different countries while accomplishing the tasks that needed to be done (such as loosening garbage bags from cans, transporting them to the correct place, and opening the dumpster). The main learning outcome of the volunteer project was closely related to being part of the real world. According to the teachers, being part of society and being as independent as possible are also main concepts that the students needed to learn during their school years.

Several students also got to show other sides of themselves during the event. The teachers were particularly impressed by how one of the boys, Sander, developed during the event. He was also the one who volunteered the most before, during, and after the event. As one of the teachers said, "Really, all of them should have been working for five days in a row; maybe we would have had different learning curves for them as well." As for Sander, the teachers described him as being unable to make his own choices. However, during the LYOG this was not visible, as he became a leader of the group, deciding where to go at what time and the order in which the garbage cans would be emptied. Through volunteering at this event, this particular student got an opportunity to develop new personal characteristics, make independent choices, engage in conversations with other (nondisabled people), and categorize rubbish. All are activities that he normally would not undertake. For the teachers, this led to the discovery of new potential for meaningful work for this particular student.

In regard to finding meaningful occupations for other students, this was one of the main tasks of the school, which is constantly searching for relevant settings where their students with ID might be placed and trained in order to prepare them for life after school. Through the students' volunteer efforts, the teachers discovered skills and characteristics among their students that they had no knowledge of before the event. Thus, the teachers became aware of several work places to approach for place-and-train arrangements.

Social value is, according to Young (2006), inseparable from social activity. For the students with intellectual disabilities in this study, being part of as many social activities as possible may (arguably) be highly important. Sander may be an example as the one volunteer who participated in most of the activities and also the one with the highest reward in terms of personal development. By volunteering in the LYOG, all students received an opportunity to experience what Chalip (2006) describes as

liminality, the sense of being part of something bigger than oneself. With the history of Lillehammer hosting the Olympic Games in 1994, the students got to see themselves as part of that context as well. When talking about the event, almost all the students consistently used the term "the Olympic Games" instead of "Youth Olympics." They had learned about the YOG in school before the event, and the abbreviation "YOG" was written nearly everywhere in the arena. Still, they called the event "the Olympic Games," implying that they saw themselves mainly in an Olympic context. This might also imply that the Olympic context is more valuable than the YOG context.

Finally, the main social value for the students in this study might be the positive experiences and new skills they learned that may help them to live rich, empowering, and diverse lives—in other words, to partake in society. By relying on more empirical studies, contributions are being made in understanding the concept of social value while revealing the potential of sports in a social arena to create this kind of value.

## CONCLUSION

In the beginning, the following questions were raised:

- How can social entrepreneurs create social value for people with intellectual disabilities through volunteer work at a major sporting event?
- How do people with ID experience working as volunteers at a major sporting event?

There is a possibility for social entrepreneurs to create social value for people with ID through participating as volunteers in a major sporting event, as this is a real event, involving real people. It is also about letting marginalized groups participate in the society alongside others and to be a part of discourses that focus on being useful, rather than on their disabilities. Through this, they can learn valuable practical and social skills that may aid them in the everyday life outside of school. People with ID experienced volunteering at the YOG as an exclusive event with rich possibilities to contribute on different levels (locally as well as globally). Furthermore, the event was viewed as a positive and meaningful experience by the volunteers, much due to a careful selection of the tasks they were set to do and through facilitation by persons that knew them well. Additionally, the job they were set to do was experienced as important on its own, not being influenced by whom they were doing it for. Last, it allowed the students to cooperate on practical tasks that needed to be solved, letting them display and develop personal characteristics that were new to themselves and their teachers.

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**4: Article 4**

Undlien, R. (2019). Lasting social value or a one-off? People with intellectual disabilities' experiences with volunteering for the Youth Olympic Games. *Journal of Sport for Development, 7*(13), 33–45.

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# Lasting social value or a one-off? People with intellectual disabilities' experiences with volunteering for the Youth Olympic Games

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ABSTRACT

This article serves as a follow-up on a previous study and looks at how volunteering at a major sporting event has affected the lives of a group of volunteers with intellectual disabilities two years after volunteering. The aim is to examine how volunteering at an Olympic event may be a source for lasting social value, operationalized as an increase in social capital and quality of life. Qualitative interviews were conducted on a selection of former volunteers with intellectual disabilities (n=8). In five of the interviews, parents of the interviewees also functioned as facilitators for the interviews. The same five parents were also interviewed in brief, semistructured interviews. This study shows that the event had a limited effect on bridging social capital, while having a stronger impact on the group`s bonding social capital. Moreover, the event has affected the quality of life for the participants to various degrees by being a source for positive memories, enforced by visual reminders such as the volunteer uniform frequently worn by the former volunteers. The volunteer experience also serves as a bridging element, bringing together groups of people with little in common. In some cases, volunteering also led to employment in regular occupations.

## INTRODUCTION

In the public discourse, young people with intellectual disabilities (ID) are often depicted in terms of the "problems" they experience related to their disability and their need for regular assistance. Thus, to some extent, they can be described as recipients of assistance from others (Roker, Player, & Coleman, 1998), implying that they are not usually seen as capable. Moreover, people with disabilities have not, in general, been given chances to access the opportunities and benefits that volunteerism might provide (Miller, Schleien, Rider, & Hall, 2002), such as increased self-confidence, improved communication skills, and new practical skills (Reilly, 2005). According to Bogdan and Taylor (1999), contributing to society by volunteering is significant for being part of the community as opposed to simply being *in* the community. Thus, it is important to understand how people with ID can contribute as volunteers, how they experience volunteering, and how volunteering might affect their lives. Moreover, volunteering at major sporting events may lead to further community engagement, either at other events or on a regular basis in community organizations (Doherty, 2009). However, whether this applies to people with ID is unclear.

To narrow these gaps in the literature, a study of how people with ID experienced working as volunteers at the 2016 Youth Olympic Games (YOG) in Lillehammer, Norway, was conducted (Undlien, 2019). This study showed that social entrepreneurs could create social value for people with ID by facilitating their participation as volunteers. Moreover, social value creation was closely linked to the YOG as a social arena beyond the classroom involving interactions with different people, giving those with ID access to discourses that focus on their abilities rather than disabilities. As a result, the volunteers with ID experienced learning valuable practical and social skills that might be useful in everyday life. They experienced volunteering at the YOG as an outstanding event, with rich possibilities to contribute on different levels. Furthermore, the event was considered positive and meaningful due to the careful selection of tasks they were assigned and facilitation by persons who knew them well and was also experienced as

**Keywords:** intellectual disabilities; sporting events; volunteering; social value

an event with possibilities for improving bonding, social capital, and networking (Undlien, 2019).

In Undlien's study (2019), social value as conceptualized by Young (2006) was an important element of the theoretical framework. According to Young (2006), social value is open to reappraisal, implying that, even though the volunteers' experiences during the YOG in 2016 may have been considered valuable at the time, this perceived value might have changed in the subsequent two years. Social value is related to subjective, everyday life experiences. Ultimately, it is the targeted group's experiences and perceptions that decide whether something is valuable for them or not (Young, 2006).

This study was conducted to examine whether a sporting event can be a source of positive subjective experiences several years later. The following research question was asked: What possibilities do large sporting events have for creating lasting social value for people with ID through volunteering? In this context, the term "lasting" refers to something beyond the moment itself rather than something permanent.

In this article, social value is operationalized through an increase in social capital and quality of life (QOL). Consequently, to consider if and how volunteering at sporting events creates lasting social value, one must look more closely at how this event affects these constructs. Resulting from this, a second research question was asked: How can volunteering at a major sporting event affect social capital and quality of life for persons with intellectual disabilities?

Additionally, little is known about how people with ID experience volunteer work at Olympic events or how such events may be used to address important issues for this population. Thus, a third research question was raised: To what extent do any changes in social capital, quality of life, and social value for people with ID depend on the nature of the volunteering at a large sporting event? Theoretically, this study sought to contribute to conceptualizations of social value by strengthening the links between social value, social capital, and QOL.

## THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

### Social Value

In the initial study of the group of volunteers with ID, social value was one of the key areas for research as well as the aim for the students to participate in the event (Undlien, 2019). Creating social value is well established as the ultimate goal for social entrepreneurs (Auerswald, 2009; Dees, 2001; Guo & Bielefeld, 2014; Helmsing, 2015; Sullivan Mort, Weerawardena, & Carnegie, 2003). However, this theoretical construct remains vague (Dees, 2001). Social value has several definitions. For this study, Young's definition (2006) of something that "benefits people whose urgent and reasonable needs are not being met by any other means" (p. 56) was chosen.

Social value is closely linked to social change for specific groups (Mair & Marti, 2006; Weerawardena, & Mort, 2006; Young, 2006). Thus, to assess whether social value was created "beyond the moment" in the study population, it was important to address eventual changes in the lives of those who volunteered, such as new forms of cooperation or social relationships, networks, acquaintances, friendships, and opportunities.

### Quality of Life and Social Capital

Volunteer activities are known to have the potential to improve QOL (Stebbins, 2004). Moreover, according to Csikszentmihalyi (1997), the quality of leisure activities such as volunteering is influenced by those with whom one volunteers (among other factors). He further states that people are (obviously) happier and more motivated when interacting with friends. Thus, doing something with friends, such as volunteering to collect garbage at a major sports event, may lead to increased QOL (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997).

According to Stebbins (2004), leisure activities like volunteering can contribute partially or wholly to people's perception of QOL. Although QOL may be seen as a subjective experience of well-being and encompassing feelings of positive involvement and opportunities to achieve personal potential, several circumstances affect this experience (Schalock et al., 2002; Næss, 2011). Volunteering, an activity that might contribute to the need for fulfillment and to the welfare of others, is an example (Velde, 1997). According to Putnam (2001), the more integrated into the community we are, the less likely we are to experience numerous negative health effects. Social networks may also strengthen healthy norms.

Therefore, high social capital is more likely to lead to better social and physical health, both important factors for QOL. Stebbins (2004) states that QOL and volunteerism are interconnected through four components. The three most relevant for this study are: a sense of achievement, links with the wider community, and a sense of fulfillment of

potential through experiencing the reward of self-actualization (Schalock et al., 2002).

As seen in Undlien (2019), the 2016 YOG in Norway were experienced as an arena suitable for the building of social capital for several target groups of social entrepreneurial projects. Moreover, social value is closely linked with social capital in several ways (Westlund & Gawell, 2012). Broadly speaking, social capital includes several aspects of social contexts, such as social ties and trusting relationships (Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998). Putnam (2001) distinguished between "bridging" (inclusive), "bonding" (exclusive), and "linking dimensions" of social capital. Sometimes social capital is inward-looking and reinforces existing identities or strengthens the sense of belonging to a homogeneous group. This can be considered bonding social capital, where an internal group or network has several common values and norms that keep the group together while excluding those on the outside. Event volunteerism might contribute to the creation and maintenance of social capital since volunteers work together for a goal they consider important. However, networks may also be outward-looking, reaching across social divides to connect people. While bridging social capital can form broader identities and mutuality, bonding social capital supplements narrower selves (Putnam, 2001).

Similar to the concept of social value, which is highly subjective and personal (Young, 2006), QOL depends on the individual's perceptions and values and might aid in identifying and emphasizing necessary support and services (Schalock et al., 2002). Ultimately, the overall goal for making social changes and meeting unmet social needs may (arguably) be to improve QOL for those involved. Disabilities are often associated with problems related to participation in society, meaning this population is at risk of exclusion from certain opportunities available to others (Schalock et al., 2002). Therefore, it is reasonable to operationalize the concept of social value in terms of improved QOL. Furthermore, social inclusion, social networks, and interpersonal relations (together, social capital) are important factors affecting QOL (Schalock et al., 2002). According to Westlund (2006), social capital comprises (among other elements) social networks and relationships. Consequently, it is reasonable to say that increases in social capital and QOL may serve as significant outcomes of social entrepreneurial projects and that social value can be operationalized as an increase in social capital and QOL.

**Project-Based Leisure**

Considering the circumstances of the volunteer work performed by the group of students with ID, it is challenging to identify a theoretical perspective on volunteerism that seems appropriate. Stebbins (1982, 2004) contributed significantly to conceptualizing volunteerism through his work on serious leisure. However, for this study, the category of project-based leisure is the most relevant. Project-based leisure can be characterized as a short-term, moderately complicated, one-shot undertaking that happens in a person`s free time. Often, much planning, effort, and skill or knowledge is required to proceed with this kind of project (Stebbins, 2005). In this case and the previous study (Undlien, 2019), the teachers of the students with ID did the planning as they possess the necessary knowledge about the group's capabilities and the skills for organizing their volunteer participation. Recognizable benefits associated with this type of leisure activity include a special identity and a sense of belonging to a social group (Stebbins, 2005).

Project-based leisure has potential for building community. People who would otherwise not have met can gather and get to know each other. Moreover, in relation to event volunteering, project-based leisure can contribute to producing community events and projects (Stebbins, 2007) that, in turn, have valuable social impacts on local communities and their residents (Chalip, 2006).

**Social Innovations and Volunteerism**

Within the field of social entrepreneurship, social innovation is a central element in the formation of social value (Dees, Emerson, & Economy, 2002; Pol & Ville, 2009; Hulgård & Lundgaard Andersen, 2014). Hulgård (2007) emphasizes that social innovations may be new ideas that comply with social needs while creating new forms of social relationships or cooperation. Arguably, we can discuss social innovations when people with ID, normally excluded from the volunteer context, work as volunteers through facilitation by social entrepreneurs, with a goal of gaining social value as an outcome of their participation (Undlien, 2019). This is also a new kind of cooperation and way of organizing interpersonal activities to meet common goals (Mumford, 2002), e.g., learning new social skills and being included in new social settings. However, if people with ID working as volunteers is to be defined as social innovation, there is a need to look further at the outcome of the innovation, as an idea with a potential for improving QOL (Pol & Ville, 2009).

## METHODS

### Study Design and Setting

This qualitative study was conducted through semistructured interviews shaped as informal conversations. The goal was to gather descriptions, thoughts, and reflections about the lived world of the interviewees (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009), focusing especially on the beneficial outcomes of volunteering at the 2016 YOG.

The YOG, a major sporting event, gathered 1100 athletes from all over the world to compete in 15 different winter sports (Hanstad, Kristiansen, Sand, Skirstad, & Strittmatter, 2016). It is the newcomer to the Olympic family, with extensive cultural and educational programs (Houlihan, Hanstad, & Parent, 2014). During the five-day event, the group of high-school students with ID enrolled as volunteers, with the task of picking up trash in one of the main arenas of the event. Some volunteers also worked at a storehouse for five days before the event, with different tasks related to organizing and transporting equipment for the various venues. One of the students also worked several days after the event.

### Interviewees

In the initial study (Undlien, 2019), 12 youth with ID, ages 19–23 years, who volunteered during the 2016 YOG were interviewed and observed during the event. The inclusion criteria for participation in the present study were based on the subjects' abilities to communicate about and reflect on events, experiences, and perceptions of the past. Of the 12 original participants, three females and five males met these criteria based on experience from the previous study and were invited to participate in interviews two years after the event; five brought one of their parents to the interview. In addition to assisting their children with the interview, these five consenting parents participated in brief interviews. These interviews were included in the study primarily to strengthen the answers of those with ID and to gain their perspectives of potential changes in the lives of the former volunteers resulting from their work at the YOG, thereby improving the opportunity to collect richer data.

### Procedure and Data Collection

Where to be interviewed and whether to bring a parent were entirely up to each interviewee. One interview was at a public café, another at the local university. The remaining interviews were held in the interviewees' homes. Interviews with former YOG volunteers lasted 30-45 minutes; those with parents were 15–25 minutes long.

Previous work with these particular interviewees informed the creation of an open-interview guide that could easily be adjusted according to individuals' capabilities. In the initial study, most of the interviews were conducted in real-time while they were working as volunteers and relied heavily on observations as well (Undlien, 2019). According to Biklen and Moseley (1988), researchers who conduct interviews with people with disabilities find that observation is an important part of the process. Although observation was not used as a scientific method here, relevant elements were observed during the interviews that told the interviewer something about the importance of the event in the interviewees' lives. For instance, one interviewee had his accreditation card displayed alongside various YOG merchandise in a frame hanging in the most visible place in his living room. Another knew exactly where her volunteer clothing could be found, even though they are warm clothes that had not been worn since last winter, and the interview took place on a warm autumn day.

All interviews were transcribed verbatim, with notes inserted for laughter, expressions, and tone of voice (e.g., gesticulating, stuttering, talking rapidly, etc.). In addition, a "reflection log" was written after each interview where parts of the conversation considered particularly interesting were noted.

### Qualitative Interviews with People with ID

Qualitative methods contribute increasingly to highlighting the unknown about people with ID and are highly valuable for enlightening us about their lives and experiences (Beail & Williams, 2014). People with ID have a cognitive impairment that can make it difficult to understand complex questions or to get an overview of the scope of the question(s) asked. Furthermore, many find it difficult to determine which answers to a question might be relevant (Beail & Williams, 2014; Ellingsen, 2010). According to Booth and Booth (1996), researchers conducting qualitative research with this population often face four main challenges, and this was true in this study. These are inarticulateness, unresponsiveness, lack of a concrete frame of reference (such as difficulties related to generalizing in relation to experiences and reflecting in abstract terms), and challenges regarding the order of events/times.

A simple interview guide was created that divided questions by themes into three categories: volunteerism, social capital, and QOL. As these theoretical concepts may be difficult for people with ID to understand, they were rephrased as questions aimed at discovering the effects on the interviewees of volunteering for the YOG. For example, questions regarding new acquaintances addressed bridging social capital, while bonding social capital was forwarded

through questions relating to how volunteering affected and continues to affect relationships among the former volunteers. There were also questions that tried to highlight whether the event continues to be a source of subjective and positive everyday experiences, as identified in the initial study (Undlien, 2019).

Many people with ID experience challenges related to the functioning of working memory (Schuchardt, Gebhardt, & Mäehler, 2010). Such challenges were familiar to the author, given his experience with the interviewees during the previous study. One strategy for overcoming them might be using important people in the interviewees' lives, such as parents (Biklen & Moseley, 1988).

**Interviewing Parents and Parent Presence During Interviews**

The brief interviews with five parents were organized into three themes: value gained by their children by participating at the YOG, resulting social or personal changes, and the role the YOG may still play in their children's everyday lives.

Although the literature on using parents as facilitators during interviews with people with ID is scant, several studies have used this approach, especially in research with children (although without disabilities). Irwin and Johnson (2005) found that having parents present while interviewing young children added richness and completeness to the children's stories. Dolva, Kollstad, and Kleiven (2016) also used this approach in their study of adolescents with Down syndrome and their participation in leisure activities.

In this study, the role of the parent present at the interview was similar to that of the parents in Irwin and Johnson's (2005) study. Every interview started with the author asking the interviewee (with ID) if it was okay for his/her parent to help during the interview if the interviewee should need it. The parent could rephrase the question that was asked, assist in finding triggers for memories, and give the interviewee cues, leading to richer answers to questions. Having a parent present is also a way of validating the answers of those with ID, as they could clarify or correct details in the stories of the interviewees.

**Photo Interviews**

Using photos in interviews with people with ID can have the positive effect of reducing or averting the strangeness of the interview situation (Schwartz, 1989). It is increasingly common to use photographic methods in qualitative research with this population (Aldridge, 2007). Photo interviewing might prove helpful for researchers by providing nuance, challenging participants, and triggering memories, thereby offering new perspectives and information and helping avoid misinterpretations by the researcher (Hurworth, 2004). In this study, participants were asked to bring three different photos from their volunteer participation, which were used as a basis for the interviews. Not every interviewee did so, but several brought a "memory" book with photos. In addition, photos from the YOG brought by the interviewer and a specific video clip from the YOG were used as starting points for the conversation.

**Ethical Considerations**

All interviewees, including youth and their parents, received written information about the study in advance and provided written informed consent. Initial contact was made with the parents of the eight former volunteers with ID. Of these, three requested that the author contact their respective child directly, as they anticipated the former volunteers would not wish to have a parent present at the interview, which was confirmed by these youth. Parents were only allowed to participate with their child's agreement. Where necessary, parents of the interviewees assisted their child with providing informed consent. Ethical approval for the study was obtained from the Norwegian Centre for Research Data (NSD).

**Analysis**

The theoretical concepts of social value, social capital, and QOL served as the basis for the analysis, which was inspired by a "bricolage" approach, through which meaning is generated by applying theoretical terms and significance to the accounts of the interviewees ad hoc. In addition, by choosing this approach, several different meaning-generating techniques may be applied, such as the creation of an overall picture of the material, rereading of data (in this case, the transcripts and the logbooks with reflections), and the creation of narratives (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009).

As several of the interviewees had limited spoken language, it was sometimes necessary to rewrite the interview as a narrative. For instance, a story was developed about the interviewee's new life, such as where he/she lives and works, his or her participation in leisure activities, friends, networks, and how these relate to the volunteer effort during the YOG. The narrative could be created through simple questions (answers could be "yes" or "no"), in addition to some information from the parent present at the interview. By combining these answers and adding context provided by the parent, simple answers and sentences were

reconstructed as whole narratives. An important aspect of this was having the parent present and involved in getting the story correct and ensuring that the interviewee could express his/her intended meaning. The aim of the narratives was to describe what had happened since volunteering at the YOG and to determine whether volunteering affects the person at the present time.

Other interviewees had quite advanced vocabularies; thus, their interviews could be subjects of more rigorous analysis. As is often the case with people with ID, the interviewees could digress from the subject of the conversation; however, according to the author's experience, data can often be found in such digressions. The bricolage approach is particularly useful when rereading passages where the contribution to the data may be missing in the first place (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). In the transcripts of these digressions, it was sometimes necessary to "shave off" bits, extracting the most relevant parts and reconstructing them to form a more coherent picture.

Themes and experiences that the interviewees discussed during the conversations were highlighted, taken in relation to each other, and interpreted with reference to the three theoretical categories of the study. The theoretical constructs of the study were used to apply meaning to the interviewees' stories in attempts to discover how the stories could be related to the YOG.

## FINDINGS

### Social Value and Social Capital

All the interviewees described wearing the volunteer uniform regularly and with pride. The uniform was considered highly important and valuable by most interviewees. One interviewee's parent explained humorously that it was difficult to make her daughter wear something other than the uniform. All the interviewees claimed to use some or most of the clothing on a daily basis during winter and some of it even during summer. The volunteer uniform served as a reminder of the days of the event and as a link to others who also volunteered at the YOG. According to the mother of one interviewee, her daughter could "spot a uniform a mile away." She might also talk to others wearing clothing related to the YOG, even if she did not know them.

At the time of the interviews (two years post-YOG), most of the interviewees were working at facilitated workplaces or day centers for people with ID or other special needs. Two worked at regular jobs. According to one mother, her son learned how to perform physical labor during the YOG. This, in turn, led directly to his securing employment at a regular job as opposed to at a facilitated workplace or day center. Having worked as a volunteer at the YOG served to open doors to another volunteer as well, helping him to gain employment at two different grocery stores. Thus, volunteering had a positive impact on two volunteers' career opportunities.

Only one interviewee mentioned making new acquaintances during the 2016 event, although the two volunteers have not talked since. The rest had minimal social interaction with the other volunteers; thus, access to new networks or expanding existing ones was limited.

Although most of those who volunteered during the YOG meet either in smaller groups or all together on several weekly occasions (especially at a youth club for people with ID in the municipality on a given day every week), they rarely talk about the volunteer experience. However, one expressed joy knowing that they could if they wanted to. The mere possibility that the former volunteers could get together and talk about the event was a source of happiness for him, even though they did so seldom or never. At the local club the DJ would usually play a song that the interviewee and his choir (unrelated to either school or the volunteer work) recorded during the YOG about the event, and as he said, "We hear the song, and we know that we were there."

### Social Value and Quality of Life

Of all the interviewees, only two could mention negative aspects of working as volunteers during the YOG. One explained, "It was slippery; we almost tripped all the time. It was hard to figure where to empty the plastic bags with garbage, and it was kind of a mess when we first got there . . . the [accreditation] cards and everything. We did not know which area we were supposed to be at or anything; it was kind of messy the first time." The other interviewee stated that he did not approve of how the group was organized during the five-day event; he would have preferred that they were divided into smaller groups, thus covering a larger area. This was not an issue he raised at the time but rather something he had realized retrospectively. The interviewee felt that all of them walking as one group was ineffective as opposed to dividing the group into smaller teams that worked all over the venue.

Although the task of collecting trash was considered meaningful, joyful, and suitable by most interviewees, there were others who found that particular task a little boring. As

one said, "It was something that I did not enjoy from the start; it did, however, get better at the end." Another was not pleased about how the group was organized during the day. While not a negative aspect of volunteering at the event at the time, another interviewee said it was difficult for her when the event ended, as returning to normal, everyday life felt like a letdown. Two years later, this interviewee still felt sad about this.

Several interviewees thought of things that could have been organized differently concerning their work routines, while others felt there was some disorganization regarding when and where they were going to work. Still, all were left with positive experiences and had no trouble mentioning fun aspects of the experience. Most of the interviewees highlighted picking up trash and "people-watching" as the most enjoyable. Those who had also worked at the warehouse before the event considered those days the best as they were more diverse and challenging. As one interviewee said, "Working at the warehouse was the coolest [thing] I have ever done. That made me realize that this was something I could do in the future!"

For those who found work at regular jobs as a result of volunteering, the YOG may have played a particularly important role in improving their QOL. For the rest, the YOG served as a constant source of positive memories and experiences. They still use some or all of the uniform on a regular basis, and the uniform is a visual reminder of the event. All the interviewees said they regularly think about the event as it was such an extraordinary and special experience. Many described talking about the event frequently, in particular with their parents. One interviewee had his accreditation card and a selection of pictures from the YOG in a framed display in the most visible spot in his living room.

To see oneself as someone working and doing physical labor was important to several interviewees. When at work, one of them almost took on a new identity based on his perception of how, in his words, the "working man" looks and acts. The backpack he received from the YOG was his dedicated "work backpack," which he was eager to display during the interview. He also explained that, to his mother's surprise, he drinks coffee when at work, as this is something he perceives working people do.

All five of the parents who were interviewed were immensely proud of their sons and daughters, for getting a chance to do something extraordinary, being a part of something big, and showing that they could be useful and add value to the community. Many described having seen their son or daughter change during the event, grow more secure, learn new things, and become more ready for adult life after school. Consequently, volunteering at the YOG made an impact on the QOL of the parents as well, as they saw new, positive sides to their respective children, including independence, initiative, and eagerness to perform physical labor.

**Volunteerism**

All the interviewees remembered their volunteer days well. They could recall being a part of the event as volunteers, their specific routines in regard to picking up garbage, and the names of those in their group. Some remembered quite a number of details. Although several had limited spoken language, simple sentences could provide a lot of information. For instance, one interviewee said, "We danced, me and (name of teacher)," referring to a spontaneous three-minute dance in the cantina on one occasion. Several other volunteers were present, and the commotion was actually filmed by a national media team. The days when they were volunteering were quite different from ordinary days and, to some extent, remarkable, which may make it easier for the interviewees to remember them.

Most interviewees were aware of what the YOG was, and some were able to describe the event. For instance, one explained: "The YOG was kind of a sport for many [people] around the world, where they were competing and trying to be best in, for instance, ski jumping or ordinary slalom skiing, things like that." When asked the same question, others simply stated it was hard to describe. However, as a whole the interviewees demonstrated that they knew what the event was about. For some, the YOG was just about picking up trash; they were not really concerned about the sports or any other activities associated with the event, such as concerts, "trying the sport" (one of the programs of the event), or spectating at the venues.

Most interviewees understood the concept of volunteering, described by one of them this way: "Being a volunteer is simply enjoyable, helping, and being a part of something that is fun for others, seeing it in a more important way." Another described volunteering as "working together, doing things for the environment, helping people, and if not, events may not happen." Furthermore, all of them understood that they were doing this work without getting paid or compensated in any way.

Only one interviewee had engaged in some kind of volunteer work during the two years after the event by being involved to some extent in a political youth organization. However, the mother of one interviewee said she had attempted to show interest in volunteering on her daughter's

behalf. When she talked with representatives of a major local sporting event, she was left with the impression that it was difficult to include people with ID in that particular event. Instead of an embracing welcome, she felt resistance when she suggested that the group, or at least her child, could volunteer as they had done during the YOG, so she abandoned her effort.

The interviews show that the school played an important part in facilitating the participation of the students with ID as volunteers at the YOG. Now that they are out of school and scattered, they do not volunteer unless someone takes the initiative on their behalf. They need someone other than their parents leading them. As the mother of one interviewee said, "If no one asks, it won't happen," meaning that the initiative to volunteer needs to come from outside.

The volunteers who worked in the warehouse found that those chores were the most fun, interesting, and challenging. Two years after the YOG, picking up trash at the event was still considered something positive, meaningful, and fun. For some interviewees, picking up trash was what they wanted to talk about when discussing the YOG, rather than the facts that they met celebrities, got airtime on Norwegian television, or attended the opening ceremony. For these interviewees, this task was considered the most important aspect of volunteering at the YOG. When asked what they remember most about the event, some simply answered "trash" or "throwing trash." However, there were also those who enjoyed being part of the YOG atmosphere and the extraordinary events that took place during the YOG as well as being part of a larger community and working toward the shared goal of successfully hosting a big sporting event. One interviewee described his tasks during the event: "Picking up trash, cleaning the area, actually being a part of the community; we were a part of the community. Meeting the people, meeting the athletes, meeting the Olympic community. Also meeting celebrities (naming several)."

## DISCUSSION

This article aimed to answer three questions:

- *What possibilities do large sporting events offer for creating **lasting** social value for people with intellectual disabilities through volunteering?*
- *How can volunteering at an event such as the YOG affect the social capital and quality of life for persons with intellectual disabilities?*
- *To what extent do any changes in social capital, quality of life, and social value for people with ID depend on the nature of the volunteer work at a large sporting event?*

### Social Value

Within the concept of social entrepreneurship, the ultimate goal is the creation of social value through social innovation (Dees, 2001). In the previous study conducted at the 2016 YOG (Undlien, 2019), the teachers served as social innovators by initiating cooperation with the event organizers. The cooperation between the school and the YOG was new, with a potential for improving QOL, thereby aligning with the characteristics of social innovations (Pol & Ville, 2009). The main objectives were inclusion and improving the participants' opportunities for future employment by learning new social and practical skills (Undlien, 2019) or, in other words, facilitating a better future and increase in QOL.

While the initial study by Undlien (2019) operationalized social value according to Young (2006) as highly subjective and positive experiences, this study used a different approach. Theoretically, this article aimed to further address whether there was a change in social capital and quality of life for the former volunteers, as these arguably can be seen as important aspects of social value. In addition, examining social value further than a feeling of belonging to a group and society as whole is needed in order to see whether lasting social value was created.

Social value is often conceptualized as the addressing of social needs and work toward social change resulting from social innovations (Mair & Marti, 2006). Therefore, the first factor to be addressed is the clarification of this group's unmet social needs and the attempt to identify the kinds of changes desired. Moreover, to determine whether social innovation was successful and created social value, it is crucial to address the de facto social changes of the project's target group.

The desire to belong, to participate in society, and to be seen as an equal is important and not exclusive to people with ID. Furthermore, these may be considered the overall goals for initiating the volunteer project (Undlien, 2019), and, to some extent, the teachers succeeded in meeting these objectives. This particular feeling of belonging may have been context-specific; thus, the event's coming to an end and the passage of time took their toll. However, this study demonstrates that most of the group with ID who volunteered during the event continue to see each other on a regular basis and to wear parts of the volunteer uniform, thereby enhancing this feeling of belonging and serving as

an indicator of enhanced social value.

**Social Capital and Quality of Life**

The volunteer uniform functioned as a source for pride for the group of students with ID during the event (Undlien, 2019), and it still does, acting as a daily reminder of "who they were" during their days volunteering at the YOG. For those particular days, they could see themselves as useful and part of a large team working toward the same goal. At the present time, the uniform plays an important role in building bonding social capital among the former volunteers with ID while helping to provide bridging social capital to others who also volunteered during the event (Putnam, 2001). All the interviewees in this study recognize the uniform when it is worn by others, and some of them talk with people they have not met before simply because they are wearing the uniform.

Social change, where private actors step in where no or few others can or will in order to change a suboptimal situation regarding equity for a specific group, is central for social entrepreneurs (Martin & Osberg, 2007). It is arguable whether participating as volunteers at the YOG led to any social change in relation to integration in society or an increase in social networks for the students with ID or, put another way, whether there has been a change in their social capital as a result of volunteering that affects their QOL. In regard to social capital in terms of social networks and connections among individuals (Putnam, Leonardi, & Nanetti, 1994), the effect has been minor. The volunteers with ID had limited contact with other volunteers during the event and acquired few or no new acquaintances with whom they have kept in touch. However, for two of them, working as volunteers provided them with linking social capital, connecting individuals across social and institutional hierarchies (Putnam, 2001) and leading to their employment as regular employees with salaries.

Having people with ID employed at regular jobs, as opposed to government-funded day centers where many people with ID (Söderström & Tøssebro, 2011) spend their time, is also an empirical example of how social capital may be converted into benefits for society (Tan, Williams, & Tan, 2005). The two that were employed in regular jobs were both able to express themselves clearly, understood how to perform a variety of practical tasks, and were accustomed to being independent in their everyday life. In their positions, they had social interaction with customers and coworkers on a daily basis. For these two, being employed may hold potential for extending their social networks, thus providing them with increased social capital, potentially affecting QOL. Whether they will take advantage of this and actually use this opportunity remains unclear, but the option is present. While the effect of volunteering on bridging social capital may have been limited (i.e., applicable for only two of the interviewees), its effect on bonding social capital within the group has been much stronger. One can argue that this leaves the group in a relatively unchanged state concerning social capital. However, their volunteer participation still serves as an experience that can be shared and discussed with others. At the event, 3,368 people volunteered, and half that number were 29 years old or younger (Hanstad et al, 2016). Most of the volunteers also reside in the relatively small city of Lillehammer; thus, the chance of meeting someone who volunteered is high. Having shared this experience may serve as a linking element, supported by the use of the volunteer uniform, providing the group with ID with a common ground with others and, potentially, an increase in social capital at a later stage of life.

Although the event is over, the interviewees still find a sense of achievement. There were also links to the wider community (the two who were employed). Some interviewees even experienced a sense of fulfillment of potential by feeling the reward of self-actualization (Schalock et al., 2002).

Serious leisure, such as volunteering, is characterized by the development of skills and knowledge (Stebbins, 2004). As time has passed, two of the interviewees have reflected on aspects of the volunteer experience that could have been better. There was room for improvement in regard to organizing the group of volunteers differently, choosing the task they were assigned, and increasing their level of influence. However, those particular interviewees also achieved learning outcomes in the form of new practical and social skills. Moreover, sharing negative experiences might provide a bonding element with others who share this view. This aspect of learning might have been lost had they not volunteered for the event. It may also imply that the interviewees wish to be taken seriously, both as volunteers and as adults.

Volunteering at the YOG may have affected social capital and quality of life for the group of volunteers with ID to some extent, although certain requirements needed to be present. Quality of life might have been affected by being involved in an extraordinary experience doing something that was experienced as meaningful together with friends. This in turn may also have influenced their bonding social capital, bringing them closer together as a group, despite having a limited effect on bridging social capital.

**Volunteerism**

From this study, we see that people with ID can understand the concept of volunteering and the benefits it might offer others. There are three aspects that were important in order for this group to be able to volunteer: (1) someone taking the initiative to volunteer on their behalf; (2) an open-minded and flexible event, with a variety of tasks to choose from; and (3) a group with which to volunteer (see also, Stebbins, 2004).

The interviews revealed that the task the volunteers were doing and with whom they were doing it was important for making this a positive experience. This supports the views of Csikszentmihalyi (1997) that volunteering with friends might lead to an increase in life quality. Moreover, volunteering led to the formation of new friendships within the group. Although they were already familiar with each other, working together allowed them to see and appreciate new aspects of each other.

The impact that volunteering at the YOG has made on the group of students with ID and its contribution to providing lasting social value is closely connected to the Olympic context and atmosphere. From the perspective of project-based leisure, the YOG was an extraordinary event, moderately complicated, and conducted in a relatively brief time frame (Stebbins, 2004). The group of volunteers with ID gained access to a special identity as volunteers at an Olympic event that resulting in their bonding. Stebbins (2004) noted this as one of the benefits often associated with project-based leisure. Related to the findings of this study, it may also be that it is more difficult for this particular type of volunteer to gain access to local events. However, future studies should investigate this further. Still, there are certain conditions related to Olympic events that do not apply to local ones, especially in regard to relatively high media coverage, the presence of celebrities, exciting opportunities for various activities, and attention within the local community. These combined factors result in a unique event for volunteering and influencing the experience of those who participated. It is arguable that these elements contributed significantly to the creation of social value through an increase in social capital and quality of life for the group of former volunteers. The task itself was important in this process, as it was experienced as meaningful and something that could be managed by all, but the environment and circumstances in which the task was performed may have played an equally important role in the creation of lasting social value. As long as the job to be done at an event is perceived as important, significant, and manageable, it can be a source for lasting social value. Still, it is reasonable to claim that larger events are better able to provide an exceptional atmosphere for volunteering than smaller ones. Whether sporting events depend on these elements in order to achieve these results needs to be explored in future studies.

One can argue that there is a danger in looking back too much on the event instead of working toward the future. There is a risk that, for the interviewees, volunteering at the YOG becomes an experience that overshadows any future involvement as volunteers. In a Norwegian context, volunteer uniforms and meeting celebrities are uncommon in regular sporting events. However, Undlien's study (2019) demonstrated that the main value of volunteering was related to the task itself (picking up garbage) and who they were doing it with (friends and classmates). Thus, there is also a chance that looking back at their YOG experience—as was done in this study—the group of former volunteers may wish to pursue an opportunity to again experience value through physical labor with people they know. In doing so, the experiences gained during the YOG may influence the former volunteers' desire to do volunteer work in the future and require them to adjust their expectations, as volunteering at non-Olympic events may not be considered as extraordinary.

**LIMITATIONS**

While only eight interviewees participated in this study, as a qualitative study, the aim is not to generalize but rather examine how volunteering at the YOG has affected the lived lives of the interviewees. Moreover, according to Kvale and Brinkmann (2009), it is often advantageous to have few interviewees and to spend more time on the preparation and analysis of the interviews.

Furthermore, two years after the event may seem brief, as many of the experiences and memories may still be fresh. However, for the interviewees, these two years have involved a transition from students to young adults. Most of the former volunteers now have daytime jobs, either in facilitated day centers or regular jobs. They all live in or around the same city; some have moved into their own apartments, either alone or with assistance from municipally employed people. At the time of the study, others still lived with their parents but were about to move into their own apartments. Accordingly, all of the interviewees found themselves at a new stage in life, adding richness to the picture compared to the initial study by Undlien (2019).

In qualitative research, there is always a risk that the interviewees will simply tell the interviewer what they

believe he or she wants to hear (Biklen & Moseley, 1988). In this study, a parent would intervene at some points if the youth gave an inaccurate answer to the interviewer's question that made his or her response less relevant to the study. Thus, having a parent present may have been another way to add richness to the data and serve as a check on the youth's responses. In addition, questions could be rephrased by the interviewer and asked again in order to strengthen an interviewee's response.

There are also limitations associated with the capabilities of the interviewees to express themselves and to reflect on the past and the future. The interviewees may also have been more prone to remembering the positive aspects of the event as it was so exclusive and outstanding, thus focusing less on potential negative aspects. The impacts of these limitations have been minimized by relying on close reading and interpretation of the data supported by the previous study and also including the perspective of parents in the cases where this was necessary.

## CONCLUDING REMARKS

Two years after the event, the YOG is still a source of positive experiences for the volunteers with ID interviewed for this study, which are, in turn, important aspects of social value (Young, 2006). To some extent, the volunteer activities appear to have led to a change in how the youth with ID see themselves, allowing for an opportunity to resist being labeled as persons in need of assistance and instead being seen as useful and important people who provided aid at an event (Grue, 2001). Although the picture has shifted from exclusively positive (Undlien, 2019) to one where room for improvement has been identified or where memories of things that did not work as well have been expressed, the overall picture remains positive among all the former volunteers interviewed.

Volunteering at the YOG granted the volunteers several benefits including learning new skills (doing physical labor) and a special identity (as a volunteer at an Olympic event, enforced by the volunteer uniform). Thus, project-based leisure, such as volunteering at the YOG, has made and is still making an impact on the QOL for those who were part of the 2016 event (Stebbins, 2005). It is an entry for conversation with people they would otherwise have nothing in common with. In two cases, it has led to employment opportunities, and it continues to provide a strong bonding social capital for the group. However, it seems to have provided the group with limited bridging or linking social capital (Putnam, 2001) in terms of extended networks that might be advantageous for the former volunteers. Moreover, volunteering at the YOG has led to personal development for some in several areas, and others continue to experience a sense of well-being and positive involvement (Schalock et al., 2002). An added dimension is the impact it has had on some of the parents of the former volunteers, who discovered new sides to their sons or daughters. The findings from this small study suggest that it may be possible to use an event such as the YOG to create lasting social value for people with ID through volunteerism.

## NOTES

[1]It should be noted that it is not my intention to make any kind of comparison between people with intellectual disabilities and children.

[2]This is translated directly from Norwegian, where "throwing" the trash means getting rid of it.

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People who volunteer at sporting events are known to access several benefits, such as extending their social resources, increasing their networks of contacts, qualifications, and quality of life. However, people with intellectual disabilities (ID) are not usually a part of the sports-event volunteer context; thus, little is known about potential benefits they can access by doing so. In 2016, a school class with students with ID volunteered at an Olympic event in Norway. Thus, they had an opportunity to "challenge the image," to change how they were viewed by others and to be seen as useful persons. This thesis explores how this group could be "a part of it" and the personal and social outcomes of their participation as volunteers. In addition, it focuses on the role a major sporting event can play in a process of social innovation as well as whether and how this new idea or service can contribute to adding social value for a specific group of people, such as people with ID.

The thesis is a qualitative single-case study, using the 2016 Lillehammer Youth Olympic Games (LYOG) as its main case. The event organizers demonstrated social responsibility by including several groups of people, such as newly arrived refugees, people in treatment for drug addiction, and a high-school class for people with ID, as volunteers. Some of the main findings are that volunteering at Olympic events holds a potential for cooperation between persons and organizations that do not normally cooperate, where a win-win effect can be created. Organizations addressing social issues on behalf of vulnerable groups experienced the LYOG as a suitable arena for social entrepreneurial projects, potentially creating social value for specific groups through volunteering. Furthermore, social entrepreneurs benefit from the marketing and attention that follow in the wake of an Olympic event to leverage their projects.